Comparative Analysis Of Selected Variables From Theory Z With The Traditional Public School Bureaucracy

Larry Ronald Moses

University of Nevada, Las Vegas

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COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF SELECTED VARIABLES
FROM THEORY Z WITH THE TRADITIONAL PUBLIC
SCHOOL BUREAUCRACY

By
Larry R. Moses

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Education
in
Educational Administration

Department of Educational Administration
University of Nevada, Las Vegas
April 29, 1983
The dissertation of Larry R. Moses for the degree of Doctor of Education in Educational Administration is approved.

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University of Nevada
Las Vegas, Nevada
April, 1983
ABSTRACT

COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF SELECTED VARIABLES FROM THEORY Z WITH THE TRADITIONAL PUBLIC SCHOOL BUREAUCRACY

by

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University of Nevada, Las Vegas

Major Professor: Dr. John R. Dettre

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Purpose

The purpose of the study was to seek to identify the nature of facilitators and barriers to the implementation of Theory Z in public school systems.

Study Procedure

This study compared two profiles of management activity using a common set of variables derived from an analysis of Theory Z as devised by William Ouchi. An item-by-item analysis was done in an effort to determine what facilitators and barriers, if any, exist in relation to the implementation of Theory Z. After analyzing each item, it was determined if the theoretical hypothesis as stated was
or was not supported. The procedures of investigating such potential educational concerns were as follows:

1. From the literature, a profile of Theory Z was developed.

2. From the literature, it was established that public school management is not Theory Z in style, but rather bureaucratic in nature.

3. The Clark County School District, Nevada, was used as an example of a school district where: a) business models have been borrowed, and b) bureaucratic characteristics are in evidence. Through the use of questionnaires and personal interviews, an attempt was made to determine what actually takes place in the Clark County School District in relationship to the eight selected characteristics of Theory Z. The purpose of the questionnaires and interviews was to describe current bureaucratic practices as a basis for comparison of profiles leading to the identity of barriers and facilitators that exist in the adaptation of Theory Z to the public schools.

4. From this comparison, conclusions about each of the eight theoretical hypotheses were drawn and acceptance or rejection of the main hypothesis was established.

Conclusions

Based on individual conclusions developed from the eight selected characteristics of Theory Z, the following main conclusions were drawn:

1. It was concluded that it is possible to incorporate some selected agents of Theory Z into public school management; and
2. It was concluded that there will be more barriers than facilitators in the typical bureaucratic public school setting when an attempt is made to incorporate selected characteristics of Theory Z into the public school setting.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

In an undertaking of this nature, there are always numerous individuals who have contributed to its completion. Running the risk of slighting some of those individuals, I would like to acknowledge the help of the following people. First, I would like to thank my entire committee who took the time to read and suggest changes to my paper. I especially want to thank Dr. Jack Dettre, who always had time to read and re-read my efforts. His suggestions were numerous and always of great value. Beyond this professional relationship, a friendship also developed, and it will always remain important to me.

A special thanks goes to my family who, for two years, forewent many of the special family events, making it possible for me to finish this program.
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Concern with leadership is as old as recorded history. Plato's *Republic* was an attempt to determine the proper education and training for political leaders. Through centuries of study, scholars who have explored the topic of effective leadership have come to accept the idea that it is basically a person-to-person relationship. The fact that man is a social animal has caused him to group with like human beings. Early leaders ruled by brute force or divine right, neither of which required much concern for the personal needs of the follower. Machiavelli's book, *The Prince*, was the handbook for this type of leadership. John Locke, the English philosopher adopted by America as early as the 1600's, expounded the social compact theory of organization in his work, *Two Treatises on Government*. The social compact theory requires the leader to become more responsive to the needs of the follower. The leader holds his position by the consent of the followers and the effectiveness of both depends on the behavior of the other (45, 1978, p. 2).

Leadership in the public schools has become more and more complex, as the public school system itself has become more intricate. The charisma of the small-school leader has evolved from the master-teacher to the manager of a complex business organization. This
evolution has given rise to the question: "Which form of managerial leadership best meets the needs of the modern educational organization?" In most recent years, the bureaucracy, as defined by Max Weber, has given rise to the dominant form of management in the public schools. The shortcomings of bureaucratic management have become a major issue in public school management throughout America.

While the study of group behavior has a long history, management as a concrete body of knowledge with some scientific underpinnings is less than a century old (21, 1973, p. 4). The Hewlett-Packard manual on management stated:

Perhaps there is no more important area of human activity than managing, for it is the basic task of all managers at all levels to design and maintain an environment in which individuals, working together in groups, accomplish selected objectives (70, 1978, p. 1).

All managers are engaged in the common processes of decision making, planning, organizing, leading and controlling, but the greatest task of the manager is to successfully deal with people. As post-Civil War industrial America was developing, the concern for production came to supersede the concern for the producer. The worker became merely another interchangeable cog, easily replaced by a similar cog, in the production process. This mistreatment of the worker was the driving force behind the works of Karl Marx. What Marx failed to see was that a re-evaluation of the worker's role could take place without the radical revolution he envisioned. Thomas Gordon has stated that a human relations revolution has begun in the American business world. People are demanding to be treated with respect and
dignity. There is a growing demand to have a strong voice in their own working lives. An understanding of human behavior and motivation is now essential to a manager's relationships with people both above and below him in the organization (21, 1973, p. 25).

People are the key element in any organization. Labor costs normally represent the largest input in any product or service. It is understandable, therefore, that most management concepts and practices are aimed at the better utilization of people (21, 1973, p. 5). This puts a premium on ability to motivate, communicate with, and influence employees effectively. It becomes imperative that a manager understands the people in his organization. The better he understands his people, the better chance the manager has of successfully applying the concepts and techniques that will affect the performance of people in a positive manner. The Hewlett-Packard company stressed the importance of people to their organization as follows:

People are our most important asset at H. P. The company has been built around the individual, the personal dignity of each, and the recognition of personal achievements. General policies and the attitude of managers toward their people are more important than specific details of the personnel program. Personnel relations will be good if people have faith in the motives and the integrity of their peers, supervisors, and the company itself (68, 1977, p. 21).

People identify with their place of employment for a number of reasons, most of which relate directly to their individual needs. These needs include the following:

1. Income for sustenance and for the physical needs to be satisfied in their outside activities.
2. An opportunity to apply their skills and training.
3. Social contacts.

Figure 1 illustrates Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs satisfaction, depicted in a pyramid model (72, 1974, pp. 299-302).

Figure 1. Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Satisfaction (72, 1974, pp. 299-302)
American corporations have been fairly successful in meeting the lower needs of the workers. However, much of the American labor force has sought gratification of their higher needs outside their place of employment. As American labor groups move away from a producer orientation toward a service function, the organization must begin to concentrate on the higher needs satisfaction of its workers. The day of the mindless assembly line worker is quickly disappearing from the American labor scene.

