

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN BUREAUCRACY
AND THE PUPIL CONTROL IDEOLOGY OF
SECONDARY SCHOOLS AND TEACHERS

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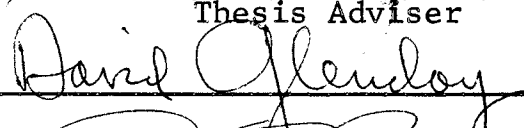
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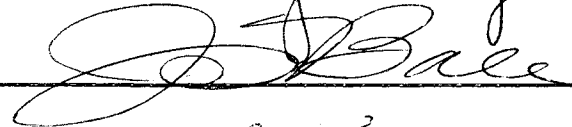
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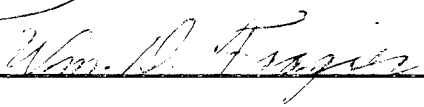
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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM

Introduction: Background for the Study

In past decades, schools like many service organizations, have found the pressures for growth to be a persistent problem. Pressures of expanding population and rapid urbanization have forced major changes upon the school. These problems have been multiplied by the continued trend toward school district consolidation and reorganization in many states. As schools have grown and public expectations have become more demanding, the organizational structure of schools has often had to be streamlined and modernized. Teachers have become more specialized. Expectations of students have become more demanding. In the context of modern demands on educational institutions, it is no longer considered practical for the one-administrator, ten-teacher school to be representative of public elementary and secondary schools. Educators are now thinking in terms of schools within a school, consolidated county school systems, or large centralized urban educational systems designed to meet the educational needs of both children and adults.

Many schools have developed structural characteristics not unlike those generally found in other types of complex

organizations. This structure appears closely allied with that which is commonly referred to as bureaucracy. The bureaucratic model, long associated with industrial and political organizations, may not be, however, an appropriate model for service organizations such as schools. School administrators do not commonly conform to the stereotype of production managers, teachers are not foremen, and students are not laborers. Yet, to fulfill their roles within the structure, school personnel may be expected to conform to such stereotypes in order to attain the efficiency and order for which the bureaucratic structure has been designed. Administrators may want a well-ordered system which provides for and facilitates predictable outcomes. Teachers may seek to control their charges in order to present the allusion of a well-ordered learning environment. Students may be forced to conform to pre-established modes of behavior which little account for the individual interests and backgrounds of a heterogeneous population.

Need for the Study

One central element in a bureaucratic structure is a demand for control. This demand for control, persistent at the middle and lower levels within the structure, is discussed by Weber who contends that the bureaucratic structure is:

. . . the most rational known means of carrying out imperative control over human beings. It is superior to any other form in precision, in stability,

in the stringency of its discipline, and in its reliability (4, pp. 333-334).

Bidwell (2, p. 974), in the Weberian tradition, maintains rationality is necessary in schools for at least two reasons. Schools, according to Bidwell, are responsible for a uniform product of a certain quality and there are minimum levels of acceptability. Basic uniformity is necessary since all students are expected to possess rudimentary competence for adult life. At the same time, students must be prepared for the many diverse roles they may later perform. Notable among these are the many occupational spheres. Even so, education is expected to reach at least a minimum standard (2, p. 984).

Rationality, according to Bidwell, is best achieved through standards which are universalistic in nature; i.e., everyone is governed by similar standards. Bureaucracy is a means by which school administrators can promote teacher's adherence to universalistic criteria in day-to-day school activities (2, p. 975).

While bureaucratic structure supports the development of rational procedures, it also creates certain standards which are dysfunctional. There is evidence that:

. . . the intrinsic nature of teaching runs counter to the bureaucratic principle of school organization and that, paradoxically, to perform adequately in the office the teacher is forced to violate the rules of performance (2, p. 979).

The very fact that many schools have been observed to have a basically bureaucratic structure with most of the characteristics associated with such a structure suggests

the need for this study (1, pp. 45-46, 2, p. 974); the observation that the presence of certain elements of bureaucratic structure are dysfunctional in important respects for school operation further supports that need. As Bidwell proposes:

. . . certainly these dilemmas of the teacher office, and the organizational context in which they arise, deserve careful study, since . . . they bear directly on the operation of bureaucratic principles in the school system. Lacking detailed empirical studies of the definition and enactment of the teacher office, conclusions concerning these matters remain tentative and speculative (2, p. 994).

The fact that bureaucracies exist in great number, Blau suggests, provides justification for their investigation. He concludes that:

The prevalence of bureaucracies in our society furnishes a practical reason for studying them; the fact that they endanger democratic institutions supplies an ideological reason; and the contribution their study can make to sociological knowledge provides a scientific reason for undertaking the task (3, p. 25).

As previously indicated, bureaucracies provide a rational means by which control of organizational members can be provided. The emphasis on control may be observed at many levels within schools, not the least of which is the control teachers are expected to exert over pupils. In fact, a central theme in Waller's (11) classic commentary on the nature of teaching is that a major portion of the teacher's energy is directed toward gaining control over students while at the same time trying to establish a dominant authority which will insure that control.

In a case study of one public school Willower and Jones reported that, the demand for student control appeared to be the "integrative" theme within the organizational life of schools (13, pp. 107-109). At the same time they observed the lack of research concerning this important aspect of school life and suggested a need for further studies which focus on pupil control and related aspects of schools (13, p. 109).

Definition of the Terms

Many of the concepts which are used in this study are relatively common in their usage. Some, however, have been given more explicit meanings in order to provide for a more precise understanding within the framework of this investigation. A limited definition of certain major concepts is presented in this section since a more comprehensive explication of these concepts will be presented in chapter two.

Bureaucracy

For the purpose of this study, bureaucracy is defined as six basic characteristics which are:

- (1) a well-defined hierarchy of authority;
- (2) a division of labor based upon functional specialization;
- (3) a system of rules covering the rights and duties of positional incumbents;
- (4) impersonality of interpersonal relationships;

- (5) a system of procedures for dealing with work situations;
- (6) selection for employment and promotion based upon technical competence (7, p. 297).

Authority and Expertise

The authority dimension is comprised of four specific bureaucratic characteristics or sub-dimensions which are: hierarchy of authority; rules; procedural specifications; and impersonality. The second dimension, expertise, is defined by the bureaucratic sub-dimensions of specialization and technical competence (8, pp. 26-32).

Punishment Centered and Representative Schools

Schools which are high on the authority dimension and low on the expertise dimension are classified as typical "punishment centered" bureaucratic schools. Schools high on the expertise dimension and low on the authority dimension are classified as typical "representative" style bureaucratic schools (6, pp. 187-190).

Custodialism and Humanism

These terms are used to describe teachers concerning pupil control. The pupil control ideology of teachers was conceptualized along a continuum from "custodialism" at one extreme and "humanism" at the other (12).

Custodialism may be thought of in terms of the traditional viewpoint of control where the teacher is involved in

providing a rigidly controlled learning environment. Teachers are not prone to considering individual differences in students but think of them as irresponsible and undisciplined persons in need of constant supervision. Student misbehavior is considered a personal affront to the teacher and students are treated in a highly impersonal manner. Teachers limit their concern primarily to the control of undesirable behavior and give little or no attention to a consideration of causes of behavior. There is a feeling of pessimism and mistrust toward students and rigidly maintained status distinctions are enforced. Students are told what to do and have little or no control over action directed against them. The school is thought of as having absolute control over all activities and orders are expected to be carried out to the letter (12, p. 5).

The humanistic school is viewed as an educational community where students learn through experience and cooperative interaction. Students' learning and behavior is viewed in psychological and sociological terms as opposed to moralistic terms. Teachers consider learning a process which best takes place through worthwhile activity. There is a de-emphasis on the passive absorption of isolated facts. A quiet, withdrawn student is seen as a problem equal to that of the overactive, troublesome one. Teachers believe that through warm, friendly relationships with students they can be encouraged to be self-disciplining. Humanistic orientation leads teachers to seek a democratic classroom climate

with flexibility in status and rules accompanied by open channels of two-way communication that flows freely between teacher and pupil (12, pp. 5-6).

Schools

The schools included in this study are public secondary schools. These schools include those which have students in grades nine through twelve or ten through twelve within a single attendance center.

Teachers

Those persons in public secondary school staff positions who are actually involved in full-time or part-time classroom teaching situations are referred to as teachers. Persons holding formal administrative positions are not included in this study even if they do teach classes.

Statement of the Problem

This study is primarily concerned with the relationship between the existing bureaucratic structure in public high schools and the pupil control ideology of teachers. The pupil control ideology variable was measured along a continuum from custodial to humanistic. Bureaucracy was measured along a continuum from less bureaucratic to more bureaucratic with reference to the bureaucratic dimensions of authority and expertise.

The central hypothesis which served as a guide for this study was that teachers in more bureaucratic schools will be

more custodial in their pupil control ideology than teachers in schools which exhibit fewer bureaucratic characteristics. This hypothesis was reduced to more specific hypotheses designed to make predictions concerning the more refined elements incorporated within the broader bureaucratic concept. The direction of the hypothetical prediction was suggested by the implicit emphasis on the control of human action suggested in the design of bureaucratic structures (4, pp. 333-334). More refined hypotheses are presented in Chapter II.

Although the relationship between bureaucracy and pupil control ideology of teachers was the primary concern of this investigation, the data afforded an opportunity to examine certain demographic characteristics; therefore, several ancillary hypotheses were tested. These hypotheses were suggested in previous research which independently examined the variables of bureaucracy and pupil control ideology of teachers concerning schools. Detailed relationships will be presented in subsequent chapters.

Limitations of the Study

This study examines the relationship between certain bureaucratic characteristics of schools and the pupil control ideology of teachers in those schools. This study does not attempt to determine a causal relationship between variables.

The study is limited to teachers in schools with membership in the Oklahoma Public School Research Council. Any

public school district in Oklahoma with fifty or more teachers is eligible for membership in the council.

Generalizations drawn from this investigation should be cautiously applied to schools other than those included in this study.

Chapter I has presented the background for the study with a discussion of the specific concepts which contributed to the development of the study. A justification of the need for the study was presented along with a general statement concerning the problem and major hypothesis. The limitations of the study were also presented.

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CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK FOR HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

Introduction

In this chapter the concepts of bureaucracy and pupil control ideology of teachers are developed. Each of the concepts is examined separately and then a rationale for the hypotheses is presented.

As will be observed, much of the literature and research on bureaucracies has been conducted in organizations other than public schools. There is, however, sufficient evidence to indicate that the bureaucratic model may be fruitfully used for the purpose of describing public school administrative procedure. Recent research in both this country and in Canada has demonstrated that the general characteristics commonly associated with bureaucratic structure are, to varying degrees, observable in schools.

Bureaucracy

Bureaucracy: A Brief Overview

Bureaucracy is a term that many people have come to associate with large, apparently inefficient organizations with the common characteristic of excessive "red tape" (5,

p. 102-104)." Crozier (9, p. 1) observed that in our society the term "large organization" makes one think of bureaucracy which is associated with unnecessary complications, constraining standardization, and the stifling of individual personality.

Despite these apparently undesirable connotations which are associated with bureaucracy, the term "bureaucracy" should not become synonymous with terms denoting judgments based on normative observation and personal values. The concept was simply designed as a means of assigning identifiable terms or characteristics to a particular organizational style. Coser (8, p. 176) observed:

. . . sociologists mean by bureaucracy a type of hierarchical organization which is designed to coordinate the work of many individuals in the pursuit of large-scale administrative tasks, public or private.

Merton (25, p. 25) asserted that the structure of a bureaucratic organization:

. . . involves clearly defined patterns of activity in which, ideally, every series of actions is functionally related to the purpose of the organization.

A stereotype of a person operating under purely bureaucratic norms would be the professional soldier (21, p. 25).

Presthus (33, p. 50), in describing the nature of organizations in general, presented an analysis which appeared closely associated with that of a specifically defined "bureaucratic" organization. He identified an organization as a system of structural interpersonal relations in which individuals are differentiated in terms of authority, status,

and role. The result is that personal interaction is prescribed and anticipated reactions tend to occur, while ambiguity and spontaneity is decreased. Considering this apparent general relationship, it would not seem surprising that the concepts of "organization" and "bureaucracy" tend to merge in the public mind.

Organizations established along bureaucratic lines are intended to accomplish pre-established goals in an efficient manner, and, as Blau and Scott (6, p. 34) have indicated, a careful reading of Weber indicates that he tended to view elements as "bureaucratic" to the extent that they contributed to efficiency. This contribution to efficiency appears to be the criterion of "perfect" embodied in the "ideal type" of bureaucracy. Weber left little doubt about the desirability of bureaucratic structure over other types of structure. He called explicit attention to this desirability when he stated that:

Bureaucratic administration is, other things being equal, always from a formal technical point of view the most rational type. For the needs of mass administration today, it is completely indispensable. The choice is only between bureaucracy and delinquency in . . . administration (6, p. 337).

Bureaucracy as an Ideal Type

The bureaucratic model has been a major analytical tool for organizational investigation since the general model was first conceptualized by the German sociologist, Max Weber (12). Weber conceived of the bureaucratic model as being a description of the most efficient and orderly type of

organization structure. He proposed that bureaucratic organizations ". . . compare with other organization as the machine compares with non-mechanical modes of production (12, p. 216)." Weber clearly outlined the functional aspects of bureaucracy and developed a rather detailed rationale justifying the need for such structural characteristics in organizations. Weber's basic bureaucratic model referred to a formal organization characterized by:

- (1) fixed and official jurisdictional control areas, which are regularly ordered by rules; that is, by laws of administrative regulations.
- (2) principles of office hierarchy and levels of graded authority that ensure a firmly ordered system of super- and sub-ordination in which higher officers supervise lower ones.
- (3) administration based upon written documents; the body of officials engaged in handling these documents and files, along with other material apparatus, making up a bureau or office.
- (4) office management, at least all specialized office management, is distinctly modern, usually presupposes thorough and expert training.
- (5) the management of the office follows general rules, which are more or less stable, more or less exhaustive, and which can be learned.
- (6) recruitment and career advancement of the organization's members based on the criterion of individual competence (12, pp. 196-198).