Compared to thirty years ago, only half as many young people in the United States are coming into the labor force with the schooling, expectations and skills that will lead them into traditional blue-collar work. The squeeze will become even tighter when the "baby bust" children of the sixties and seventies reach working age. Only one third as many potential blue-collar entrants will be available in the 1990's as were in 1950 (29, 1982, p. 93).

The better educated and more enlightened worker will seek to satisfy his upper needs once the struggle for lower needs satisfaction no longer is his major concern. When this happens, it is imperative that the organization offer the employee an opportunity to satisfy his upper needs within the place of employment. The desirability of satisfying these needs within the organization has made the merging of personal and organizational goals a necessity. If employees must seek gratification of upper-level personal needs outside the place of business, the business will lose the employee's greatest creativity and commitment. The successful manager will be the one able to convince his people that by achieving organizational goals, they can best satisfy their own personal needs. By effectively committing people to organizational goals, the organization
can avoid many of the problems encountered in the present-day work structure. When the employee finds company goals and personal goals are mutual, many of the problems which have characterized American industry can be treated. Rebelling against authority, job hopping, absenteeism, apathy, antagonism, and malicious mischief can be minimized when the laborer identifies with his place of work.

At the turn of the twentieth century, Frederick Taylor, working in the United States iron and steel industry, developed many of the principles that have been grouped together and called "scientific management." Taylor was convinced there was one best way to perform a given physical task, and it could be discovered by careful analysis and investigation (21, 1973, p. 4). Henri Fayol, a French contemporary of Taylor's, was also highly successful in his country's iron and steel industry. He is often called the "Father of Modern Management," because Fayol provided the framework that has dominated management thought since his time. Fayol distinguished between technical and managerial skills. Fayol's managerial skills include: planning, organizing, commanding, coordinating, and controlling. Since Fayol's time, management has been divided into sub-fields based on his "process approach." The process structure has dominated the development of management theory and knowledge. It has provided the most commonly used framework for explaining the activities involved in supervision and describing the scope and content of managerial responsibilities (21, 1973, p. 4). Fayol, like Taylor, wanted to develop principles on which the best
managerial decisions could be based. The initial work of both men started a seventy-year search for principles of general validity for all managers in all types of organizations.

Interest in empirical investigations of leadership styles dates back to the classical studies by Lewin and Leavitt (1938) on the effect of democratic, autocratic, and laissez-faire styles on the behavior of leaders in boys' clubs. These studies raised questions about the degree to which the leader should take major responsibility for the direction and administration of the group. The study also tried to determine the degree to which the leader should share planning and decision making with his associates (37, 1977, p. 12).

The management texts that began to appear in the 1940's and 1950's were patterned on Fayol's principles approach. In 1945, Alvin Brown went so far as to isolate ninety-six principles of organization. Since Max Weber's time, Western organizations, and particularly United States' organizations, have maintained the bureaucratic form as their distinctive feature. Weber observed that the principal source of inefficiency in administration stemmed from nepotism and favoritism. To curb the evils of nepotism and favoritism, Weber proposed an ideal form of organization which would separate people from one another, forcing them to be technically specialized and formally directed and evaluated in order to maintain an impersonal attitude in dealing with one another (84, 1981, p. 63).

Weber's bureaucratic model was originally designed to ensure organizational efficiency. However, the bureaucracy has evolved to an extreme in many instances and created evils of its own. We now
have bureaucratic organizations where people barely know, let alone care about, each other. This depersonalization and specialization has led to apathetic and unimaginative employees who seek upper-level gratification outside their work day.

In the 1960's, management practitioners, researchers, and writers began to challenge the assumptions underlying the classical approaches. This led to more recent attacks on the idea of set principles of management. For the manager, one problem is to discover in which situation and under what conditions a particular set of concepts or techniques will work best. There are no principles that can be applied across the board; there are, however, principles that can be selected according to the particular problem or situation at hand.

Since the 1970's, as American industry suffered from labor disputes, shoddy craftsmanship, and challenges from cheaper imported goods, American managers turned to a former student, the Japanese, for answers to these problems.

Japanese industry has been booming since World War II. While growing, Japanese industry has suffered very few of the ills besetting American business. As more business leaders became aware of Japanese success, American business managers began to dissect the principles of Japanese management. It was found that Japanese managers go to great lengths to involve employees in the life of the company. To a Japanese worker, his company is not an oppressor but rather the source of his income and the expression of his place in society. "Employees in Japan view their company as an extension of their

In Japanese industry, the workers trust their bosses to make the right decisions, because there is a sense that labor and management are working together. Managers rise from within the corporate ranks, adding to the feeling of camaraderie and shared experience. Yoich Takahasi, head of Hitachie's 70,000-strong labor union stated: "Everything depends on dialogue and trust. What is good for the company is good for the union. The workers know that their labor is what makes the company prosperous" (55, 1981, p. 59). Japanese leaders bring all members of society together before an important decision is made. Nothing gets done until the people involved agree. While this is often a tedious and sometimes interminable process, in the end, the group as a whole benefits, because all members are aligned behind the same goal.

One of the most important characteristics of Japanese organization is a willingness to achieve consensus by compromise. In a real sense, nearly everyone has at least some voice in running society. When Japanese characteristics are brought into the modern factory, the result is a smoothly functioning enterprise that produces quality goods. This is most clearly seen in the easy working relationship of management and labor. After touring automobile assembly lines in both countries, a visitor observed:

The American factory seems almost like an armed camp. Foremen stand guard to make sure workers do not slack off. Workers grumble at foremen, and foremen are cross with workers. In the Japanese factory, employees seem to work even without the foreman watching. Workers do not appear angry at superiors and actually seem to hope their company succeeds (111, 1979, p. 131).
Japan has fewer strikes and less labor unrest than any other major industrial power. In 1978, Japan lost 1.4 million work days due to strikes, while in the United States, 37 million work days were lost (55, 1981, p. 58). Vogel stated:

Some workers, especially younger workers in small plants, may be alienated from their company, but compared to Americans, they are absent less, strike less, and are willing to work overtime and refrain from using all their allotted vacation time without any immediate monetary benefit. The average Japanese laborer may accomplish no more than a loyal hard-working American counterpart in a comparable factory, but loyalty to the company is typically higher and hard work more common (111, 1979, p. 131).

At Toyota's main plant near Nagaya, management receives more than nine suggestions per year, per employee, and adopts a vast majority of these suggestions. Although General Motors actively recruits productive suggestions from employees and offers up to $10,000 for a proposal that is adopted, the company receives an average of less than one suggestion per year, per employee, and adopts one-third of the ideas (55, 1981, p. 59).

By studying Japanese management, American industry can develop new and, hopefully, effective ideas on management and the organization of people at work. The top management at General Motors did not assume that the Japanese management model could be superimposed in its entirety on an American industrial plant. However, in Flint, Michigan, they set out to incorporate many facets of Japanese management into one of their most unsuccessful operations to see if improvements could be made.
They took the Buick Final Assembly Plant, which had dropped to one of the lowest levels of efficiency and quality in the whole corporation, and with cooperation of workers and their union redesigned the management of that plant in ways that resemble the Japanese approach to management. Within two years, Buick Final Assembly had risen to rank number one among all General Motors assembly plants in quality and efficiency. The ideas that shaped the remaking of General Motors' troubled Buick plant are the basis of...Theory Z approach to management. Quite simply, it suggests that involved workers are the key to increased productivity (84, 1981, p. 4).

Vogel stated that the new philosophy incorporates concepts from modern Western management. Large companies such as IBM, Polaroid, and Kodak have a great deal in common with Japanese corporations. In each of these companies, there is attention to basic business strategy, to product life cycles, to market surveys and marketing strategy, to accounting, to economic models, to modern advertising, and to up-to-date information processing (111, 1979, p. 134).

Much modern industry is functioning under the principles of Management By Objective (MBO); however, some far-sighted corporations, Hewlett-Packard and General Motors among others, are moving beyond MBO to what Ouchi has called Theory Z. For purposes of contrast, one can compare the work of Douglas McGregor and his Theory X and Theory Y with the substance of Ouchi's Theory Z.

**THEORY X**
(Traditional)

1. Work is inherently distasteful to most people.
2. Most people are not ambitious, have little desire for responsibility, and prefer to be directed.

**THEORY Y**
(Transactionual)

1. Work is as natural as play, if the conditions are favorable.
2. Self-control is often indispensable in achieving organizational goals.
3. Most people have little capacity for creativity in solving organizational problems.

4. Motivation occurs only at the physiological and safety needs.

5. Most people must be closely controlled and often coerced to achieve organizational objectives.

3. The capacity for creativity in solving organizational problems is widely distributed in the population.

4. Motivation occurs at the social, esteem, and self-actualization levels, as well as physiological and security levels.

5. People can be self-directed and creative at work if properly motivated (53, 1977, p. 55).

Theory X has often been summarized as highly structured at best and dictatorial at its worst. Theory Y management has been called humane at best and permissive at its worst. By contrast, Ouchi felt the problems of management cannot be solved by either of these styles. He suggested what he calls Theory Z. Ouchi outlined the characteristics of a Theory Z corporation in his book by the same name. The characteristics of Theory Z that may have application to the public school setting, management of modern bureaucracies of which the public schools may be one, are reviewed below:

1. **Long-term employment (often life-time).** Employees tend to stay with the company, since many of their skills are specific to that one firm with the result that they could not readily find equally remunerative nor challenging work experience.

2. **Relatively slow process of evaluation and promotion.** A slow process of evaluation and promotion is vital to underscore the importance of long-term preformance. In Japan work is often based on five-, and sometimes ten-year programs (117, 1981, p. 55). At Matsushita, performance is often evaluated after a period of fifteen years of service (88, 1981, p. 81).

3. **Career paths that wander across functions.** Movement within the organization that would appear to be
horizontal on the organizational flow chart would suggest career paths that wander. This type of movement takes the administrator to the various departments of the organization rather than vertically through a specialized department of the organization.

4. Implicit and explicit controls are in effect, but implicit control is the overriding control factor. Implicit control suggests that expectations of behavior or output are not openly stated, but are to be deduced from a more general understanding of the corporate philosophy. Explicit control is enforced by clearly stated standards, rules, regulations and performance measures as the primary technique of ensuring that actual performance meets desired performance (83, 1980, p. 309).

5. Decisions are made collectively, but responsibility is individualistic. Under consensual decision making, the manager will not decide an issue until everyone to be affected by the decision have had sufficient time to offer their views, feel they have been fairly heard, and are willing to support the decision even though they may not feel that it is the best one (83, 1980, p. 308). The ultimate responsibility remains an individual concept. Due to cultural factors, it appears that the Japanese concept of collective responsibility would probably be difficult to instill in American organizations.

6. The Theory Z organization is wholistic in nature. The wholism of Theory Z is two-faceted: one deals with the individual and the other with the organization itself. A Theory Z organization deals with the individual as a whole creature; it participates in his social as well as his economic existence. In order for the whole organization to be effective, each unit must be effective in making its contribution to the whole and must understand its role in the overall organization. Theory Z suggests that humanized working conditions not only increase productivity and profits to the company but also the self-esteem of the employee.

7. Type Z companies are replete with the paraphernalia of modern information and accounting systems. Formal planning, management by objectives, and all the other formal, explicit mechanisms of control characterizing traditional corporations can be found
in the Theory Z companies; these mechanisms are
tended to carefully for their information, but
rarely dominate in major decisions.

8. A basic agreed-upon philosophy is the overriding
guide for organizational decisions. A corporate
philosophy states the goals and practices that a
community of employees is trying to enact. That
philosophy leads to the development of a large
number of smaller practices and is made up of con-
duct that becomes a corporate culture (84, 1981,
p. 159). The statement of philosophy is a very
general statement that provides each employee and
manager with a guide for decisions. As general as
the statement is, it should include: (1) the ob-
jectives of the organization; (2) the operating
procedures; and (3) the constraints placed on the
organization by its social and economic

The very fact that educational practitioners in formal
positions of authority have been called administrators reflects the
expectations which have historically accrued to such roles. In the
latter part of the nineteenth century, the administrator was viewed
as a master-teacher. In the early days of the twentieth century, the
school administrator became primarily a business manager. This
manager's primary concern was the operation of the school in an
economically efficient manner. Presently, the school manager is
being evaluated not only on the economic efficiency of his educational
unit, but also on the success his organization has in reaching the
goals set by society for its educational system.

Ronald Campbell and Russell Gregg, in their book, Administrative
Behavior, devote the entire second chapter of their study
to the growing complexity of the American school management scene.
If this growing complexity is a fact, the administrator needs to
draw on all input available to him. One of the greatest resources at hand for the school administrator is his local staff. As private industry takes a closer look at the concepts of Japanese management and begins to adopt selected principles of Theory Z organizations, history tells us the school systems of America will do the same. Such conversions will require leaders skilled in both interpersonal relations and the management mechanics so important in the past. A principal who operates from a Theory Z management model will have to consider interpersonal relationships as the critical administrative priority in a school. He will have to apply such techniques as participative decision making to improve these relationships. He will judge, to a degree, his effectiveness by positive changes in the morale of his staff. Unless school leaders are intelligent, compassionate, and warm people, neither educational leaders nor their schools will ever reach their full potential.