These characteristics have been expanded and reduced by different authors (15, p. 298), but the basic concepts usually remain in tact. Blau (5, p. 19), for the purposes of clarity, suggested that bureaucracy simply implies specialization, a hierarchy of authority, a system of rules, and impersonality.

Weber's conceptual framework outlined bureaucratic characteristics as they might be defined for and applied in an "ideal type" organization. Blau clarifies this point when he stated that:

. . . the ideal type is not an average of existing attributes--that is, it is not an empirical generalization based on observations--but rather it is a 'pure' type derived by abstracting the most logically characteristic aspects implicit in a concept (5, p. 34).

In other words, Weber's ideal type was not designed to describe real situations; however, it described general characteristics and was a scale with which empirical observations might be compared.

Conflict in the Bureaucratic Model

There is evidence to suggest that the development of bureaucratic controls carry with it certain dysfunctions not recognized, or at least not accounted for, by Weber (6, p. 34; 14, pp. 15-29). Some bureaucratic characteristics also appear to impede the efficient operation of certain types of organizations (6, pp. 60-63). At the same time, there are factors of organizational life which make it difficult for any large scale formal organization to resist the development of at least partial bureaucratization, even if such was desired. In essence, bureaucratization appears essential for the accomplishment of large scale administrative tasks, yet its very development may impede the accomplishment of those tasks.

Bureaucracy and Efficiency

That bureaucracy is in conflict with the purpose intended by its development is an observation supported by the identification of certain fundamental dilemmas in the bureaucratic structure. Weber had built a strong case for bureaucracy based on its apparent rationality derived from an authority based on expertise. Blau points out, however, that to administer a social organization according to a purely technical criteria of rationality is irrational since it ignores the nonrational aspects of social conduct (5, p. 58). Also, authority positions are not always maintained by administrators with the greater expertise in their areas of jurisdiction,* as was suggested by Weber. A case in point would be administrators in schools which normally maintain a diversified curriculum with many subject areas. It would be unrealistic to expect the administrator to have greater competence in all, or even most, subject areas than the teachers teaching those subjects. In fact, the administrator's area of expertise may be in the field of administration itself.

The administrator is, however, faced with the problem of directing the organization toward its recognized goals. This may necessitate the establishment of specific procedural

*For a more detailed explanation see Blau, Peter M., and W. Richard Scott, Formal Organizations, San Francisco: Chandler Publishing Co., (1962), pp. 35-36. See also Alvin W. Gouldner, Patterns of Industrial Bureaucracy, Glencoe, Ill.: Free Press, (1954), p. 22.

specifications which serve to give directions in task areas. Such specifications must be enforced which tends to heighten the visibility of authority relationships, and which violates professional principles and basic democratic cultural values which promote status equality. The consequence of this is a reduction in the motivation to produce (5, pp. 59-60) which is contrary to the efficiency objective.

The acuteness of the dilemma becomes clear with the realization that organizations institute bureaucracy as an outgrowth of a need for efficient procedural methods for the purpose of accomplishing specifically defined tasks. Bureaucratization implies that considerations of efficiency outweigh all others in the formation and development of organizations (5, p. 106). This, among others, is a primary benefit of bureaucratic organization which induces a reluctance to employ alternative organizational frameworks.

Blau reasoned that since efficiency in operation is a fundamental justification for the establishment of bureaucratic principles, ways must be established to enhance the strength created by the establishment of these principles. In this respect, he proposed that it would be more realistic to conceive of bureaucracy, not as an administrative system with particular characteristics, but rather a system created for a purpose (5, pp. 58-60). He suggested that:

Bureaucracy . . . can be defined as organization that maximizes efficiency in administration, whatever its formal characteristics, or as an institutionalized method of organizing social conduct in the interest of administrative efficiency (5, p. 60).

Blau implied, as Weber clearly stated, that bureaucracy is a desirable organizational style. If such is the situation, the central concern, then, is the expeditious removal of the obstacles to efficient operation which are constantly arising. This is done by creating conditions favorable to adjustive development within the organization (5, pp. 60-61).

Blau, however, implied a de-emphasis on the establishment of specific bureaucratic characteristics which Weber presented as necessary before bureaucratic organization could accomplish intended purposes. Following Blau's reasoning, this would suggest that these characteristics should be considered only as means to ends rather than absolutely and irreversibly essential for efficient operation. A part of the adjustive development might well be a reduction in the emphasis placed on any one or all of the characteristics which Weber presented as necessary for efficient operation. This would suggest a need for a thorough understanding of the relationship of bureaucratic characteristics as they are observed in various types of organizations. It is a matter for research to determine what these relationships are and how they are related to other aspects of organization life.

Authoritative Discipline vs.
Expertise in Professionally
Oriented Organizations

Bureaucracies have been a central focus of research and commentary concerned with developing a more complete understanding of the nature of social systems. A considerable segment of research has been aimed at the development of an

understanding of the relationship of factors which make bureaucracies what they are, namely, the basic characteristics as defined by Weber. In the process, several writers have come to question the suggested positive interrelationship of these characteristics. In fact, several recent studies have identified what appears to be two distinct elements in the model, especially as related to schools and other professionally oriented organizations.

Parsons first called attention to a basic inconsistency in the organizational model described by Weber. Parsons suggested that Weber combined two analytically distinct forms of administration in his description of the characteristics of bureaucracy. Weber had described authority as resting on technical competence, but he also suggested that authority was dependent on the occupancy of an office in the formal hierarchy (32, pp. 58-60).

Gouldner expanded upon this distinction and maintained that:

On the one side, it (bureaucracy) was administration based on expertise; while on the other, it was administration based on discipline (14, p. 22).

Weber suggested that there was no conflict since he assumed that in situations where there is disagreement between superiors and subordinates, the superior would always have the greater knowledge in support of his decisions, and therefore the greater expertise. This does not, however, appear to be a realistic assumption (6, p. 35).

This apparent conflict between disciplined adherence to legal authority and expertise based on technical competence has led observers of bureaucracies to seriously consider the possibility of two elements of administrative procedure. In the past two decades empirical investigations of several types of organizations have given strong support to the contention that all of Weber's bureaucratic elements are, indeed, not positively related.

Stinchcombe (36, pp. 168-187) compared the organizational structure of construction and mass-production industries. He concluded that there are at least two types of administrative development. He noted that the construction industry had a higher level of professionalism than mass-production industry and was able to operate with considerably less administrative staff. It was Stinchcombe's contention that the greater degree of professionalization in the labor force of the construction industry allowed the industry to operate with a minimum amount of bureaucratization. He argued that it is necessary to distinguish between "rational" administration and that which is specifically bureaucratic administration. He suggested that bureaucracy was one form of rational administration, but not the only one.

Udy (38, pp. 791-795), in a study of 150 production organizations, came to much the same conclusion as Stinchcombe. Udy found significant positive relationships among characteristics designated as "bureaucratic" and among characteristics designated as "rational," but the two groups were

found to be negatively related. Those characteristics which were designated as "bureaucratic" were: hierarchial authority, specialized administrative staff, and a set of rewards differentiated according to staff. Those characteristics which were designated as "rational" were: specialization, rewards for performance related to contribution, contractual agreement to define the terms of participation, and dependence on superiors for reward.

Analyzing the apparent conflict between bureaucratic administration and "rational" administration, Blau and Scott (6, p. 209) concluded that professionals can adequately operate within an essentially bureaucratic organization as long as there is not an emphasis on hierarchial supervision designed to maintain organizational discipline. They report that:

In the absence of direct hierarchial supervision, genuine professional work can be and, indeed, frequently is carried out in otherwise bureaucratized organization (6, p. 209).

Hall (16, pp. 92-104) compared Weber's bureaucratic elements with certain characteristics commonly associated with professional organizations. The professional characteristics with which he was concerned were: professional organization reference, belief in service to public, belief in self regulation, sense of calling to the field, and feeling of autonomy. Six dimensions of bureaucracy were related to the professional characteristics. The results of the study indicated that: "With the exception of the technical competence dimension (of bureaucracy), a general inverse

relationship existed between the levels of bureaucratization and professionalization (16, p. 103)."

Hall suggested that increased bureaucratization might lead to conflict in professional organizations, but the conflict is not inherent. Commenting on the relative disposition between bureaucratization and professionalization, Hall stated:

. . . the implication is that in some cases an equilibrium may exist between the levels of professionalization and bureaucratization in the sense that a particular level of professionalization may require a certain level of bureaucratization to maintain social control. Too little bureaucratization may lead to too many undefined operational areas if the profession itself has not developed operational standards for these areas. By the same token, conflict may ensue if the equilibrium is upset (16, p. 104).

An insightful summary of the conflicting and complementary components of bureaucratic and professional principles has been compiled by Blau and Scott (6, pp. 60-63 and 244-246). Both professionals and bureaucrats appeared to govern their actions by universalistic standards in that both try to remain as objective as possible in making decisions. Decisions are made independently of personal and emotional considerations. Both professional and bureaucratic decisions were made on the basis of expert training and knowledge about the procedures which will be affected by those decisions. Both based promotion on technical competence and past performance. Both had achieved rather than ascribed status.

The differences which are observed formed the basis for prediction of conflict which may occur when professionals

operate within the framework of Weber's bureaucratic administrative structure. The first difference is that professionals are concerned primarily with meeting the needs of their clients while bureaucrats are concerned with promoting the interests of the organization. Another difference is that the authority of the professional is based on his knowledge and technical expertness while the authority of a bureaucratic situation ". . . rests on a legal contract backed by formal sanctions (6, p. 245)." Stated another way, professional authority is based on personal trust in the professionals' competence based on knowledge, while bureaucratic authority is based on the "legal" status of the person occupying the position which carries with it prescribed authority (6, p. 245). In the latter instance, expertise is assumed, but is not necessarily inherent.

A third difference is that bureaucratic decisions are governed by disciplined compliance with directives from superiors. Professional decisions are governed by internalized professional standards. Conflict develops when bureaucratic directives do not agree with understandings based on expertise (6, p. 245).

The importance of the differences noted above is that decisions made in a bureaucratic context may not be effective for decisions which may need to be made in a professional context. Decisions which may be important in the maintenance of bureaucratic efficiency may be in contrast to decisions which should be made with a consideration of the needs of

the client in mind. When the "professional" authority of a professional-client relationship is usurped for "bureaucratic" authority designed for organizational maintenance, the needs of the clients are likely to suffer if those needs are in conflict with the needs of the organization.

Blau and Scott concluded with the argument that:

Professional expertness and bureaucratic discipline may be viewed as alternative methods of coping with areas of uncertainty. Discipline does so by reducing the scope of uncertainty; expertness by providing the knowledge and social support that enable individuals to cope with uncertainty and thus to assume more responsibility. The dilemma, however, remains and, indeed, affects wider and wider circles as the number of people subject to both these conflicting control mechanisms grows, since the work of professionals is increasingly carried out in bureaucratic organizations, and since operations in bureaucracies seem to become increasingly professionalized (6, p. 247).

Types of Bureaucracy

Various authors have identified or developed several types of bureaucratic patterns. The focus here is on a few typologies which could be of use in the investigation of bureaucracy in public schools. These typologies have been associated with both bureaucracy in its general sense and specific elements within the broader bureaucratic framework.

Gouldner (14, pp. 215-228) focused on bureaucratic rules and the various functions of rules within organizations. Gouldner suggested there are three bureaucratic patterns which emerge with reference to the use of rules within organizations. He defines the patterns as "mock" bureaucracy, "representative" bureaucracy, and "punishment centered" bureaucracy.

In "mock" bureaucracy, neither superiors or subordinates are particularly concerned with enforcement of the particular rules since the rules were initiated by some outside agency. Enforcement of such rules violate the values of both superiors and subordinates. It was generally concluded that enforcement of "mock" rules would be more dysfunctional than functional (14, pp. 182-187, 216-217).

"Representative" bureaucracy is observed when both superiors and subordinates may initiate the rules. The initiating group can usually legitimate the rules in terms of their own values, and in most situations, enforcement of the rules entails violations of neither group's values. Both subordinates and superiors are anxious to encourage compliance since compliance is considered to be for the general welfare (14, pp. 187-193, 216-217).

Gouldner's third pattern of rule development was "punishment centered" bureaucracy (14, pp. 207-214). Rules associated with this type of bureaucracy arise out of perceived need of either superiors or subordinates, but not both. The non-initiating group viewed the rules as an imposition and illegitimate. Such rules are usually associated with considerable tension and conflict and enforcement is usually dependent on the threat of punishment (14, pp. 216-217).

Weber typed bureaucracies in a more general sense. He describes two major types of bureaucracy as monocratic and collegial. Monocratic bureaucracy is descriptive of the

type most commonly discussed. In this type, the emphasis is on authority relationships with higher officers responsible for control of lower ones. Relationships are based on contractual obligations with remuneration offered for services rendered (40, pp. 333-334). Weber proposed that the monocratic type of bureaucracy was the most effective since it was the most rational and afforded the greatest opportunity to control human activity (40, p. 337).

According to Weber, collegial bureaucratic style differs from monocratic bureaucratic style with reference to the emphasis on authority. Collegial authority is somewhat more limited. In some respects the collegial style is more democratic since several officers may have equal power and may be subject to influence by many other members within the organization. In effect, there is no supreme power in the collegial type, and there are no clearly established hierarchy of authority relationship (40, pp. 392-398).

On inspection there would appear to be some justification for comparing collegial bureaucracy with the "rational" bureaucratic style described by Stinchcombe (36) and Udy (38). There also appears a close relationship between collegial bureaucracy and "representative" bureaucracy as defined by Gouldner (14).

In a recent study of schools, Kolesar (22, pp. 36-42) developed a typology of schools. Kolesar suggested that schools could be classified as: monocratic, collegial or representative, punishment centered, or mock. Very few of

the schools investigated, however, could be clearly identified with only one of the classifications. None of the schools Kolesar investigated could be classified as "mock" in bureaucratic administrative style. Most schools had elements of two or more types of bureaucracy incorporated in identified administrative procedures (22, pp. 119-124).

Bureaucratic Characteristics in Schools

Max Abbott (1, pp. 45-46), in commenting on the organizational structure of schools, proposed that:

The school organization as we know it today... can accurately be described as a highly developed bureaucracy. As such, it exhibits many of the characteristics and employs many of the strategies of the military, industrial, and governmental agencies with which it might be compared.

In many respects, this organizational pattern has served us well. It has provided the means by which reasonable control might be exercised over the behavior of members of the organization, and by which the activities of individuals and groups of individuals with diverse interests and responsibilities might be coordinated.

The various bureaucratic elements or characteristics which have been identified by Weber and adopted by MacKay (23) and Robinson (35) for use in schools, serve as a guide for the development of a brief discussion of the bureaucratic characteristics which may be observed in schools.

Hierarchy of Authority. This characteristic is demonstrated by the typical organizational chart which graphically defines and clarifies the various lines of authority and channels of communication present in school systems (1, pp. 45-46). The lines of authority include the board of

education, superintendent and various assistant superintendents, principals and assistant principals, teachers, and support personnel. The authority of each succeeding position is usually diminished. Abbott suggests that rigid adherence to hierarchical principles has been stressed to the point that failure to adhere to recognized lines of authority is viewed as the epitome of immoral organizational behavior (1, p. 45).

Rules and Regulations. Schools lean heavily upon the use of rules in order to provide control of members and to establish standard procedures in task areas. These rules and regulations take the form of general board of education policies, teacher manuals, and student handbooks. These listings of expectations provide for orderly induction of new members into the organization and for standardization of behavior once membership is established. These rules and regulations pervade the total organizational structure providing guidelines for members of the board of education as well as lower hierarchial positions (1, p. 45).

Impersonality. Although there has been considerable commentary about the need for individual attention in the teacher-student relationship (3, pp. 974-975), teachers are required to deal with most situations in a universalistic manner (4, p. 975). This same policy may also prevail in teacher-administrator relationship. Authority is established through rational considerations and interpersonal relations

have tended to be functionally specific rather than functionally diffused. Decisions are made with a minimum of emotional involvement with a de-emphasis on personal or particularistic considerations (1, p. 45).

On the surface, it may appear that the tendency toward impersonality is not by choice the direction teachers would take given other alternatives. Becker contends, however, that the teacher is greatly concerned with maintaining what is considered legitimate authority over pupils and parents. Teachers tend to avoid and defend against challenges from these sources and teachers expect the principal and other teachers to aid in building this defense system (3, p. 250).

Procedural Specifications. The observation that many schools have numerous rules and regulations suggests the tendency for procedural specifications. This contention is supported by Abbott who stated that one of the functions of rules and regulations is to establish standard procedures in task areas (1, p. 45). Examples of procedural specifications include: standard procedures for reporting student grades and absentees, standard methods of preparing lesson plans, and standard procedures for acquiring materials and supplies for instructional purposes. Although school personnel may pursue many specific goals, procedural specifications insure that goals which are common will be pursued in a standardized manner.

Technical Competence. Typically, employment in schools is based upon technical competence, at least in the professional ranks. Promotion is based on seniority and achievement with emphasis on advanced educational training (1, p. 45). Most states, and thus individual school districts, require a minimum level of training for teachers to be employed. Many districts base pay increases in part on the requirement for advanced training in teacher's teaching area.

Specialization. An emphasis on specialization clearly influences school organization. Schools are divided into elementary, Jr. High, and high school units. Curriculum areas are clearly established. There are also numerous support divisions such as guidance, curriculum consultants, and psychological services. Administrative functions are separated from other activities (1, p. 44). Many teachers are now specialist in one particular sphere of a curriculum area. Even in elementary schools there are specialists in such areas as music, art, and physical education.

It would appear that public schools have many of the characteristics attributed to bureaucratic organizations. In essence, the task is not so much one of establishing the probability of the existence of bureaucracy in schools, but one of establishing the extent of bureaucratization and how this phenomenon is related to tasks assigned to schools and means established for the attainment of goals associated with those tasks.

In order to effectively investigate the nature of bureaucracies, several typologies of bureaucracy have been developed. Indeed, the developer of the bureaucratic concept, Max Weber, was aware of possible alternatives to a purely monocratic bureaucratic structure which he visualized as the most effective type (40, p. 337).

Empirical Studies of Bureaucracy in Public Schools

A desire to develop a sound theoretical base for an understanding of the nature of public educational institutions has led several researchers to focus on the impact of bureaucracy on schools. Research has led to a continued refinement of both the instruments used for identifying bureaucracy in schools and of an understanding of the apparent impact of bureaucracy on schools.

Earlier studies considered bureaucracy as a broad general concept with numerous isolated components. A study by Hartley (18) focused on the relationship between bureaucracy and local-cosmopolitan orientation of teachers. Hartley identified twenty different bureaucratic components. There was, however, considerable overlap in these components which indicated that they might better have been consolidated into several broader elements. He observed that the bureaucratization of schools was not particularly associated with the local-cosmopolitan orientation of teachers.

Moeller (28) investigated the relationship between teacher's sense of power and bureaucracy in schools. Moeller

had a panel of independent judges rank the schools being investigated on the basis of the selected bureaucratic components. Items identifying the bureaucratic components of schools were arranged in a Gutman scale in order from most prevalent to least prevalent. Characteristics found in the most bureaucratic schools were not commonly found in the less bureaucratic schools (27). The level of bureaucracy in schools was determined by the number of bureaucratic characteristics assigned that school by the panel of judges.

Moeller had hypothesized that the more bureaucratic the schools the greater the sense of powerlessness teachers would feel. The investigation did not support this hypothesis. It was observed that teachers felt they had a greater sense of power over factors related to their activities in more bureaucratic schools (25, pp. 155-156).

Hall (15, pp. 301-302) was concerned with differences of bureaucratic elements in professional organizations as compared with non-professional organizations. Hall identified six bureaucratic characteristics and examined the prevalence of these six elements within the two types of organizations. The six bureaucratic characteristics examined were: hierarchy of authority, specialization, rules for members, procedural specifications, impersonality, and technical competence. Hall did not investigate schools in the original study; however, he did compare schools with other professional organizations in later studies (16, pp. 92-104).

MacKay (23) revised the scales used by Hall in order to specifically identify bureaucratic elements in schools. MacKay observed that schools exhibited significant differences in the degree of bureaucratization as measured by four of the dimensions. Two bureaucratic characteristics, procedural specification and technical competence, were not found to vary significantly among schools; i.e., these characteristics did not appear in any particular pattern or type of school. Intercorrelation analysis revealed that the technical competence dimension showed a significant negative relationship with other dimensions (23, pp. 167-168).

Robinson (35) refined MacKay's bureaucracy instrument. He reduced the number of items from sixty-two to forty-eight. The instrument still contained, however, the six scales MacKay had incorporated into the bureaucratic model as adopted from Hall.

Robinson's findings generally supported MacKay's findings concerning the relationship among the six scales incorporated into the bureaucratic model. Four of the dimension showed significantly positive relationships. These subscales were: hierarchy of authority, rules for members, procedural specifications, and impersonality. The remaining two dimensions, specialization and technical competence, also showed correlations which were significant and positive. The two groups of correlations were, however, significantly negative in their relationship. Conclusions based on this data led Robinson to suggest that a perception of high

competence and specialization is accompanied by a perception of low emphasis upon rules and regulations, procedural specifications, impersonality, and hierarchy of authority relationships (35, p. 120).

Robinson's main impetus for the study was to examine the relationship between bureaucracy and the professional orientation of teachers and administrators (35, p. 195). Staff professional scores were not found to be significantly related to the six scales used to measure bureaucracy. The findings did suggest, however, that teachers in general desire greater emphasis upon bureaucratic characteristics in schools than do principals. The major exception to this was that teachers are not particularly receptive to emphasis on hierarchy of authority relationships (35, p. 207).

Kolesar (22) examined the relationship between bureaucracy and pupil alienation. Kolesar combined the six dimensions of bureaucracy developed by Hall and refined by MacKay and Robinson. Kolesar formed broader dimensions by combining four dimensions, hierarchy of authority, rules for members, procedural specifications, and impersonality, into an even broader bureaucratic dimension which he maintained was characteristic of the authority aspect of bureaucracy. This combination of characteristics was designated the "authority" dimension. A second broad dimension was comprised of Hall's specializations and technical competence dimensions. This expanded characteristic made up the "expertise" dimension. A combination of these two dimensions

revealed four types of bureaucratic structure (see Chapter III for a more detailed description for these four bureaucratic structures) (22, pp. 18-40).

The five dimensions of pupil alienation in Kolesar's study were powerlessness, meaninglessness, normlessness, isolation, and self-estrangement. Of the five dimensions of alienation, only one, powerlessness, was significantly and positively related to any of the four types of bureaucracy. Powerlessness was observed to be significantly higher in schools where the authority dimension was emphasized (22, pp. 163-165).

Kolesar observed a generally similar correlation among Hall's six bureaucratic scales as was observed by Robinson (22, pp. 93-95).

Bureaucracy Concluded

MacKay (24, p. 10), commenting on the evolution of the process developed for an exploration of bureaucracy in schools, stated that:

At the moment, therefore, the concept of bureaucracy which seems most viable... is closer to Kolesar's two-dimensional framework than to the first generation six-dimensional scheme.

MacKay noted, however, that this evolutionary process was not as well-planned as it might have been (24, p. 10).

The two-dimensional approach, which includes the authority dimension and the expertise dimension, bear noticeable similarity to distinctions in bureaucratic development as noted by Parsons, Gouldner, Stinchcombe, and Udy. The

authority dimension seems generally supportive of the more typical "bureaucratic" administrative procedure suggested by Udy, while the expertise dimension appears similar to the "rational" administrative style observed in organizations where members harbor a generally professional orientation. It is interesting to note that Robinson's investigation revealed that teachers were receptive to bureaucracy in schools as long as there was an apparent lack of emphasis on hierarchy of authority.

Pupil Control Orientation

Introduction

Much of the general commentary on discipline and pupil control is normative in nature and is usually directed toward the practical application of control measures in public schools. A review of much of this literature suggests that most of the information is value laden and directed toward acceptable practices which are designed to support the variously established objectives of the school. In general, much of the material on discipline was based upon opinions not generally supported by research data (20, p. 153).

Waller suggested that the school is a distinct and clearly definable social organization with certain specific functions (39, p. 6). As such, the school may be studied with a consideration of the specifically defined characteristics and the relationship of the parts to the whole. It has been noted that there have been few studies which have

approached the study of pupil control within the school system with a consideration of the school as a social system (19, pp. 312-323). Such an approach is suggested by the observation of a wide range of control patterns which may emerge within systems which are quite specific in function.

Waller pointed out that the political organization of the school is one that makes the teacher dominant and that typically, the school operates on some variant of the autocratic principle (39, p. 8). Becker supported this point of view by observing that the school is a small, self-contained system of social control in which teachers attempt to establish clearly defined limits of behavior for each individual. This helps to build a satisfactory authority position of which he can be sure, knowing that he has certain methods of controlling those who ignore his authority (3, p. 251). Waller suggested that the search for a controlled environment in schools is an inherent dilemma by noting that the school is continually threatened from both inside and outside the organization because it is autocratic, and, at the same time, it needs to be autocratic because it is threatened. The antagonistic forces are balanced only in an unstable equilibrium which is discipline (39, p. 11).

That control would be a problem in most schools is fairly obvious if one explores the nature of the tasks the teacher is expected to perform. The teacher is faced with two fundamental tasks, each demanding a contrasting orientation on his part. It has been observed that one of the

teacher's functions is to focus on the motivation of the learner; the other is to control and discipline the classroom group in order to provide an orderly environment for learning (39, pp. 310-313). Theoretical essays by Naegle (29, pp. 392-393) and later by Wilson (43, pp. 15-32) discussed this problem as a bifunctional dilemma of teaching. They suggest that since teaching is a form of socialization, the teacher must interact effectively and develop particularistic relations with the student. At the same time, the organization requires classroom control which imposes on the teacher the necessity to judge and to punish impartially and universalistically. Bidwell (4, pp. 983-984) contends that the teacher is required to be both interested and disinterested, concerned and disengaged, and that the act of teaching is both compatible and incompatible with the bureaucratic setting of the school. Parsons (31, pp. 297-318) suggested that this dilemma is even more severe in the secondary school than in the elementary school since secondary teachers are more concerned with the technical aspects of education than with the social.

Parsons (30, pp. 63-85) further suggested that control is a major concern in all organizations since organizations can not count on most of their participants to carry out their assignments voluntarily. This is especially true when the participants have not internalized the organizational objectives. The participants need to be supervised, the supervisors themselves need some supervision, and so on,

all the way to the top of the organization. In this sense, organization structure is one of control, and the hierarchy of control is the most central element of the organizational structure.

Recent research concerning pupil control in public schools has focused on control as related to the school as a definable social organization. The emphasis has shifted from an attempt to provide specific guides for action in specific instances to a more realistic attempt to describe what is happening and why control is such a central theme of the organizational life of the school.

The School as an Organization Type

There are many ways of classifying the school as an organization. For example, Etzioni (11, pp. 4-11) developed a rather comprehensive theoretical framework, based on control, as a means of classifying organizations. He sees the power involvement relationship or, as he phrased it, the compliance pattern, as a major means of organization classification. Etzioni's thesis is that organizations can be typed according to the relationship of the type of power used to control lower participants (in the case of schools, the students) and the orientation of those lower participants to that power. According to Etzioni's classification, schools are primarily normative in nature since the main type of power used in controlling lower participants is directed at the manipulation of symbolic rewards and social

acceptance. He also pointed out that there is a secondary compliance pattern in schools where coercive power is used to maintain control.