Statement of the Problem

Various management schemes such as Scientific Management, MBO, and PPBS have been developed in the business world and then adapted to the public schools. Each of these management models has had a degree of success. Now, because of major problems facing American business, a new concept, labeled Theory Z, by William Ouchi, has arrived on the American business scene. Theory Z is an attempt to adapt features characteristic of Japanese management to American business management. Given the historical development of school
management and its reliance on business practices, and given the fact that the newest innovation in business management is the Japanese management style, identified as Theory Z, the overall question becomes whether it is possible to incorporate Theory Z into the daily operation of the public schools.

Assuming attempts will be made to implement some or all portions of Theory Z management into the public schools, one major concern becomes what facilitators and barriers the adaptors are likely to encounter in making the transition from current management practices in the public school to a Theory Z management style. A number of problems and issues will arise in the search for the answer to these questions. For example, given the cultural differences and the existence of "cultural lag," what can be done to expedite the transformation? To what extent must other cultural changes occur before any serious consideration can be given to adapting work habits and outlook from an outside culture? In which ways and where is Theory Z compatible with the Puritan ethic in American Business? For school people, given the existing approaches to school management, what barriers and facilitators will those seeking to make changes encounter in the process of trying to transform the style of management used in American education? It is this last question and its practical consideration with which this study was concerned.

Hypotheses

Given the problem of adapting Theory Z management to public schools and the purpose of identifying facilitators and barriers to
making such a change, it was hypothesized that those attempting to make the change will encounter more barriers than facilitators in the selected elements wherein change is likely to be pursued.

In particular, the following eight hypotheses were presented:

1. Long-term employment of school personnel is neither a concern nor consideration of current school management.

2. Relatively slow evaluation and promotion are not characteristic of public school management.

3. Career paths do not tend to wander in the public school setting.

4. Implicit and explicit controls are in evidence in the public school management setting; however, explicit controls dominate.

5. Collective decision making and individualistic responsibility are not facets of public school management.

6. The public school setting is not wholistic in nature.

7. Management systems are not in place in the public school management scheme.

8. A basic agreed-upon philosophy is not the guiding principle for public school management.

Purpose of the Study

Given the problem as stated, it was the purpose of this study to seek to identify the nature of facilitators and barriers to the implementation of Theory Z in public school systems by means of a comparative analysis of selected characteristics of Theory Z management and selected characteristics of the bureaucracy as it exists in a representative public school system in this country.
Assumptions

Assumptions in the study were as follows:

1. It is assumed that the Clark County School District is typical of a large urban school district in the United States.

2. It is assumed that the trend of public school administration adapting business management principles to the management of schools will continue.

3. It is assumed that Theory Z management is sufficiently different from the bureaucracy to justify treating it as a different concept.

Delimitations

For the purpose of this study, the following delimitations were made:

1. A review of the current literature from selected published and unpublished works which discuss Japanese management in business and public schools will be made. This review will be limited to the period from 1960 to the present.

2. Facilitators and barriers identified will be consistent with and limited to those identified in the time period of September of 1981 through January of 1983.

3. Findings of this study are limited to the results obtained from a comparative analysis of Theory Z as
described by William Ouchi and current practices of the Clark County School District as a representative sample of a public school bureaucracy.

4. This study is limited to those features of Japanese management that are appropriate to public school management.

Definitions

Following are definitions of terms used in the study:

**Basic agreed-upon philosophy** - a broad statement that contemplates the proper relationship of the business to its employees, its owners, its customers, and to the public.

**Bureaucracy** - the administration of an organization through departments and subdivisions managed by sets of officials following an inflexible routine.

**Collective decision making** - the group is actively involved in the decision-making process on any issue that affects the group.

**Collective responsibility** - the group, rather than the leader, assumes the responsibility of the successes or failures within the group's area of expectation.

**Explicit control** - clearly stated; distinctly expressed; definite control methods.

**Implicit control** - suggested, understood though not plainly expressed; implied or naturally involved though not plainly apparent or expressed; essential control that is inherent within the organization.
**Long-term employment** - often lifetime commitment on both the part of the organization and the individual.

**Management** - the act, art, or manner of managing, or handling, controlling, and organizing a group.

**Management systems** - an explicit method of achieving and evaluating the progress of the organization (i.e., MBU).

**Scientific management** - using empirical data, "best" methods of performing each job are determined; standard times, rate, and equipment are employed; a clear division of responsibility between management and the worker. There is one best way to do each job in order to maximize worker output.

**Slow evaluation** - rather than evaluation semi-annually, evaluation comes on a four- or five-year basis, allowing it to be subjective.

**Slow promotion** - in relation to common American business practice of quick promotion within a year or two, promotion may take five to ten years.

**Wandering career paths** - all managers rotate through all areas of the business, a process of life-long job rotation for all employees.

**Wholistic concern** - broad concern for the welfare of subordinates and of co-workers as a natural part of a working relationship; relationships between people tend to deal with one another outwardly; maintaining a strong equalitarian atmosphere.
Procedures

This study compared two profiles of management activity using a common set of variables derived from an analysis of Theory Z as devised by William Ouchi. The eight selected characteristics are: (1) long-term employment, (2) slow evaluation and promotion, (3) wandering career paths, (4) the role of implicit and explicit control mechanisms, (5) the role of collective decision making and individual responsibility, (6) wholism, (7) the role of management systems, and (8) the role of a basic agreed-upon philosophy. This profile was developed from the current literature dealing with Theory Z and business administration, and was designated Profile Z. A second profile was developed involving corresponding facets of the bureaucratic model of management. This profile was developed from: (1) current literature on the bureaucracy, and (2) from questionnaires and personal interviews in a large public school system. The second profile was designated Profile B. An item-by-item analysis was done in an effort to determine what facilitators and barriers, if any, exist in relation to the implementation of Theory Z. After analyzing each item, it would be determined if the theoretical hypothesis, as stated, was or was not supported. The procedures of investigating such potential educational concerns were as follows:

1. From the literature, a profile of Theory Z was developed.

2. From the literature, it was established that public school management is not a Theory Z in style, but
rather a bureaucratic organization.

3. The Clark County School District was used as an example of a school district where: (1) business models have been borrowed, and (2) bureaucratic characteristics are in evidence. Through the use of questionnaires and personal interviews, an attempt was made to determine what actually takes place in the Clark County School District in relationship to the eight selected characteristics of Theory Z. The purposes of the questionnaires and interviews were to describe current bureaucratic practices as a basis for comparison of profiles leading to the identity of barriers and facilitators that exist in the adaptation of Theory Z to the public schools.

4. From this comparison, conclusions about each of the eight theoretical hypotheses were drawn and acceptance or rejection of the main hypothesis was established.

Organization of the Study

Chapter 1 is a presentation of the general background information pertinent to the topic under investigation, a statement of the problem studied, the purpose of the study, questions to be answered, assumptions, delimitations, a list of definitions, procedures employed in the project, and a description of the organizational design.
Chapter 2 will contain a review of the related literature consistent with the independent and dependent variables presented in the basic hypothesis. Chapter 2 will deal specifically with the sequential development of management. Historical survey techniques will be used to establish the proper place of Theory Z management in the evolution of styles in public school administration. The review will describe Theory Z as one solution to the many administrative shortcomings found in the present-day public school administration. Chapter 3 will outline the research design and procedures to be followed. Using Theory Z characteristics and the characteristics of the bureaucracy, Chapter 4 will profile, analyze, and report the findings of this study. Chapter 5 will summarize the findings, present conclusions, and offer recommendations for further study.
Chapter 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

In general, the purpose of administration is that of coordinating the efforts of people toward the achievement of organizational goals. The goals of education are to be found basically in the realms of teaching and learning. These goals were originally set and governed by laymen rather than professional educators. It was 1827 before school government was referred to as a distinct practice separate from general local government. School administration did not evolve as a recognized field of practice until the latter part of the nineteenth century. Scholars began to study school administration as a separate entity with merit of its own in the early twentieth century (20, 1962, pp. 68-69).

The growth of cities had a two-fold effect on the development of school administration, for it caused not only an increase in the population of the individual school but also in the population of the school district. Increased school size and the practice of classifying pupils by grade led to the need for an executive or principle teacher for each school. Quincy School in Boston (1847) was probably the first school to have a full-time executive. St. Louis placed all of its schools under the control of a full-time administrator in 1859.
(20, 1962, p. 70). The first cities to establish the office of Superintendent of Schools were Buffalo and Louisville in 1837, followed by St. Louis and Providence in 1839 (20, 1962, p. 69).

The early work of the principal was largely clerical in nature; however, as departmentalization came into vogue, the management function of the principal became more important.

The change in doctrine from that of the administrator as philosopher to that of administrator as business manager occurred within a few years. The immediate cause of the change was a wave of public criticism of the schools and the increased "vulnerability" of the administrator, which Callahan describes. Less immediate but additionally important reasons for the adoption of the new doctrine came to mind. First, perhaps the school really was more like a business enterprise or factory than it was like a church, to push the clergyman analogy. Second, the new doctrine justified administrative control over a wider variety of matters. In practice the extent of administrator control had been increasing, and there were social advantages in a doctrine which would support the increase. Third, the new doctrine allied the administrator with a high status group, the businessmen (18, 1971, p. 208).

As an area of systematic inquiry, educational administration developed later than business administration. In fact, many of the concepts relevant to the practice of educational administration had their origins in the field of business administration as well as in political science, psychology, and sociology (59, 1976, p. 45). As Thomas Sergiovanni has stated, school administration has relied heavily on the concepts developed in other areas, and finds its roots in many diverse disciplines (99, 1979, p. 13). In the last eighty years, business administration has been the major influence on the management of public schools, as educators have emulated much of what their counterparts in the business world were doing.
Richard Pascales and Anthony Athos have stated there is no reason to expect that old practices will prevail. The features of the present management styles in America make their continuation a foolish practice (88, 1981, p. 34).

Our managerial "set" is being challenged persistently on three fronts: First, we are challenged on the frontier of managerial practice, where even bigger doses of what we already do will yield diminishing returns. . . . Second, we are challenged by shifting values within our society which lead people to expect different things from organizations and to seek different meaning from work itself. And third, the competition is killing us (88, 1981, p. 25).

Until the 1960's, educational leaders succeeded because things were running well, and when this is true, an institution can run itself. The educational situation from the 1960's to the present has become far more complex, and the school leader must be able to adapt to the changing atmosphere of the modern school scene (11, 1977, p. 213). For Kenneth Berg, the major problem in education has been the lack of growth in the leader's ability to adapt to various situations. Berg attributes this inflexibility to the bureaucratic structure of most school organizations. David Wiles, Jon Wiles, and Joseph Bondi, in Practical Politics for School Administrators, agreed with Berg in stating that the inflexibility of the bureaucracy was a major problem for the public schools. These authors are concerned with a changing arena and the need for flexibility in school administration.

The school setting can be seen as an arena where individual actions can be studied, issue by issue, in a situational context . . . The arena stands in sharp contrast to the pure bureaucracy model of how schools operate. The arena perspective is also different from the consensus
oriented, small group view of school organizations... the bottom line is which explanation best captures the most dynamics of how decisions are actually made. The arena does not replace all aspects of the bureaucracy or the small group as explanations, but places them in a secondary or supporting context. The primary explanation of how decisions are made in local schools is the arena for bargaining (116, 1981, p. 4).

Thomas Gordon has stated that a human relations revolution has begun in American business. He felt that people are demanding to be treated with respect and dignity and to have some voice in their working lives (45, 1978, p. 8). People are the key element in any organization, and this puts a premium on the ability to motivate, communicate with, and influence employees effectively. The great Japanese industrial leader, Matsushita, believes that an organization is no better than the people in it (88, 1981, pp. 76-77). The better the manager understands his subordinates, the more effective he will be in accomplishing the organizational goals (21, 1973, p. 2). Peter Drucker spoke to the issue of the changing role of the worker and used the term "knowledge worker" to distinguish this new creature who requires a new type of management program (29, 1982, pp. 93-93).

It would seem clear that managers accomplish their work through other people, and their success depends on their ability to enlist and maintain their followers' commitment and collaboration for the attainment of organizational goals (97, 1974, p. 26). Theodore Kauss stated that the effectiveness with which an administrator discharges his duty depends in a large part on how his actions are perceived by his subordinates. Many administrative problems are due to poor interpersonal relations within the school (59, 197, p. 25). In the final
analysis, administrators make things happen through other people. Our school situations are growing more and more diverse, making it more difficult for one person to execute all the many and varied tasks identified as the responsibility of the administrator (61, 1972, pp. 12-13).

Astute observers have generally agreed that successful leadership is situationally centered (59, 1974, pp. 15-16). Situation-oriented research's assumed expectation that one leader will always be able to do everything better than anyone else is not realistic (97, 1974, p. 15). Berg stated that it appears that the successful leaders adapt their behavior to the demands of the situation at a particular moment a problem arises (11, 1977, p. 213).

The areas discussed in the previous paragraphs have plagued business and school leaders since the beginning of formal organizations. Man has been on a continual search for the "one-best-way" to manage. The following pages will review this search from 1900 to the present and will summarize the literature of management, both business and school. Ralph Kimbrough and Michael Nunnery divided school administration into three major eras: the Traditional 1900-1930's, the Transitional 1930's-1960's, and the Present Era 1960-1976 (60, 1976, p. 51). The review of literature will be completed with a discussion of Japanese management styles. While there may be no one best way to manage, this paper will suggest that Theory Z, as outlined by William Ouchi, will allow the flexibility necessary to adapt the organization to the varying management situations.
The Traditional Era - 1900-1930

"Efforts to develop a systematic conceptual base for administering complex organizations are relatively recent" (60, 1976, p. 51). Most scholars associate this effort with the industrial revolution that began as the nineteenth century closed. It was at this time that large corporations began to emerge as the dominant organizational form in American business society. Leland Jenks asserted that until this time, knowledge about solutions to management problems was transmitted by observation or word of mouth and had to be rediscovered by most new firms (56, 1960, p. 424). In the early 1900's, Frederick Taylor and Henri Fayol were developing the principles that became known as "Scientific Management."