Blau and Scott (6, pp. 42-43) classified organizations according to who can be identified as the prime beneficiaries of the organization. In this classification, the school is a service organization with the students receiving the prime benefits.

Carlson (7, pp. 264-267) also classified schools as service organizations, but makes a distinction in types of service organizations based on the control the organization has in the selection of participants and the control the clients have over their participation in the organization. Based on these criteria, Carlson identifies the following four types of organizations:

		Client Control Over Own Participation in Organization	
		Yes	No
Organizational Control Over Admission	Yes	Type I	Type III
	No	Type II	Type IV

Along with public mental hospitals and prisons, schools are classified as Type IV organizations. These organizations are similar in that none have control over their own participation in the organization. Carlson indicated that the inability of the school to be selective in recruitment created certain special problems since some of the clients are

not committed to the organization and would not participate if given a choice. That control should be identified as a central theme in such an organization seems reasonable. In fact, studies of prisons, public mental hospitals, and more recently schools, have emphasized the saliency of client control (41).

One should be cautious in comparing schools with public mental hospitals and prisons. There are important differences, for example, prisons and public mental hospitals are "total institutions" and schools are not. Nevertheless, the importance of client control in organizations where participation is mandatory and clients are unselected is an important reference in the study of the organizational life of the school.

Public Control Ideology

Willower and Jones (41, pp. 107-109) spent considerable time exploring the structure of a junior high school in Pennsylvania and found that the central integrative theme of school life was clearly pupil control. Problems of pupil control dominated much of the talk of the faculty and the general school structure seemed to be designed to facilitate pupil control. The dominance of control as a central issue was suggested not only by teacher-pupil relationships but by teacher-teacher and teacher-principal relationships.

The observation that pupil control was a dominant theme in public schools stimulated the development of an instrument for the measure of pupil control ideology (42). The

instrument was an adaptation of an earlier instrument developed by Gilbert and Levinson to measure the ideology of public mental health hospital personnel concerning the control of patients (13). Prototypes of two "ideal" types of control ideology were defined as custodial and humanistic. A measure of an individual's ideology may range along a continuum which is defined by custodialism at one extreme and humanism at the other extreme (42, p. 5).

A study by Willower, Eidell, and Hoy (42) was a direct outgrowth of the earlier study by Willower and Jones (41). The focus of the Willower, Eidell, and Hoy study was on the pupil control ideologies of teachers, principals, and public school counselors. Several comparisons were made. The results of the study indicate that counselors and principals had a more humanistic pupil control ideology than teachers while counselors were more humanistic in their pupil control ideology than principals (42, pp. 18-35).

The researchers also examined the pupil control ideology of teachers, principals, and counselors with relation to sex, years of experience, and grade levels. The results indicated that elementary principals were more humanistic in their pupil control ideology than were secondary principals; elementary teachers were more humanistic than secondary teachers; and less experienced teachers were more humanistic than more experienced teachers (42, pp. 19-21). Male teachers tended to be less humanistic than female teachers (42, pp. 30-31).

Further investigations were conducted concerning the relationship between pupil control ideology and dogmatism as measured by Rokeach's Dogmatism Scale, Form E. Results indicated that closed minded teachers were more custodial than open minded teachers.

Subsequent studies by Hoy (20, pp. 153-155; 19, pp. 312-323) focused on pupil control ideology of teachers as they progressed through various phases of training and actually began teaching in public schools. He observed that prospective teachers were more custodial after their student teaching than before. The assumption was that the teacher's subculture in the public school would tend to emphasize a more custodial pupil control orientation than the formal college training program. The change from a more humanistic orientation to a more custodial orientation was in part attributed to the socialization process experienced by the teacher while coming in contact with actual public school environmental influence (20, p. 154).

The follow-up study compared teachers who taught in public school the year following their student teaching with those that did not teach after graduation. Those who taught were significantly more custodial after one year of teaching while those who did not teach remained relatively stable in their pupil control orientation (19, pp. 312-323).

A recent study by Appleberry compared the pupil control orientation of public school personnel in relation to the organization climate of elementary schools. School climates

were classified as "open" or "closed" (2). The climate of the schools was determined by the use of Halpin's Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (17). The results of the investigation indicated that teachers in schools with relatively open climates were significantly more humanistic than teachers in schools with relatively closed climates. Conversely, the "openness" of the schools in the sample was significantly related to the pupil control ideology of the teachers; the more open the school, the more humanistic the pupil control ideology of the teacher (2, pp. 65-67).

Rationale

It is commonly recognized that colleges and universities engaged in teacher training tend to emphasize the "ideal" in their formal training programs. Professors of education commonly stress the desirability of permissiveness with regard to pupil control. Prospective teachers could be expected to leave such institutions with a relatively humanistic pupil control ideology (20, p. 154). Hoy has demonstrated that this propensity toward humanism tends to become less pronounced with the engagement in actual teaching practices; that is, teachers become more custodial with relation to their pupil control ideology (20, pp. 154-155). Willower and Jones (41, pp. 107-108) observed that young teachers are faced with a relatively custodial teacher subculture; most older teachers tended to oppose permissiveness and to stress rigid control of pupils. It would appear that

inexperienced teachers do become more custodial as they are socialized by a relatively custodial teacher subculture. It seems likely that other factors besides peer pressure and experience are related to teachers' pupil control ideology. For example, teachers are also exposed to structural demands of the school organization in which they teach. There are some schools which are characterized by a strict emphasis on rules and regulations while others are not. These rules and regulations would be expected to be designed to regulate the activities of teachers and to support those teachers in controlling pupils. Such structural characteristics are commonly associated with bureaucratic organizations. In fact, Gouldner states that:

...bureaucratic rules serve to legitimate the utilization of punishment. They do so because the rules constitute statements in advance of expectation. As such, they comprise explicit and implicit warnings concerning the kind of behavior which will provoke punishment (14, pp. 162-164).

At the same time, the bureaucratic structure exerts constant pressure upon the official to be methodical, prudent, and disciplined. If the bureaucracy is to operate successfully, it needs to attain a high degree of reliability of behavior and an unusual degree of conformity (25, p. 198). Such characteristics are in contrast to a humanistic orientation concerning pupil control ideology of teachers.

The authority structure of bureaucracies is also an important function of control. Superiors have the right to expect that subordinates will obey them and each subordinate has the obligation to comply with his superior's directives

(34, pp. 34-35). Superiors in highly authoritative schools with a high degree of hierarchical authority could be expected to issue explicit directives and would accept nothing less than complete compliance.

Hierarchy of authority might tend to contribute to the impersonal aspect of bureaucracy in schools since it is possible for teachers to rationalize that it is not they who are responsible for administering punishment; they are only carrying out the pre-established directives. Weber even goes so far as to say that impersonality is essential for maximum effectiveness of bureaucratic organizations. The highly bureaucratic school could be expected to be one that is successful in "... eliminating from business love, hatred, and all purely personal, irrational, and emotional elements (12, p. 216)."

In general, the atmosphere of a highly bureaucratic school appears to provide a fertile environment for the development of a custodial pupil control ideology. All of these bureaucratic characteristics--rules and regulations, impersonality, procedural specifications, and hierarchical authority--could be expected to be compatible with a custodial pupil control ideology and would soon contribute to a breakdown of previously established humanistic orientation grounded in technical competence and specialization in teaching fields.

Hypotheses

On the basis of the compatible relationship which appeared to exist between bureaucracy in general and custodial pupil control orientation, it was possible to formulate the following general hypothesis:

- H. 1. Teachers in highly bureaucratic schools tend to be significantly more custodial in their pupil control ideology than teachers in less bureaucratic schools.

As has been demonstrated in the review of the literature, however, the concept of bureaucracy cannot satisfactorily be considered from a unidimensional point of view simply plotted on a continuum; nor is it realistic to think of bureaucracy as a single concept with one specific meaning. Recent research by Hall (15), Robinson (35), and Kolesar (22) has shown that all of the characteristics of bureaucracy are not positively related. Empirical data from these studies indicate that there may be two general types of bureaucracy in professional organizations which are negatively related. Kolesar attempts to clarify these relationships by stating that there are two dimensions of bureaucracy. As will be recalled, he refers to one dimension as the authority dimension and to the other as the expertise dimension.

Kolesar described schools which were perceived by teachers as being high in the authority dimension and low in the expertise dimension as being characterized by "punishment centered" bureaucracy while schools which were perceived as

being high on the expertise dimension and low on the authority dimension were characterized by "representative" bureaucracy (22, pp. 38-40).

The general prediction about the relationship between bureaucracy and custodial pupil control ideology of teachers was based on those bureaucratic characteristics localized in the authority dimension. There was little justification for making similar predictions about those bureaucratic characteristics which made up the expertise dimension as related to custodial pupil control ideology. Such a relationship appears to be spurious. In reality, it appeared reasonable that those characteristics associated with the expertise dimension would support a continuation of the more humanistic orientation; therefore, a more refined set of hypotheses seemed to be in order. The specific hypotheses developed and tested in this investigation were:

- H. 1. a. Schools which are relatively high on the authority dimension of bureaucracy will be significantly more custodial in their pupil control ideology than schools which are relatively low on the authority dimension.
- b. Teachers in schools which are relatively high on the authority dimension of bureaucracy will be significantly more custodial in their pupil control ideology than teachers in schools which are relatively low on the authority dimension.
- H. 2. a. Schools which are relatively high on the expertise dimension of bureaucracy will be significantly more humanistic in their pupil control ideology than schools which are relatively low on the expertise dimension.

- b. Teachers in schools which are relatively high on the expertise dimension of bureaucracy will be significantly more humanistic in their pupil control ideology than teachers in schools which are relatively low on the expertise dimension.
- H. 3. a. Schools characterized by a punishment centered bureaucratic style will be significantly more custodial in their pupil control ideology than schools characterized by a representative bureaucratic style.
- b. Teachers in schools characterized by a punishment centered bureaucratic style will be significantly more custodial in their pupil control ideology than teachers in schools characterized by a representative bureaucratic style.

Summary

In Chapter II a review of related literature concerning bureaucracy and pupil control orientation was presented. Also, a conceptual framework for the relationship between bureaucracy and pupil control ideology was presented and the hypotheses guiding this study were specified. Information concerning the sample and sampling procedure are presented in Chapter III.

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CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND PROCEDURES

Introduction

This chapter details the instrumentation used in data collecting, the collection procedure, and the statistical techniques used in the treatment of the data. Two types of bureaucratic schools are identified--punishment centered and representative--which provide the typological framework for testing two of the hypotheses. Also included are the procedures employed in the sample selection.

Instrumentation

The Measurement of Bureaucracy in Schools

The School Organization Inventory was used to measure the degree and type of bureaucratization in each of the sample schools. The instrument, originally entitled the Organization Inventory, was developed by Richard H. Hall (1); was revised for use in schools by D. A. MacKay (3); and was later refined by D. A. MacKay and Norman Robinson (4).

The instrument, as refined by Robinson and MacKay, was used in this study; however, there were six items contained in this instrument which were designed to test respondents'

perception of the desirability of the six bureaucratic characteristics that might appear in schools. This section of the instrument was not used in this study.

The instrument had forty-eight Likert-type items distributed among six bureaucratic sub-scales. Answers for instrument items ranged from "never true" to "always true." The sub-scales, along with the specific items comprising each sub-scale, were as follows:

- I. Hierarchy of Authority: 1, 7, 12, 23, 31, 34, 38, 39, 43, 47.
- II. Specialization: 2, 8, 13, 22, 24, 30, 33.
- III. Rules for Members: 3, 9, 14, 18, 25, 29, 40, 44.
- IV. Procedural Specifications: 4, 15, 19, 35, 41, 45, 48.
- V. Impersonality: 5, 10, 16, 20, 27, 36, 42, 46.
- VI. Technical Competence: 6, 11, 17, 21, 26, 28, 32, 37. (5, pp. 86-87).

Reliability and Validity. Correlation methods were used by Roginson and MacKay as a test of internal consistency of the items in each of the sub-scales. Each of the items identified above correlated positively and highly with the total score for its particular sub-scale (5, p. 85).

Hall had applied the Spearman-Brown formula for split-half reliability to each of the six sub-scales. The reliability coefficients were above .80 on all scales (1, pp. 295-308). MacKay also reported split-half reliabilities on the

revised instrument of .80 or higher for each of the sub-scales (3, p. 47).

Hall validated the original instrument by the use of independent judges who were asked to identify selected organizations which were at one extreme or the other on one or more of the six sub-scales. A two tailed t-test indicated a significant relationship between scale scores and judges' estimated degree of bureaucratization (1, pp. 295-308).

Further validation was performed by Kolesar who submitted the structural profiles of eleven schools to the principals of those schools. Ten of the eleven principals accepted and gave additional evidence to provide support for the profiles of their schools (2, p. 124).

The Authority and Expertise Dimensions. Kolesar observed a consistent pattern of relationships between instrument sub-scales when sub-scales were subjected to tests for intercorrelation. Both MacKay and Robinson had observed that analysis of data from their studies revealed all six sub-scales were not positively related. Robinson noted that schools characterized as highly professional tended to emphasize what Kolesar later termed the "rational" (sub-scales II and VI) organizational style and de-emphasized what was considered "bureaucratic" (sub-scales I, III, IV, and V) administrative style (5, pp. 75-76). This supported Udy's contention that "bureaucratic structure" was not, as Weber proposed, the only "rational" organizational structure, but just one form of rational structure.

In Robinson's study there was a significant and negative relationship between sub-scales II and VI and sub-scales I, III, IV and V (5, pp. 75-76). Kolesar noted a similar relationship among samples in his study. On the basis of observed intercorrelations between bureaucratic scores, Kolesar combined sub-scales II and VI to form the "expertise" dimension of bureaucracy while he combined sub-scales I, III, IV, and V to form the "authority" dimension of bureaucracy (2, pp. 26-31).