Taylor, a highly respected engineer in the iron and steel industry of America, observed the work patterns of the employees and was struck by the haphazard and inconsistent sequences of methods used. He became convinced that there was "one best" way to perform any given task, and it could be discovered by analysis and experimentation. Taylor developed what he considered to be optimal motions, methods, and sequencing of tasks to maximize efficiency. His approach became known as Scientific Management (21, 1973, p. 4).

The essence of Taylor's position, and of others who wrote in the same vein, was that job analysis was to be used to determine each element of each job; using empirical data, "best" methods of performing each job were to be determined; standard times, rates, and equipment were to be employed; there was to be a clear division of responsibility between management and the workers. Obviously, the basis for such a point of view is that there is "one best way" to do each job in order to minimize worker output—an empirically determined, universal truth (60, 1976, p. 54).
The scientific principles expounded by Taylor are summarized as follows:

1. Time study.
2. Piece-meal rate.

Fayol, a French contemporary of Taylor's, also was associated with the iron and steel industry of his country and has been identified as the "Father of Modern Management." Fayol provided the framework that has dominated management thought since his time. He identified management skills in his book, Administration Industrielle et Generale, as consisting of planning, organizing, commanding, coordinating, and controlling (21, 1973, p. 4).

Fayol, like Taylor, wanted to develop principles on which the best managerial decisions could be based. He developed 14 of them. . . . According to Fayol, these were truths that all managers in all organizations should know, because they represented the best way to organize, plan, command, coordinate, and control the activities of subordinates . . . the now familiar principles of unity of command, unity of direction, the scalar chain, an emphasis on centralization and specialization, and a strong plea for order ("a place for everyone and everyone in his place") (21, 1973, p. 5).

Fayol qualified this statement with a plea for a need for flexibility and adaptivity; but those principles were lost in the writings of the champions of Scientific Management.

Luther Gullick adapted Fayol's ideas to the office of the President of the United States and came up with the acronym, POSDCORB: Planning, Organizing, Staffing, Directing, Coordinating, Reporting, and Budgeting.
[Gulick] reasoned that if work division was essential in organizations, coordination was mandatory. He advanced two interdependent ways for achieving coordination.

1. By organization, that is, by interrelating the subdivisions of work by allotting them to men who are placed in a structure of authority, so that work may be coordinated by orders of superiors to subordinates, reaching from the top to the bottom of the entire enterprise.

2. By dominance of an idea, that is, the development of intelligent singleness of purpose in the minds and wills of those who are working together as a group, so that each worker will of his own accord fit his task into the whole with skill and enthusiasm (48, 1937, p. 6).

Gulick offered a number of other ideas including span of control, unity of command, and a system of departmentalism. Gulick also offered four bases upon which an enterprise could be organized: by major purpose, by major process, by clientele or material, and by place (60, 1976, p. 57).

When the notions of a hierarchy of authority, span of control, and unity of command are taken collectively the result is a pyramidal-type organization. In this type of organization there is an integrated model of command; authority is lodged at the apex of the pyramid, and the lines of authority run directly from the top to the bottom of the organization (60, 1976, p. 56).

Thomas Sergiovanni, in "Rationale, Bureaucratic, Collegial and Political Views of the Principal's Role," explained that Scientific Management theories provided administrators with a rational model from which to work. Scientific Management assumes that the principal is capable of identifying objectives and determining the most effective and efficient means to reach them. Under Scientific Management, it is assumed that people are primarily motivated by economic and other
extrinsic incentives. Since people will do that which brings them the greatest extrinsic gain, workers are controlled by manipulating these incentives (99, 1979, p. 14).

Scientific Management has been divided into a number of sub-divisions. Michael Doctoroff, in his book, Synergistic Management, wrote of contrived controls, which are characteristic of Scientific Management systems. These systems were generated to mechanically overcome organizational barriers to conflict resolution and other shortcomings of organizations. According to Doctoroff:

Contrived control is a class of techniques which have been introduced to overcome natural resistance to change.

1. Some of the more successful are:
   a. GANTT
   b. PERT
   c. MBO (27, 1977, p. 22).

Doctoroff felt that none of these systems will provide the correct stimulation nor the balance necessary for successfully solving present-day management problems. Doctoroff stated that contrived control is used to insure the "right" amount of stimulation within the organization. He spent a large portion of his book's introduction outlining the GANTT technique, PERT system, and the principles of MBO.

The GANTT technique was invented by Henry Laurence Gantt (1861-1919), a contemporary of Frederick Taylor. It was developed for the United States government around 1917 and was first used during World War I by the Emergency Fleet Corporation (27, 1977, p. 22). The key tool was a visual chart on which future time was displayed horizontally and tasks to be completed were listed vertically. Anyone looking at the chart could, without difficulty, determine the relative
progress being made on each subtask. Figure 2 illustrates an example of the GANTT chart.

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**Key**

- Planned start of an operation.
- Planned completion of an operation
- Progress is shown by the length of the heavy lines.
- When the heavy line extends over an entire bracket, the operation is completed; absence of a heavy line indicates no progress.

Figure 2. Typical Example of GANTT Planning Chart (27, 1977, p. 22)

The GANTT technique reflected the functional needs of the organization at the time. Companies were less complex in World War I America when leaders were more easily identified. The brilliance of the GANTT technique is that it brings the organizational objectives to the attention of the working people and provides the stimulation
for developing creative solutions. Compared to today's standards, the rate of change was relatively slow, and the organization's need to respond to change was correspondingly less pressing than today (27, 1977, p. 24).

The Traditional theorists represent the first effort to move to a type of administration based on an organized body of knowledge. Kimbrough listed a number of shortcomings associated with Scientific Management:

1. The split between policy development and policy execution was unrealistic.
2. It gives inadequate attention to people and assumes they function from only economic motives.
3. The theory does not take into account the impact of forces in the environment on the organization.
4. The principles are too vague and lack internal consistency (60, 1976, pp. 59-61).

Under Scientific Management, the school was viewed as a well-oiled machine able to rationally organize human talents for the production of services. The attention of administrators in this model was on discovering the most rational structures and the most efficient work routines for achieving their goals. It was assumed that all aspects of the organization could be defined and organized into a permanent impersonal design (99, 1979, p. 14).

While business organizations were developing along the lines of Scientific Management, the public schools were also adapting to similar management practices. Around 1905, school administration became identified as a management process not unlike that in a business. Like a business, schools were to operate at maximum efficiency for minimum cost. The child was the raw material and the
end product; the teacher was the worker; and the school was the factory
(18, 1971, p. 207). From 1905 to 1930, Frank Spaulding and Franklin
Bobbitt led school organizations toward the Scientific Management
methods of Taylor. Ellwood Cubberly, who appeared on the scene a
short time later, became the most widely read Taylorite.