Intercorrelation data based on sample data from the present study supports Kolesar's two-dimensional grouping. This data is presented in Table I. Sub-scales II and VI (specialization and technical competence) correlated significantly and positively with each other. Similarly, sub-scales I, III, IV, and V (hierarchical authority, rules, procedural specifications, and impersonality) correlated significantly and positively with each other but significantly and negatively with sub-scales II and VI (2, pp. 26-31).

Kolesar combined the items in both the expertise and authority dimensions and subjected the items to factor analysis. Items 16, 20, 22, 24, 27 and 33 were indicated to be unstable between the two dimensions; however, the direct validity of these items supported a continued inclusion of the items in the dimensions suggested by their previously established sub-scales (2, p. 94).

TABLE I
 INTERCORRELATIONS BETWEEN OBSERVED BUREAUCRATIC
 SCORES ON THE SCHOOL ORGANIZATIONAL
 INVENTORY
 (N = 822)

Scale	I	II	III	IV	V	VI
1	1.000	-.414*	.469*	.656*	.366*	-.420*
2		1.000	-.180*	-.352*	-.189*	.395*
3			1.000	.499*	.305*	-.169*
4				1.000	.330*	-.341*
5					1.000	-.176*
6						1.000

*Significant at the .01 level

Authority dimension = 1, 3, 4, and 5.

Expertise dimension = 2 and 6

The two dimensions outlined by Kolesar provided the framework for the examination of bureaucratic structure of schools in this study.

The Pupil Control Ideology Form

The operational measure of pupil control ideology of teachers was the Pupil Control Ideology Form, or PCI Form. The form consists of twenty Likert-type items with responses valued from five (strongly agree) to one (strongly disagree). The possible range in scores for teachers responding to the instrument was from twenty to one hundred. A humanistic ideology was represented by a low score with the ideology becoming more custodial with a higher score (6, p. 12). Further information concerning item scoring is presented in Appendix A.

Reliability. To test the reliability of the PCI Form, a split-half reliability coefficient was calculated by Willower, Eidell, and Hoy correlating even-item sub-scores with odd-item sub-scores (N = 170). The resulting Pearson product-moment coefficient was .91. An application of the Spearman-Brown formula yielded a corrected coefficient of .95 (6, pp. 12-13).

Subsequent reliability coefficients were calculated for data collected from a later sample (N = 55). Using the same technique, the Pearson product-moment correlation of the half-test scores yielded a coefficient of .83 while

application of the Spearman-Brown formula yielded a corrected coefficient of .91 (6, pp. 12-13).

Validity. The main procedure Willower, Eidell and Hoy used in validating the PCI Form was based upon building principals' judgment of the pupil control ideology of certain teachers on their staff. After reading descriptions of custodial and humanistic orientations, principals were asked to identify a specified number of teachers whose ideology was most like each description. A comparison was then made of the mean PCI Form scores of the teachers identified in each group. A t-test of the difference of the means of the two independent samples was applied to test the prediction that teachers judged to hold a custodial pupil control ideology would differ in mean PCI Form scores from teachers judged to hold a humanistic ideology. Results of a one-tailed t-test indicated a difference in the expected direction, significant at the .01 level (6, p. 13).

As a cross validation, similar tests were conducted on a later sample. Using a one-tailed t-test, it was found that the mean PCI Form scores for teachers judged to be custodial in ideology and teachers judged to be humanistic were significant in the direction predicted at the .001 level (6, pp. 13-14).

Significance Levels

When determining the level of significance of statistical analysis of data in this study, a .05 level of

probability was maintained for rejection of null hypotheses. If, however, more significant levels were determined, they were reported.

Sample Selection

All of the schools which served as a base for data collection for this study were public secondary schools which included either grades nine through twelve or ten through twelve. Two factors prompted the selection of secondary schools as the focus of this study. First, the writer's teaching experience had been exclusively at the secondary level. Second, the more recent research concerning bureaucracy in schools had been conducted at the secondary level and this afforded a more realistic basis of comparison.

All schools which took part in the study were member schools in the Oklahoma Public School Research Council with headquarters at Oklahoma State University. All school districts in Oklahoma were eligible for membership in the Council provided the district maintained a minimum professional staff level of fifty certified personnel in grades Kindergarten through twelve. There were no restrictions relative to the enrollment or size of staff for individual attendance centers. The size of permanently assigned staff in the schools investigated ranged from eleven to one hundred twenty-two. Schools ranged over a wide geographic area and included attendance centers located in areas ranging from rural and small town locations to large urban centers.

After identifying all the secondary schools of school districts with Council membership, district superintendents were called. A brief outline of the project was given and superintendents were asked if it was agreeable to contact principals of secondary schools in the district. Several superintendents asked for more information which was mailed to them.

Within two weeks of original contact, all but three superintendents granted permission to conduct the study in their districts. Superintendents were asked if they would contact secondary principals and inform them that permission had been granted to conduct the study in their schools.

All secondary principals were contacted by phone. A general outline for the study was given and arrangements were made to hold a general faculty meeting for the purpose of administering the research instruments. Letters were later sent confirming the date of the scheduled faculty meetings.

The present study was conducted as a part of a larger study and involved one other researcher. The School Organization Inventory was a common instrument incorporated in the investigation being conducted by this writer's colleague. The two investigations were jointly conducted.

Several factors prompted the cooperative approach in the data collection phase of the investigations. The two prime considerations were time and cost in gathering data. Since it was decided to personally administer the instruments

at general faculty meetings, rather than by mail or some other means, considerable travel time and expense were involved. It was considered imperative that the data be gathered prior to a month before the close of the 1967-68 school year and it was not possible to begin the data collection until the first week in March, 1968. Also, a common sample was used in both investigations and a joint project made it possible to use a common questionnaire which could be administered at one faculty meeting rather than two.

The combined instruments were administered at general faculty meeting in a total of twenty-five secondary schools in seventeen school districts over a period of slightly less than seven weeks. This included all secondary schools in school districts participating in the investigation. All principals cooperated in establishing meeting dates which were mutually agreeable to both principals and researchers. In an attempt to solicit maximum faculty participation, all faculties were given a minimum of one week notice prior to the meeting date (Appendix B).

Data Collection

In all schools included in the study, the instruments were administered by the researchers. All respondents were present in a general faculty meeting held before or after school. Only faculty members teaching one or more classes were asked to respond. In all cases, principals were asked to leave the area after making formal introductions. Other

faculty members excluded were full time librarians, guidance counselors, and others not actually engaged in classroom teaching.

Instrument booklets and response sheets were distributed to all respondents who were asked to read the printed instructions. Prior to responding to the instrument, the following verbal instructions were given:

(1) Response to the total instrument will require twenty-five to forty-five minutes. (2) No individual will be identified in any report of this study nor will any administrator have access to any response sheet. (3) All response sheets will be hand graded and the information recorded on IBM cards by the researchers. Only the researchers will know the code numbers assigned to each school for identification purposes. (4) Please do not talk to any other person while responding to the instrument. (5) Do not ask to have any question or statement interpreted. (6) Respond to all questions or statements no matter how indirectly they may apply to your particular situation. (7) When you have completed your booklet, return both the booklet and the response sheet to me and you are free to go. (8) Unless there are questions on procedure, you are free to begin. Please mark only one answer per question.

No attempts were made to administer the instrument at a later date to eligible faculty members not in attendance at the general faculty meeting. A few faculty members who were absent from school or who had standing assignments at the time of the meeting did not respond.

Eighteen response sheets which had more than four questions or statement response spaces not completed were discarded. For those with four or fewer responses missing, the average of that person's scores for the section was

calculated and that score was assigned to the unanswered portion of the response sheet.

A total of 822 useable response sheets were obtained from the sample schools.

Treatment of Data

Analysis of variance for unequal means was the statistical treatment used in analysis of data relevant to the hypotheses. A t-test was used to analyze data concerning the related problem of the relationship of pupil control ideology scores of males and females.

For H.1, the problem was to determine the difference, if any, between the PCI Form mean scores for both schools and teachers in those schools which were above the mean for the authority dimension and the PCI Form mean scores for schools and teachers in those schools below the mean score for the authority dimension on the School Organization Inventory. The prediction was that the PCI Form scores of both schools and teachers within those schools would be significantly higher when authority dimension scores were above the mean as compared with schools and teachers within those schools when scores were below the mean on the authority dimension.

The problem in H.2 was to determine the difference between PCI Form mean scores for both schools and teachers within those schools which had scores on the expertise dimension above the mean with the PCI Form mean scores of

schools and teachers within those schools which had expertise scores below the mean. The PCI Form scores of the above the mean group were expected to be significantly lower than the below the mean group.

The problem in H.3 was to determine the difference in PCI Forms mean scores for those schools and teachers within those schools whose mean scores were both above the mean on the authority dimension and below the mean on the expertise dimension with the mean PCI Form scores of those schools and teachers within those schools whose scores were below the authority scale mean and above the expertise scale mean. The first group was designated to be characteristic of punishment centered schools while the second group was designated as representative schools. The prediction was that punishment centered schools and teachers within those schools would have significantly higher PCI Form scores than would representative schools and teachers within those schools.

Other related characteristics of teachers and schools with reference to other data were examined and reported, but no specific hypotheses were formulated. These data were reported only for a comparison with data from earlier studies, and to give insight for potential areas of expanded or divergent research.

Summary

In this chapter the instruments were explained and reports of reliability and validity were presented.

Intercorrelations among the six sub-scales of the School Organization Inventory were reported along with an explanation of the justification for grouping the six sub-scales into two broader dimensions of bureaucracy.

An explanation of the method of sample selection and data collection were presented as well as the method of treatment of data.

FOOTNOTES FOR CHAPTER III

1. Hall, Richard H., "Interorganizational Structural Variation: Application of the Bureaucratic Model," Administrative Science Quarterly, VII, (1962-63). pp. 295-308.
2. Kolesar, Henry. "An Empirical Study of Client Alienation in the Bureaucratic Organization," (unpublished Ph.D. thesis, the University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1967).
3. MacKay, D. A., "An Empirical Study of Bureaucratic Dimensions and Their Relation to the Characteristics of School Organizations," (unpublished Ph.D. thesis, The University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1964).
4. MacKay, D. A., and Norman Robinson, School Organization Inventory, (Department of Educational Administration, University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1966).
5. Robinson, Norman, "A Study of the Professional Role Orientations of Teachers and Principals and Their Relationship to Bureaucratic Characteristics of School Organizations," (unpublished Ph.D. thesis, The University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1967).
6. Willower, Donald J., Terry L. Eidell, and Wayne K. Hoy, The School and Pupil Control Ideology, (University Park, Pa.: Pennsylvania State University, 1967).

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

Introduction

Some doubt has been cast on Weber's contention that bureaucracy is a single concept with only specifically inter-related concepts. Studies by Udy (14) and Stinchcombe (12), and later studies of bureaucracy in schools by MacKay (8), Robinson (11), and Kolesar (7) have presented data which suggest that at least certain of the characteristics of bureaucracy as outlined by Weber (5, pp. 196-198) are not only unrelated but may be negatively related. Data gathered in this study, which was presented in Table I, Chapter III, would tend to support these contentions.

This chapter presents an analysis of the data used to test the hypotheses concerning the relationship of two broad characteristics of bureaucracy, the authority and expertise dimensions, to the Pupil Control Ideology of teachers. The rationale for the grouping of certain more specific characteristics of bureaucracy into these two general dimensions was presented in Chapter II.

Section one of this chapter presents data on variations of schools on each of the two dimensions of bureaucracy. Section two contains an analysis of data pertaining to the

major problems. The data provided an opportunity to examine certain other problems pertaining to bureaucracy and PCI as related to organization size, a characteristic commonly associated with bureaucracies. Analysis of this data is presented in the third section. Demographic data pertaining to the teachers in the sample is presented in the fourth section.

Variations in Bureaucratic Characteristics in Schools

Schools in the sample tested were found to have wide variations in both the expertise and authority dimensions of bureaucracy. There was also a wide variation on the teacher's perception of each of these dimensions within particular schools. In none of the schools tested could it be said that the teachers were in general agreement on the bureaucratic nature of the school.

Data presented in Figure 1 shows the wide variation in schools on each dimension of bureaucracy. It is noted that if there was a tendency for schools in this sample it was toward low authority with generally high expertise. There were fifteen of the twenty-five schools with expertise scores above the mean while only nine were above the mean for the authority dimension.