The early textbooks in educational administration
written by Cubberly, Strayer, Reeder, and others may not
have followed Taylor as faithfully as did Bobbitt, but
their approach was essentially that of job analysis.
Reeder's extensively used textbook, for instance, con­
tained chapters on selection of teachers, school budget
making, the school janitor and his work, school supply
administration, measurement of pupil's achievements and
abilities, making and using curriculum, and school
accounting (20, 1962, p. 72).

In an earlier work, Campbell stated that between the years 1910 and
1915, school managers came to accept the idea of governing by
scientific principles (20, 1957, p. 5).

While old-line educators felt that scientific principles were
not applicable to education, some of the notions advanced by Taylor
and others began to appear in educational organizations. Some "modern"
educators began to champion the principles of Taylorism. Those edu­
cational administrators working in large urban school districts were
especially intrigued by the possibility of adapting scientific
principles to education. Several notions of the traditional era were
modified and applied to education.

The development and use of pupil achievement and
aptitude tests and of school surveys were products of
the era. In most educational organizations with any
degree of complexity, job analysis with resulting job
specifications and descriptions were fully
institutionalized (60, 1976, p. 88).
Cubberly's 1916 characterization of the superintendent is illustrative of the effect of scientific management on American public school administration.

... the organizer and director of the workers of the schools in all their different phases... the executive officer of the school board, and also its eyes, ears, and brains... the supervisor of the instruction in the schools, and also the leader, advisor inspirer, and friend of the teachers (60, 1976, p. 88).

At one point, curriculum experts advocated the development of curriculum on the basis of "activity analysis," a modified version of job analysis. Kimbrough stated the demise of the one-room school house saw the application of the subdivision of labor applied to the schools. This division represents "organization by process."

... the concept of administrative process is derived from Fayol's "elements of management." The concept which Campbell and associates define as "the way by which an organization makes decisions and takes action to achieve its goals" has been given considerable attention by educational administration scholars. Sears was the first to give detailed attention to the concept, and he frankly admitted his reliance on Fayol, among others (60, 1976, p. 91).

The earliest programs for preparing school administrators stressed the "scientific principles" that were being practiced in private industry. New administrators were taught the "best" methods and techniques for dealing with issues associated with school management (60, 1976, p. 101).

The Transitional Era - 1930-1960

The era Kimbrough has labeled "transitional" consisted of two independent management movements. These two were taking place at the
same time. The first was carried on at an intellectual level and was called "democratic." The other was adopted by the practicing administrators and has become known as the bureaucracy. While administrative theorists like Elton Mayo and Mary Parker Follett were championing democratic management styles, private and public practitioners were adopting Weber's bureaucracy.

Even as the practicing administrators implanted the idea of the bureaucracy, they read and spoke of the value of democratic management. The genesis of the democratic facet of the Transitional Era is to be found in the writings of Follett and the empirical work of Mayo and his associates.

As a result of these illumination experiments, between 1927 and 1932, under the direction of Elton Mayo, the now famous "Hawthorne Studies" were conducted. These studies encompassed three different inquiries: 1) the observations of six girls making telephone assemblies (the relay-assembly testroom experiment); 2) interviews with over 21,000 workers during a three year period (interview program); 3) the observation of a fourteen member male work group (the bankwiring observation room study). In the relay-assembly experiments, production increased regardless of the modifications made in the physical working conditions. This led to the hypothesis that a changed human relations had occurred concurrent with the increased production.

...social and psychological factors were seen as critical in worker motivation (60, 1976, p. 62).

The concern for people and their job satisfaction was central to the thought of Mayo and his Hawthorne Study. Follett's basic theme was that any enduring society or organization must be based on a recognition of the motivating desires of the individual and of the group and that all organizational problems were fundamentally human relations problems (60, 1976, p. 63).
Abraham Maslow's studies became an integral part of the late Transitional Era.

The influence of Maslow's hierarchy of needs seems apparent in the work of McGregor, who advanced Theory Y as an alternative to Theory X. McGregor noted that a satisfied need is not a motivation of behavior, a fact ignored by Theory X. He further suggested that the typical industrial enterprise provided reasonably well for the fulfillment of physiological and safety needs, but offered few opportunities for lower level employees to satisfy their "egotistic needs." Because satisfied need is not a motivator and organizations have done relatively well in regard to physiological and safety needs, management must shift its focus to social and egotistic needs. Failure to do so will result in under-utilization of human potential (60, 1976, p. 67).

The writings of Chris Argyis and Douglas McGregor championed humanistic management styles. McGregor argued that there was a need to develop forms of control consistent with the view that man does not inherently dislike work, will exercise self-control, and under proper conditions has the capacity for creativity and seeks responsibility (60, 1976, p. 70). The aim was to offer an alternative to the traditionalists' notion of authority from the top to the bottom.

Amitoif Etzioni went so far as to suggest that in professional organizations, the traditional line-staff organization should be reversed. Chester Barnard's classic book, The Functions of the Executive (1938), expounded the idea that organizational authority is dependent upon its acceptance by the worker.

In the 1930's and 1940's, while management theorists were urging administrators to include subordinates in making decisions which affected their working life and terms like "group decision making," "democratic leadership," "participatory democracy," and
"collegiality" were bantered back and forth among intellectuals, the second form of organization, the bureaucracy, was quietly growing and solidifying itself, especially in public administration. Joseph Sarthory evaluated this early democratic movement as manipulative rather than as a true democratic form of management (97, 1974, p. 29).

Sergiovanni saw the 1940's as being characterized by the growth of bureaucracy, as the translation of Max Weber's work first appeared in the United States. Weber proposed what he considered an idealized form of management system that has become known as the bureaucracy.

The aim was to develop a design to enable the objectives of the organization to be accomplished with minimum expenditure of human and fiscal resources. The resulting design came to be known as a bureaucracy. The bureaucratic model in its original form was proposed by Max Weber (1864-1920), a German sociologist. Weber, who saw a bureaucratic organization as a part of a total social theory, felt it was a form of organization that could find expression in governmental, industrial, religious and scientific organizations (60, 1976, p. 54).

The bureaucracy, since its introduction in the 1940's, has become the standard form of organizational structure in American industry, both private and public. For twenty years or more, the value of the bureaucracy was assumed. However, its shortcomings are now being challenged on a large scale. Max Weber's theory of bureaucracy was first published in Germany in 1921 (50, 1979, pp. 24-25). In the 1940's, with its translation into English, Weber's theory became the backbone of American industrial organizations (99, 1979, p. 14). Kimbrough, in his book, Educational Administration: An Introduction, used this quote from Weber to explain the purpose of Weber's theory.
The purely bureaucratic type of administrative organization—that is, the monocratic variety of bureaucracy—is, from a purely technical point of view, capable of attaining the highest degree of efficiency and in that sense formally 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 (60, 1976, p. 54).