Only six of the schools in the sample were clearly determined to be punishment centered (high authority, low expertise). There were twelve schools which were

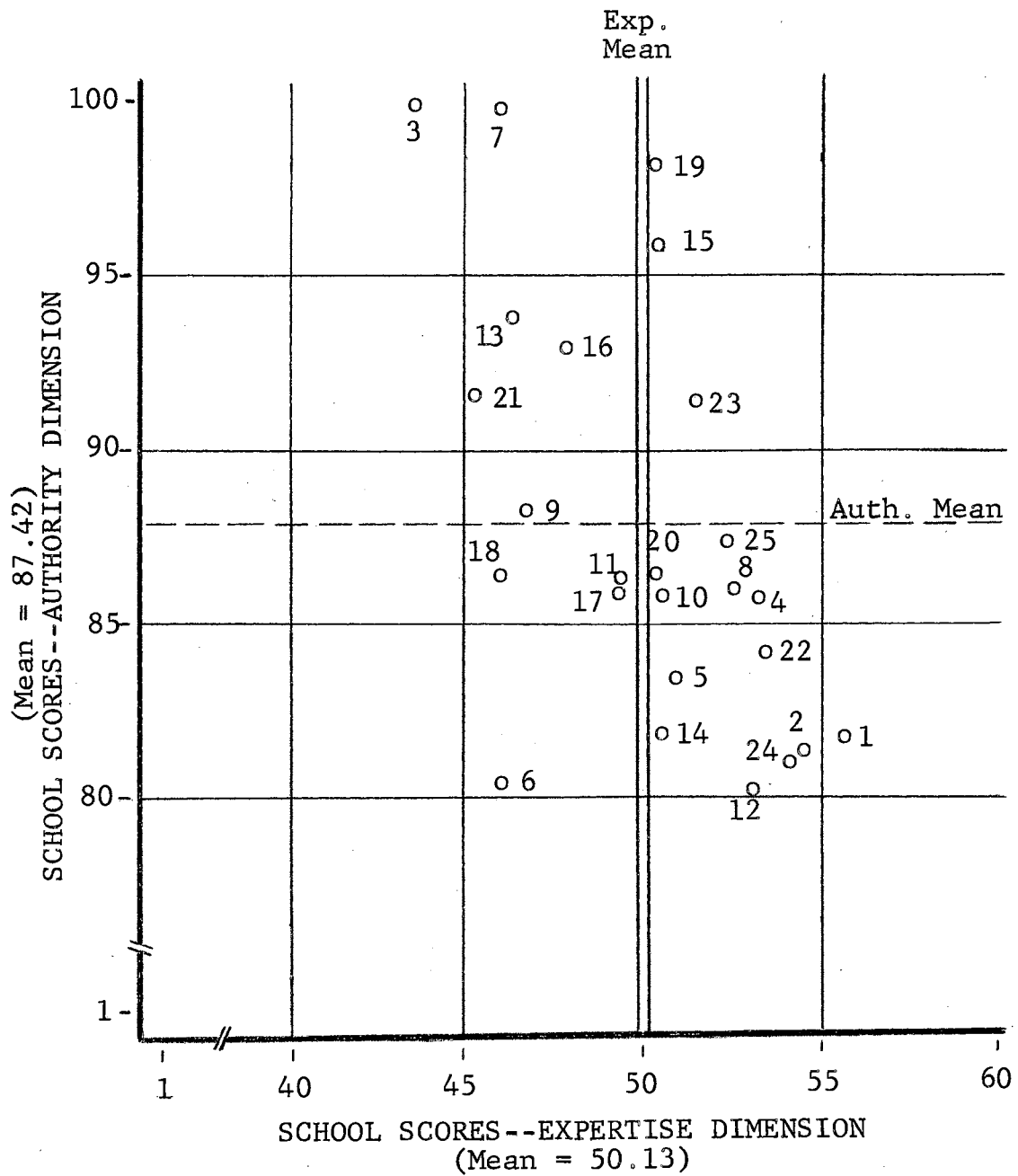


Figure 1. Placement of Schools on the Authority and Expertise Dimensions of Bureaucracy

representative (high expertise, low authority). Seven schools did not conform to either category. As was indicated in the correlation figures presented in Table I, schools appear to have less authority characteristics as the expertise becomes more evident. Less than one of every three schools in this sample did not clearly follow this tendency.

Data Analysis and Hypotheses Testing

The six major hypotheses were tested using analysis of variance for samples with unequal means. Significance levels were established at the .05 level; however, more significant levels were reported where justified. All analysis of data was performed on a 7040 computer at Oklahoma State University's center.

Relationship Between PCI and the Authority Dimension

H.1.a Schools which are relatively high on the authority dimension of bureaucracy will be significantly more custodial in their pupil control ideology than schools which are relatively low on the authority dimension.

Operationally, schools which were high on the authority dimension of bureaucracy were defined as those schools which had a mean score for all teachers in the particular school which was above the mean on the authority dimension for all other schools in the sample. Schools below the mean were defined as low authority schools. In this way, it was possible to determine a comparative mean authority score for

each school regardless of the number of teachers who taught in each school.

The calculated F-value for testing this hypothesis was 3.32 with 1 and 23 degrees of freedom. This F-value was not significant at the .05 level and the hypothesis cannot be accepted. The difference was, however, in the predicted direction. Summary data are presented in Table II. It is noted that of the nine high authority schools, only two had mean PCI scores below the mean PCI score for all schools.

A second hypothesis, closely related to the first, provided more significant findings.

H.1.b Teachers in schools which are relatively high on the authority dimension of bureaucracy will be significantly more custodial in their pupil control ideology than teachers in schools which are relatively low on the authority dimension.

For testing this hypothesis, calculations were based on analysis of data from all teachers grouped according to whether they taught in the nine high authority or sixteen low authority schools. Mean school scores were used in determining relative placement (see Figure 1).

The computation of the analysis of variance yielded an F-value of 9.08. With 1 and 820 degrees of freedom, the F-value was significant beyond the .01 level. According to the previously defined level of significance, this hypothesis must be accepted. Relevant data are presented in Table III.

TABLE II
 SUMMARY DATA AND ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE
 FOR PCI IN HIGH AND LOW
 AUTHORITY SCHOOLS
 (N = 25)

	High Authority Schools	Low Authority Schools
Number	9	16
Mean PCI Score	60.88	58.82
Standard Deviation	2.30	2.84

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Between Groups	22.58	1	23.58	3.32*
Within Groups	163.54	23	7.11	(N.S.)
Total	187.12	24		

* $p > .05$ (Significant F-value is 4.28)

TABLE III
 SUMMARY DATA AND ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR PCI
 SCORES OF TEACHERS IN HIGH AUTHORITY
 AND LOW AUTHORITY SCHOOLS
 (N = 822)

	Teachers in High Authority Schools	Teachers in Low Authority Schools
Number	253	569
Mean PCI Score	60.66	58.50
Standard Deviation	9.24	9.54

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Between Groups	811.15	1	811.15	9.08**
Within Groups	73271.50	820	89.35	
Total	74082.65	821		

**
 p < 0.01

Relationship Between PCI and the Expertise Dimension

H.2.a Schools which are relatively high on the expertise dimension of bureaucracy will be significantly more humanistic in their pupil control ideology than schools which are relatively low on the expertise dimension.

Operationally, schools which were high on the expertise dimension of bureaucracy were defined as those schools which had a mean score for all teachers in the particular school which was above the mean on the expertise dimension for all schools in the sample. Schools below the mean were defined as low expertise schools.

The computed F-value for testing this hypothesis was 1.55. With 1 and 23 degrees of freedom, this F-value was not significant at the .05 level and the hypothesis cannot be accepted. The difference was, however, in the predicted direction. Summary data and analysis of variance data are presented in Table IV.

H.2.b Teachers in schools which are relatively high on the expertise dimension of bureaucracy will be significantly more humanistic in their pupil control ideology than teachers in schools which are relatively low on the expertise dimension.

For testing this hypothesis, all teachers in high expertise schools were compared with all teachers in low expertise schools.

The computation of analysis of variance for this hypothesis yielded an F-value of .55. With 1 and 820 degrees of freedom, the hypothesis was not affirmed since this F-value was not significant at the prescribed significance level. The difference was in the predicted direction, but

TABLE IV
 SUMMARY DATA AND ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE
 FOR PCI IN HIGH AND LOW
 EXPERTISE SCHOOLS
 (N = 25)

	High Authority Schools	Low Authority Schools
Number	10	15
Mean PCI Score	58.71	60.11
Standard Deviation	2.29	3.03

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Between Groups	11.78	1	11.78	1.55* (N.S.)
Within Groups	175.34	23	7.62	
Total	187.12	24		

* $p > .05$ (Significant F-value is 4.28)

slight. Data relevant to the testing of this hypothesis are presented in Table V.

Analysis of Difference of PCI
in Punishment Centered and
Representative Schools

H.3.a Schools characterized by a punishment centered bureaucratic style will be significantly more custodial in their pupil control ideology than schools characterized by a representative bureaucratic style.

Schools which were classified as high on the authority dimension and low on the expertise dimension of bureaucracy were punishment centered schools. Schools which were high on the expertise dimension and low on the authority dimension were classified as representative schools.

The computed F-value for data relevant to this hypothesis was 3.12. With 1 and 16 degrees of freedom, this F-value was not significant at the .05 level. Although the hypothesis cannot be affirmed, the difference was in the direction predicted. Data relevant to this hypothesis are presented in Table VI.

H.3.b Teachers in schools characterized by a punishment centered bureaucratic style will be significantly more custodial in their pupil control ideology than teachers in schools characterized by a representative bureaucratic style.

The basic sample for this hypothesis was the same as for the preceding hypothesis except the teachers' PCI scores were compared rather than average school scores.

The computed analysis of variance for this hypothesis yielded an F-value of 8.74. This was significant beyond the .01 level with 1 and 537 degrees of freedom. Based on the

TABLE V
 SUMMARY DATA AND ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR PCI SCORES
 OF TEACHERS IN HIGH EXPERTISE AND LOW
 EXPERTISE SCHOOLS
 (N = 822)

	Teachers in High Expertise Schools	Teachers in Low Expertise Schools
Number	339	483
Mean PCI Scores	59.38	58.88
Standard Deviation	8.55	10.06

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Between Groups	49.94	1	49.94	0.55* (N.S.)
Within Groups	74023.75	820	90.28	
Total	74082.69	821		

* $p > .05$ (Significant F-value is 3.86)

TABLE VI
 SUMMARY DATA AND ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR PCI SCORES
 OF PUNISHMENT CENTERED AND REPRESENTATIVE
 TYPE SCHOOLS
 (N = 18)

	Punishment Centered Schools	Representative Schools
Number	6	12
Mean PCI Score	61.70	59.33
Standard Deviation	2.39	2.80

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Between Groups	22.40	1	23.40	3.12* (N.S.)
Within Groups	114.87	16	7.18	
Total	137.27	17		

* $p > .05$ (Significant F-value is 4.49)

established significance level, this hypothesis must be accepted. Data pertaining to this hypothesis are presented in Table VII.

Related Problems

A general reading of the literature concerning bureaucracies would suggest that the concept of bureaucracy is more closely associated with organizations as they become larger. Presthus (10, p. 4) has pointed out that authority characteristics appear more clearly in "big organizations." Crozier (3, p. 1) supports this contention. Although not supported empirically, Dimock (4, p. 92) emphasized that size increased the influence of every factor of administration that contributes to bureaucratic excess, especially rules and regulations governing behavior.

Based on his study of schools, Hartley (6, p. 34) had predicted that:

As mandated reorganization of school districts reduces the number and increases the size of school districts, one might expect to find an increased number of bureaucratic characteristics in schools.

Robinson (11, pp. 29-32), on the other hand, stated that although he found a highly significant overall difference among schools on each of the bureaucratic characteristics which he examined, size was not significantly related to the extent of bureaucratization. It is noted that Weber (5) does not emphasize a relationship between the size of an organization and bureaucracy, but has emphasized the efficiency aspect of bureaucracy for any organization.

TABLE VII
 SUMMARY DATA AND ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR TEACHERS'
 PCI SCORES IN PUNISHMENT CENTERED AND
 REPRESENTATIVE SCHOOLS
 (N = 539)

	Teachers in Punishment Centered Schools	Teachers in Representative Schools
Number	140	399
Mean PCI Score	61.76	58.96
Standard Deviation	8.91	9.92

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Between Groups	816.52	1	816.52	8.74**
Within Groups	50194.69	537	93.47	
Total	51011.21	538		

** p < .01

Studies of industrial concerns by Baker and Davis (2, pp. 14-15) and Melman (9, pp. 89-90) found no relationship between certain bureaucratic characteristics and size. Terrien and Mills (13, pp. 11-13) did find a small relationship between the size of schools and the number of administrative staff in California schools; however, Anderson and Warkov (1, pp. 23-28) found no such relationship in Veterans' Administration hospitals.

Although it may be subjectively contended that there is a relationship between size and bureaucracy, research would not strongly support this contention, if at all. Empirical investigations would suggest that there is no particular relationship between the size of an organization and the extent of bureaucratization. Data from this study would tend to support that proposition.

In this investigation the authority and expertise dimension scores of the eight largest and eight smallest schools were compared. Analysis of variance procedures were used to compare the mean authority and expertise scores of those schools.

The comparison of large and small schools on the authority dimension yielded an F-value of .10 which is not significant at the .05 level. With 1 and 14 degrees of freedom, a prediction of any significant relationship could not be supported. Summary data are presented in Table VIII.

The comparison of large and small schools on the expertise dimension yielded an F-value of .02. With 1

TABLE VIII
 SUMMARY DATA AND ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR LARGE
 AND SMALL SCHOOLS ON AUTHORITY
 DIMENSION SCORES
 (N = 16)

	Large Schools	Small Schools
Number	8	8
Mean Authority Score	86.50	85.71
Standard Deviation	5.00	5.07

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Between Groups	2.48	1	2.48	0.10*
Within Groups	355.11	14	25.36	(N.S.)
Total	357.59	15		

* $p > .05$ (Significant F-value is 4.60)

and 14 degrees of freedom, there was no significant relationship. Summary data are presented in Table IX.

Without supporting data, it is possible to predict that teachers in small schools would be more humanistic than teachers in large schools. Teachers in small schools would have a better opportunity to learn to know their students better and develop closer relationships. Classes would likely be smaller and teachers would be more likely to have students in several classes. Although the data does not support the contention, one might expect less restraints on the actions of students. In general, it is reasonable to predict a more relaxed atmosphere in small schools with an attendant more personal relationship between students and members of the faculty.

Comparative data from this study would not support such a contention. In fact, the mean PCI score for teachers in the small schools in this sample was slightly more custodial than the mean PCI score for teachers in large schools.

An analysis of variance for the difference between means yielded an F-value of .67. With 1 and 556 degrees of freedom there was no significant relationship. Summary data are presented in Table X.

Analysis of data for the relationship between PCI scores of large and small schools provided a similar relationship as with a comparison of teachers within those schools. An analysis of variance for the difference between means yielded an F-value of .44. With 1 and 14 degrees of

TABLE IX
 SUMMARY DATA AND ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR LARGE AND
 SMALL SCHOOLS ON EXPERTISE DIMENSION SCORES
 (N = 16)

	Large Schools	Small Schools
Number	8	8
Mean Expertise Score	50.00	50.30
Standard Deviation	3.44	4.05

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Between Groups	0.34	1	0.34	0.02*
Within Groups	197.77	14	14.13	(N.S.)
Total	198.11	15		

* p > .05 (Significant F-value is 4.60)

TABLE X
 SUMMARY DATA AND ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR PCI SCORES
 OF TEACHERS IN LARGE AND SMALL SCHOOLS
 (N = 558)

	Large Schools	Small Schools
Number	8	8
Mean PCI Score	59.95	60.82
Standard Deviation	2.45	2.81

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Between Groups	61.86	1	61.86	0.67* (N.S.)
Within Groups	51591.01	556	92.79	
Total	51652.87	557		

* p > .05 (Significant F-value is 3.86)

freedom, there was no significant relationship. Table XI presents the data summary.

TABLE XI
SUMMARY DATA AND ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR PCI
SCORES OF LARGE AND SMALL SCHOOLS
(N = 16)

	Large Schools	Small Schools
Number	8	8
Mean PCI Score	59.95	60.82
Standard Deviation	2.44	2.81

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Between Groups	3.04	1	3.04	0.44* (N.S.)
Within Groups	97.42	14	6.96	
Total	100.46	15		

* $p > .05$ (Significant F-value is 4.60)

Demographic Data

This section presents a summary of the demographic data of teachers in the sample. The data primarily reports a comparison of mean PCI scores of teachers with relation to certain selected characteristics of teachers. Although no specific hypotheses were formulated, other studies have examined similar relationships among teachers. With the exception of the comparison of mean PCI scores of males and females, no statistical tests were performed.

A comparison of means between male and female PCI scores revealed a Student's t-value of 5.69. With a sample of 351 males and 470 females, the t-value was significant beyond the .01 level. Summary data are presented in Table XII.

TABLE XII

A COMPARISON OF MEANS BETWEEN MALE
AND FEMALE PCI SCORES
(N = 821)

	Number	Mean	Variance	Standard Deviation	t Value
Males	351	61.30	90.84	9.53	5.69*
Females	470	57.56	84.05	9.17	

*Significant at the .01 level

Other than the observation that males, in general, had a significantly more custodial PCI, there did not appear to be an easily identified pattern of PCI scores with reference to other demographic data.

Data presented in Table XIII suggested that the PCI scores of teachers remains relatively stable, with moderate fluctuation, until late in the teaching career. There was a sharp rise in the PCI scores of teachers after they reached the age of sixty and above.

With reference to the number of years taught, there was a sharp rise in the PCI scores of teachers teaching during their second through fourth year as compared with those

TABLE XIII
SUMMARY DATA FOR COMPARISON OF MEAN PCI
SCORES OF DIFFERENT AGE GROUPS
(N = 809)

Age	Number	Mean PCI Score
20-29	249	58.66
30-39	168	59.56
40-49	179	57.49
50-59	162	59.67
60 and above	51	63.67

teaching their first year. After that point, however, there was a general stabilization of PCI scores with the sharpest difference occurring after teachers had twenty or more years of experience. The trend was toward a slight reduction in the PCI score between two and nineteen years, with a noticeable increase in the twenty and above group. Relevant data is presented in Table XIV.

TABLE XIV
SUMMARY DATA FOR COMPARISON OF MEAN PCI SCORES
ACCORDING TO DIFFERENT CLASSIFICATIONS
OF NUMBER OF YEARS TAUGHT
(N = 811)

Years Taught	Number	Mean PCI Score
1	83	56.60
2 - 4	193	59.61
5 - 9	166	59.20
10 - 19	178	58.03
20 and above	191	60.92

Data presented in Table XV would suggest that there is no obvious pattern for PCI scores with reference to the amount of training with the exception of a comparison of degree with non-degree teachers. It should be noted, however, that the number of non degree teachers teaching at the secondary level was too few for a valid comparison. Only six non-degree teachers were included in this sample.

TABLE XV
SUMMARY DATA FOR COMPARISON OF MEAN PCI SCORES
ACCORDING TO DIFFERENT LEVELS OF EDUCATION
(N = 822)

Education Level	Mean PCI Score
Less than B.S.	65.53
B.S. Degree	57.90
B.S. Degree Plus	59.44
M.S. Degree	58.03
M.S. Degree Plus	59.42

Summary

The six major hypotheses of the study were tested and the results summarized in this chapter. Teachers in high authority schools and in punishment centered schools were significantly more custodial in PCI than teachers in low authority schools or in representative schools. There was a tendency for high authority schools and punishment centered schools to be more custodial in PCI than low authority schools or representative schools but the differences were

not significant. There was no significant difference between teacher's or school's PCI with respect to high and low expertise.

The size of schools did not seem to be related to differences in PCI, nor was there any particular relationship between the size of schools and the extent of bureaucratization. Men were found to have a significantly more custodial PCI than women.

Chapter V presents the implications of the findings reported in the preceding sections and makes recommendations for further study.

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CHAPTER V
SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, IMPLICATIONS, AND
DIRECTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Introduction

In the preceding chapter the results of testing of the hypotheses and related problems were reported. Little attempt was made to draw implications based on the statistical analysis. It is, however, a major purpose of research of social organizations to present data that will provide an opportunity to draw reasonable conclusions about the nature of organizations and what makes them as they are. At best, these conclusions can only be generalizations based on a particular sample and care should always be exercised in expanding these conclusions toward making specific statements concerning similar organizations not included in the sample or that may be governed by widely varying constraints.

The conclusions reported in the following paragraphs are, in part, subjective evaluations based on objective evaluation data. The guiding principle in formulating these evaluations was, however, the belief that research of this nature serves little purpose other than to allow the researcher to draw reasonable conclusions, governed by logic and reason, about the nature of similar organizations. That

future research involving different samples should be encouraged is an obvious truism.

Summary of the Findings

Listed below is a brief summary of the findings of the present study:

1. There was a wide variation in the degree of bureaucratization of schools in both the expertise and authority dimensions.

2. Schools which were high on the authority dimension were not significantly more custodial in their pupil control ideology than low authority schools, but the difference was in the predicted direction.

3. Teachers in high authority schools were significantly more custodial in their pupil control ideology than teachers in low authority schools.

4. There was no significant difference in the pupil control ideology of schools, or teachers within those schools, with respect to the expertise dimension of bureaucracy.

5. Although the pupil control ideology of punishment centered schools was not significantly more custodial than for representative schools, the difference was in the direction predicted.

6. Teachers in punishment centered schools were significantly more custodial in their pupil control ideology than teachers in representative schools.

7. There was no significant difference between large and small schools on the authority dimension of bureaucracy.

8. There was no significant difference between large and small schools on the expertise dimension of bureaucracy.

9. Teachers in small schools were not found to be significantly different in their pupil control ideology than teachers in large schools.

10. Male teachers were significantly more custodial than female teachers.

Implications

The major hypotheses of this study were predicated on the rationale that there were at least two distinct elements in Weber's original bureaucratic model. Both empirical evidence and reason had suggested that these two elements were not only not positively related but were probably negatively related. It had been pointed out that incorporated within the bureaucratic model was the proposition that control within an organization may be dependent on both discipline and judgments based on expertise. Reason would suggest that these two dimensions of control are in conflict.

The hypotheses had been developed on the assumption that if these two general characteristics of bureaucracy were in conflict, other factors within the organization which could be demonstrated to be related to bureaucracy would emerge, at least in part, as a direct result of the organization's prevailing mode for guidance of formal

activities within the organization. This assumption would appear to be only partially justified.

There was ample evidence to suggest that as the authority dimension of bureaucracy became more pronounced the pupil control ideology of teachers was more custodial. Such a relationship was significantly in evidence for teachers, and, although not significant for schools in general, the tendency seemed clear. Possibly, studies involving larger samples would produce more penetrating results. Certainly, further research is indicated.

On the other hand, there was little evidence to support the contention that the extent of emphasis on the expertise dimension was related to the pupil control ideology of either schools in general or teachers in particular. The analysis of data did not even suggest an approach to a significant relationship. There are several possible explanations, but only one appears reasonable.

It is to be remembered that schools are professional organizations and that their very nature demands a reasonably high level of training for the professional staff member. This would imply that a relatively high level of expertise is prevalent whatever the particular administrative emphasis might be. In this sample, only six of the 822 persons examined did not have at least a B.S. degree.

The implication is that although the predominance of emphasis on authority and expertise may be inversely related, the primary conflict variable is authority. With the

emphasis on a direct authority relationship reduced or discounted, the relatively pervasive characteristic of expertise would seem to encourage a stabilization of the pupil control ideology of teachers. Earlier, it had been pointed out that the nature of training for teaching was at least encouraging toward the ideal of a more humanistic ideology of pupil control, and it would be expected that the more professional approach would be in the direction of humanism.

In general, the implication would be that in schools, the degree of authority characteristics is more closely related to the pupil control ideology of teachers than is the degree of expertise, and is probably a more immediate influence on teachers' ideologies. Observing the results of other studies, Blau and Scott similarly pointed out that:

In the absence of direct hierarchical supervision, genuine professional work can be and, indeed, frequently is carried out in otherwise bureaucratized organizations (1, p. 209).

Although their statement was not made with reference to schools, the general principle would seem to be supported. It is indicated that the direction of future research might be directed toward an examination of each of the four sub-dimensions of the authority dimension and the relationship of each to the pupil control ideology of teachers and schools.

As might be expected, the results of a comparison of PCI in punishment centered and representative schools was similar to the simpler comparison with just the authority dimension. The same was evident when comparing teachers

within those schools. Teachers in punishment centered schools were significantly more custodial than in representative schools. Considering the earlier findings, however, it would not appear to be the difference in expertise that is the controlling factor as much as the difference in the authority dimension. It is interesting to note, however, that the grouping of teachers with a combination of high authority and low expertise produced the highest overall PCI average score of any of the other groupings. It would appear that the combination of high authority and low expertise was a significant influence toward custodialism in teachers in the schools investigated.

It did not appear that the size of schools had any particular influence on either of the dimensions of bureaucracy or on the pupil control ideology of teachers. This would seem to discount the general opinion that largeness and bureaucracy are directly related, at least as far as is perceived by those within the organization. It may be that people working within the school do not feel as hampered by the procedural framework of the organization as do those not directly involved in the every-day activities of the school. This may be a subject for future research. At least as far as the teachers in this sample were concerned, the size of the school was not a significant factor in either of the dimension of bureaucracy or PCI.

The sex of teachers did appear to be a significant factor as related to pupil control ideology. It was noted that

female teachers had the most humanistic pupil control ideology of all other groupings of teachers in this sample. This pattern seems to conform with other studies cited in this investigation which have reported relatively humanistic pupil control ideologies for teachers in elementary schools, which are staffed predominantly by women teachers.

A general summary of the implications of the investigation would suggest that there is a direct relationship between the extent of authority factors within schools and the tendency toward custodialism in pupil control ideology. This relationship is probably influenced by an apparent de-emphasis on factors related to expertise in professional orientation when accompanied by a well developed sense of the existence of authority relationships. The size of the school does not appear to influence either the teachers' pupil control ideology or the perception of the extent of bureaucratization within the school. At the same time, it is reasonable to expect a generally more custodial pupil control ideology as the percentage of male teachers increases.

It is difficult to determine the objectives of particular administrators with respect to their mode of operation in secondary schools as isolated objectives may be quite varied. However, barring an almost complete displacement of student learning objectives with control objectives, administrators could reasonably be expected to be concerned with factors that are likely to diminish the teacher-learner relationship with respect to patterns of interaction within the

classroom. It has long been emphasized that a major function of formal administrator training is to demonstrate the importance of the administrator in encouraging positive rather than negative attitudes of human relations in the school setting. Yet, it seems likely that the administrator who emphasized the authority aspect of his relationship with teachers may be fostering a similar relationship between teachers and students by encouraging a more custodial teacher PCI. Such a situation seems contrary to most school's stated objectives.

In short, the administrator who professes to encourage staff members to try new teaching methods calculated to foster greater student involvement in the learning process may be undermining the very process he professes to support when authority relationships are emphasized in administrator-teacher interaction.

Suggestions for Further Research

Exactly what the long range effect of a well entrenched bureaucratic administration might be, it is impossible to say. No attempt was made to determine the length of time any of the principals had been at the schools investigated. Also, no attempt was made to determine the attitude of teachers toward bureaucratic regulation. Teachers may see what they want to see in the administrative style of principals. That such is in part the case was demonstrated by the wide range of scores for each of the dimensions of bureaucracy within given schools. It is difficult to say whether

custodialism fosters a desire for more administrative procedures which increase the degree of bureaucracy or the other way around. Other studies investigated the desirability of bureaucracy in schools. It might be interesting to determine the relationship between the desirability of bureaucratic characteristics, especially those in the authority dimension, and pupil control ideology in teachers and principals.

No attempt was made to determine the relationship between the social context of the schools and the degree of bureaucracy. Possibly, low socio-economic schools may have different characteristics than middle or upper class schools. A consideration of the relationship of PCI and certain social factors in schools might also be a fruitful area of research.

Certain demographic data may be related to the degree of bureaucratization, especially factors such as sex, training, and years taught. Marital status might also be a factor.

Another area of consideration might be the turnover rate of teachers with respect to the degree of bureaucratization, especially those characteristics associated with the authority dimension.

Both PCI and bureaucracy might be investigated with respect to the racial characteristics of the school.

Another interesting question is, "What is the relationship between a teacher's ideology toward pupil control and his actual behavior with respect to control?"

An interesting question was raised with the observation that schools which were higher on the expertise dimension tended to be lower on the authority dimension. A logical follow-up question would be, "Do teachers who use more innovative teaching methods have a more humanistic PCI?". This study did not indicate any relationship between PCI and the expertise dimension; however, there was no attempt to determine the actual employment of innovative teaching practices in the schools investigated.

Although this investigation indicated the tendency toward a more humanistic PCI as the extent of the authority dimension decreased, it may be possible there is a point of diminishing returns in this tendency. Is there a point below which administrators' authoritative control might drop so as to encourage a more custodial PCI? Such an investigation might shed more light on any causal relationship between the extent of authority relationships and the PCI of teachers.

If, as Willower and Jones contend, the concern about pupil control is one of the most pervasive characteristics of schools, and all schools are to some extent bureaucratic, the potential for future research in either area seems boundless. At the present time the surface has only been scratched. The suggestions in the preceding paragraphs are but a few of the questions that might be raised.

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A P P E N D I X A

INSTRUMENTS

INTRODUCTION

On the following pages a number of statements about the school setting are presented. Our purpose is to gather information regarding the actual attitudes of educators concerning these statements.

You will recognize that the statements are of such a nature that there are no correct or incorrect answers. We are interested only in your frank opinion of them.

FORM PCI*

Instructions: Following are twenty statements about schools, teachers, and pupils. Please indicate your personal opinion about each statement by circling the appropriate response on the answer sheet which you have been provided. The five possible selections are: Strongly Agree, Agree, Undecided, Disagree, and Strongly Disagree.

1. It is desirable to require pupils to sit in assigned seats during assemblies.
2. Pupils are usually not capable of solving their problems through logical reasoning.
3. Directing sarcastic remarks toward a defiant pupil is a good disciplinary technique.
4. Beginning teachers are not likely to maintain strict enough control over their pupils.
5. Teachers should consider revision of their teaching methods if these are criticized by their pupils.
6. The best principals give unquestioning support to teachers in disciplining pupils.
7. Pupils should not be permitted to contradict the statements of a teacher in a class.
8. It is justifiable to have pupils learn many facts about a subject even if they have no immediate application.
9. Too much pupil time is spent on guidance and activities and too little on academic preparation.

10. Being friendly with pupils often leads them to become too familiar.
11. It is more important for pupils to learn to obey rules than that they make their own decisions.
12. Student governments are a good "safety valve" but should not have much influence on school policy.
13. Pupils can be trusted to work together without supervision.
14. If a pupil used obscene or profane language in school, it must be considered a moral offense.
15. If pupils are allowed to use the lavatory without getting permission, this privilege will be abused.
16. A few pupils are just young hoodlums and should be treated accordingly.
17. It is often necessary to remind pupils that their status in school differs from that of teachers.
18. A pupil who destroys school material or property should be severely punished.
19. Pupils cannot perceive the difference between democracy and anarchy in the classroom.
20. Pupils often misbehave in order to make the teacher look bad.

Statements 5 and 13 are reverse scored. All other statements are from five for Strongly Agree to one for Strongly Disagree. This information was not provided for respondents to this Form.

FORM SOI**

SCHOOL ORGANIZATION INVENTORY

Directions: In this Questionnaire all teachers are asked to indicate how well each statement describes the organizational characteristics of their own school. For each statement circle the answer on the answer sheet which you feel comes closest to describing your own school organization. The five possible answers are: Always True, Often True, Occasionally True, Seldom True, and Never True.

1. A person who wants to make his own decisions would quickly become discouraged in this school.
2. There is an overlap in the job responsibilities of the Principal and Vice-Principal.
3. Rules stating when teachers arrive and depart from the building are strictly enforced.
4. The use of a wide variety of teaching methods and materials is encouraged in this school.
5. We are expected to be courteous, but reserved, at all times in our dealings with parents.
6. Promotions are based on how well you are liked.
7. Staff members of this school always get their orders from higher up.
8. Teachers are required to sponsor extra-curricular activities for which they have no suitable background.
9. The time for informal staff get-togethers during the school day is strictly regulated by the administration.
10. In dealing with student discipline problems teachers are encouraged to consider the individual offender, not the offense, in deciding on a suitable punishment.
11. Staff members must possess above-average qualifications before they are placed in this school.
12. Staff members are allowed to do almost as they please in their classroom work.
13. Teachers in this school receive help from the custodial staff in setting up audio-visual equipment for classroom use.

14. The teacher is expected to abide by the spirit of the rules of the school rather than stick to the letter of the rules.
15. We are to follow strict operating procedures at all times.
16. The administration sponsors staff get-togethers.
17. Promotion is not based on personal preferences of the selectors, but on an objective evaluation of teacher capabilities.
18. Nothing is said if you get to school just before roll call or leave right after dismissal occasionally.
19. Going through proper channels is constantly stressed.
20. Teachers are encouraged to become friendly with groups and individuals outside the school.
21. Past teaching experience plays a large part in the assignment of a teacher to this school.
22. Teachers have to do their own typing of stencils for classroom use.
23. There can be little action until an administrator approves a decision.
24. Assignment of teaching duties is made without regard for the teacher's experience or training.
25. The teachers are constantly being checked for rule violations.
26. There isn't much chance for promotion unless you are "in" with the administration.
27. Teachers who have contact with parents and other citizens are instructed in proper procedures for greeting and talking with them.
28. Many teachers are hired simply because they have attractive personalities.
29. The school has a manual of rules and regulations for teachers to follow.
30. We have to do a lot of paperwork which could be done by the school office staff.
31. Each staff member is responsible to an administrator to whom the member regularly reports.

32. In order to get a promotion, you have to "know somebody."
33. The instructional program is departmentalized into specific subject areas with specific teachers assigned.
34. A person can make his own decisions without checking with anyone else.
35. There is only one way to do the job--the Principal's way.
37. Promotions are based entirely on how well a person does his job.
38. I have to ask the principal before I do almost anything.
39. No one can get necessary supplies without permission from the principal or vice-principal.
40. Written orders from higher up are followed unquestioningly.
41. The same procedures are to be followed in most situations.
42. Students are treated within the rules of the school, no matter how serious a problem they have.
43. Even small matters have to be referred to someone higher up for a final answer.
44. Teachers are expected not to leave their classroom without permission.
45. Whenever we have a problem, we are supposed to go to the same person for an answer.
46. No matter how special a pupil's parent's problem appears to be, the person is treated the same as anyone else.
47. Any decision I make has to have my superior's approval.
48. Red tape is often a problem in getting a job done in this school.

(Even numbered statements 2 through 34 are scored from 1 for Always True to 5 for Never True. All other statements are scored from 5 for Always True to 1 for Never True.)

* Donald J. Willower, Terry L. Eidell, and Wayne K. Hoy, The School and Pupil Control Ideology (The Pennsylvania State University, 1967).

** D. A. MacKay and Norman Robinson, School Organization Inventory, (University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1966). Used by permission.

Information Sheet

Instructions: Please complete the personal data by checking the appropriate classification.

1. Sex: Male Female
2. Age: 20-29 yrs. 30-39 yrs. 40-49 yrs.
 50-59 yrs. 60 or more years.
3. Total number of years taught: (Including this year)
 1 year 2-4 years 5-9 years
 10-19 years 20 or more years
4. Amount of education
 Less than Bachelor's degree
 Bachelor's degree
 Bachelor's degree plus additional credits
 Master's degree
 Master's degree plus additional credits

A P P E N D I X B

LETTERS OF INQUIRY

March 13, 1968

Dear

The Oklahoma Public School Research Council's Executive Board has approved two studies which they feel will be valuable for the member schools.

A study by Marvin Fairman, OPSRC graduate assistant, is designed to test a theoretical model for predicting teacher militancy in the high school. The study has two purposes: (1) to test the theoretical model, and (2) to give superintendents and principals an "internal photograph" of their high school or high schools. After the data have been collected and analyzed, each superintendent and principal will receive a summary of information concerning six separate dimensions within the high school.

The study by Ted Jones, graduate assistant at OSU, is designed to explore teacher attitudes toward students.

Mr. Fairman or Mr. Jones will contact you during the week of March 18 to determine if you want your high school to participate in the combined study. The only inconvenience that the researchers request is that the high school principal allow them approximately thirty minutes of a regular or special faculty meeting either before or after school to administer the combined instruments.

They will be ready to gather data on the 18th of March and would like to finish during the month of April. It would be convenient for them to visit several systems during their semester break (March 25-29). However, they will be able to adjust their schedule for the convenience of your high school principal.

Your interest and cooperation in the study will be appreciated by all of us.

Cordially yours,

Kenneth St. Clair
Executive Secretary

vb
Enclosure

Marvin Fairman
OPSRC Graduate Assistant

Dear Mr.

We appreciate your interest and cooperation in the Oklahoma Public School Research Council's research project. This letter is a confirmation of the date and time which we established in our telephone conversation. Mr. Jones or I will plan to meet with your faculty

If something conflicts unexpectedly with this time, would you please write to us at Gundersen 309 or call FR2-6211, Extension 7274?

Explanation to the teachers: This study is part of a basic research project in educational administration being conducted by the Oklahoma Public School Research Council of Oklahoma State University. The researchers are interested in your attitudes toward students, how you perceive the organizational structure, how you perceive the principal as behaving, and your attitudes toward the teaching profession.

We will NOT and we hope you will NOT refer to this study as a "militancy" study because this might bias their responses. The questions in regard to this dimension are in the "As you see it" form and are only questions with regard to hypothetical conflict situations.

Administering the instruments:

1. We prefer to administer the instruments either after you have finished your regular faculty meeting or after your introductory remarks at a special faculty meeting.
 - a. This will allow teachers to leave when they have completed the instruments.
 - b. After introductory remarks, we request that all administrators leave the testing room in order to ensure teacher's security in responding to the instruments.
2. We want to administer the instrument to all high school teachers (9-12) who are in your building. Teachers are defined as those who teach at least one class per day. (This may include librarians, counselors, etc.)
3. We are only interested in the responses of the regular staff and not those of substitute or student teachers.

Page 2

Thank you for your interest and cooperation.

Sincerely,

Marvin Fairman
Graduate Assistant

Ted Jones
Graduate Assistant

vb

P. S. A copy was sent to your superintendent.

March 22, 1968

Dear Mr.

We appreciate your interest and concern for the research project and its possible influence upon your teachers' attitudes. There can be no doubt about our mutual interest in this crucial problem. We are sure the council would not want you to participate if you felt that it would be dysfunctional for your school system.

It is hoped that the enclosed materials will allow you to assess the research project. I will call you the 28th or 29th of March to discuss the role of your school in the research project.

Thank you again for your interest.

Sincerely,

Marvin Fairman

Ted Jones

Enclosed:

Two instruments and answer sheets
Original letter
Letter which will go to principal

March 29, 1968

Dear Mr.

Your cooperation and participation in our recent Oklahoma Public School Research Council research project was certainly appreciated.

As stated in our first correspondence with you concerning this project, a summary report will be sent to you and your superintendent as soon as the data from all of the participating schools has been collected and analyzed. No school will be identified in the summary report; however, you will be notified which profile belongs to your school. The summary report will probably be available during July.

Thank you again for your cooperation.

Sincerely,

Marvin Fairman
OPSRC Graduate Assistant

Ted Jones
Graduate Assistant

vb

A P P E N D I X C

SUMMARY DATA FOR ALL SCHOOLS

TABLE XVI
SUMMARY DATA FOR ALL SCHOOLS

School Number	Number of Teachers Questioned	Total Staff	Mean PCI Score	Mean Expertise Score	Mean Authority Score	Range of Teachers PCI Scores
1	15	22	57.47	55.60	81.99	25-88
2	11	16	58.64	54.73	81.26	48-69
3	10	20	60.30	43.50	99.50	51-71
4	25	27	60.68	53.32	85.48	40-80
5	12	19	61.67	51.33	83.41	47-72
6	14	17	59.79	45.21	81.21	44-75
7	28	36	59.79	46.11	99.28	45-72
8	6	9	64.50	52.83	86.00	43-73
9	12	20	65.25	46.11	87.75	44-81
10	30	39	59.50	50.70	85.86	43-81
11	36	68	54.05	50.03	86.11	32-70
12	49	81	56.33	53.73	80.00	36-77
13	11	17	60.66	46.28	88.09	49-77
14	28	37	53.96	50.68	82.18	44-67
15	7	12	58.71	50.28	96.00	36-77
16	39	69	60.26	47.76	92.78	44-81
17	63	94	58.33	50.03	85.78	38-84
18	32	45	56.33	46.12	86.47	37-75
19	35	61	59.31	50.31	97.74	46-73
20	40	53	58.90	50.43	86.48	30-78
21	40	67	64.28	45.35	91.79	42-85
22	62	89	59.84	53.25	83.24	42-85
23	96	123	59.65	52.07	91.67	39-78
24	78	115	58.62	45.37	80.82	21-86
25	43	67	62.30	52.49	85.93	46-78

VITA

Theador Edward Jones
Candidate for the Degree of
Doctor of Education

Thesis: THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN BUREAUCRACY AND THE PUPIL
CONTROL IDEOLOGY OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS AND TEACHERS

Major Field: Educational Administration

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Maud, Oklahoma, October 22,
1937, the son of Mr. and Mrs. Eldon Lawrence Jones.

Education: Attended grade school in Barnsdall, Okla-
homa; graduated from Barnsdall High School, Barns-
dall, Oklahoma, in 1955; received the Bachelor of
Science degree from Fort Hays Kansas State College,
with a major in Physical Education, in May, 1962;
received the Master of Science degree from Kansas
State Teachers College, with a major in Secondary
School Administration, in May, 1967, completed
requirements for the Doctor of Education degree in
Educational Administration in August, 1969.

Professional Experience: Teacher of physical education,
driver education, and social science, Valley Falls
High School, Valley Falls, Kansas, 1962-1965; Man-
ager, Kendall Memorial Swimming Pool, Valley Falls,
Kansas, 1964-1965; Teacher of general science and
driver education, Centre High School, Lost Springs,
Kansas, 1965-1966; Graduate Assistant, Kansas
State Teachers College, 1966-1967; Graduate As-
sistant in the College of Education, Oklahoma
State University, 1967-1968; Superintendent of
Schools, Unified School District #338, Valley
Falls, Kansas, 1968-1969.