William Ouchi stated that Weber observed the principal source of inefficiency in administration stemmed from nepotism and favoritism. Weber felt that rational decision making was clouded by social relationships. Weber proposed the ideal form of organization would separate people from one another. This separation would force people to make decisions rationally within the boundary of formal technical structure, rather than on the basis of personality (84, 1981, p. 63). Ouchi also found that

... all the characteristics of the American form of organization intertwine and actually support one another. The paths comprise a system which closely resembles a form first described by the sociologist Max Weber as the bureaucratic organization (84, 1981, p. 62).

The term "bureaucracy" was originally designed to describe an organizational system which it was hoped would maximize efficiency. In Weber's analysis, a bureaucracy encompasses many different elements. Various men have studied Weber and have attempted to narrow down his basic principles. Peter Blau suggested as few as four basic principles as the foundation of the bureaucracy. Mark Hanson used the following five characteristics as an operational base to discuss the bureaucracy: (1) Hierarchical Structure, (2) Division of Labor, (3) Control by Rules, (4) Impersonal Relationships, and (5) Career Orientation (50, 1979, p. 22).
Hanson described Hierarchical Structure as: "Authority in an organization is distributed in a pyramid configuration; each official is responsible for his or her subordinate's actions and decisions (50, 1979, p. 22). Kimbrough stated that the hierarchy serves to legalize the authority of the individual holding the higher position in the structure (60, 1976, p. 55). According to Pascales and Athos, in their book, The Art of Japanese Management, Barnard argued that employees delegate upward to management the responsibility for decision making, and this adds legitimacy to the need for those above to command those below in the hierarchy. In the case of emergencies, those below expect those above to take whatever actions necessary to protect the existence of the organization. In times when the existence of the organization is in danger, "excessive" use of position authority is often accepted by those at the bottom of the hierarchical pyramid.

Success is measured by one's movement upward in the hierarchy. Pay schedules are structured to reflect the importance assigned to positioning in the hierarchical structure. One of the few hierarchical structures where this does not hold completely true is the American military. There, the highest ranking non-commissioned officers often are held in greater esteem and are higher paid than the lowest ranking officers.

All formal organizations must have a hierarchy, but the presence of such a mechanism, with its assumptions of rationality, has numerous unintended consequences. As Max Abbott points out, the hierarchy can defer the process of change. In a hierarchy with five levels, for example, there are at least four people who can veto a good idea coming from the lowest level (which of course is nearest to the problem at hand) (50, 1979, p. 29).
DIVISION OF LABOR: Because the varied tasks to be performed in an organization are too complex for everyone to learn with equal competence, greater efficiency results when tasks are divided into specialty areas and individuals are assigned to tasks according to their training, skill, and experience (50, 1979, p. 22).

Employment and position assignments are made on the basis of the individual having the technical competence to meet the special demands of a single task of the organization. A segmented concern develops, due to the fact that concern for the whole person presents an impossible problem to an organization with a high rate of turnover. Division of labor reduces interdependence between individuals, avoiding the start-up costs of replacing one part of a team (85, 1978, pp. 309-310).

Hanson described Control by Rules as: "Official decisions and actions are directed by codified rules, thus assuring a uniformity, predictability, and stability" (50, 1979, p. 22). Kimbrough and Nunnery stated that rationality underguards a bureaucratic organization.

A system of organizational rules and consistent application of them in particular instances insures a high degree of predictable behavior and conformity with prescribed patterns of behavior. Such rules, intentionally established and recorded in writing, define responsibilities and relationships among several offices, protect subordinates from arbitrary acts of superiors, and generally serve to enhance rationality and reduce friction within the organization (60, 1976, p. 55).

Hanson described Impersonal Relationship as: "Control over people and activities in an organization can be more effectively established if purely personal, emotional and irrational elements are eliminated" (50, 1979, p. 22). An individual does not have to
consider the effect of decisions on separate individuals, rather they can make decisions based on rules and regulations established by the organization.

CAREER ORIENTATION: Employment is based on expertise, promotion is given according to seniority and/or merit, salary is tied to rank in the hierarchy, the individual is always free to resign, and retirement provisions exist (50, 1979, p. 22).

The bureaucracy is concerned with the career employees, especially once the employee moves into the management process.

Since the translation of Weber's work, the United States' industrial organizations have maintained the bureaucratic form as their distinctive feature and the public schools have followed suit. As schools grew in size and complexity, they assumed the characteristics of the bureaucracy (60, 1976, p. 91).

The conventional wisdom of most researchers and writers seems to suggest that the school is best described and analyzed within the classical bureaucratic framework. Clearly, the public school has many characteristics that suggest it is managed according to derivatives of classical bureaucratic theory. For example, the school maintains a well defined hierarchy of authority (teacher to principal to superintendent): power is centralized in the role of the superintendent; rules stipulate expected and prohibited behavior (education code, district policy, school handbook); a specific division of labor exists (English teachers, history teachers, counselors, aides); positions require university diplomas and state certificates; and a precisely defined work flow is established (first to second to third grade) (50, 1979, p. 113).

The prevailing organizational structure found in local school districts represents a kind of integrated hierarchy of authority, which appears to be rational. These structures are bureaucratic in their use of statutes, ordinances, policies, and the like (60, 1976, p. 89).
Edward Dean, in his 1975 paper for Kappa Delta Pi, stated that historically, schools have been operated from the "top downward" (26, 1975, p. 52). In school districts of any significant size, the line-staff system is usually present. While Hanson agreed that the school districts are basically bureaucratic, he felt there are limits to its bureaucratic nature.

The bureaucratic model with its emphasis on centralized decision making and rationally defined structures is correct when applied to schools, but only to a point. Elements alien to the classical model are present in the governance process of the school because of the presence of employees who have a professional orientation. The instructional mission of the school becomes the organizing force of the professionalism of the teachers. The need for efficient resources allocations and rational planning procedures becomes the organizing force for the administrators. A picture of two very different sources of organizational control in the school then emerges (50, 1979, p. 113).

In the schools some decisions are delegated and others are maintained in a central location.

For example, central office personnel must maintain control over the district budget. If each school principal were delegated the authority to hire the number of teachers he or she wanted in the classroom or were delegated the authority to purchase any equipment desired, the result would be fiscal anarchy and administrative chaos (50, 1979, p. 35).

In the years immediately following World War I, administrative development in the public schools saw three management philosophies being expounded. The first came from the writings of Follett who was attempting to develop a broad social philosophy of administration designed to fit the American climate of the first half of the twentieth century. Follett drew upon and attempted to integrate the views of industrial and scientific management, individual psychology,
the psychology of work relations, political science, and public administration. The second was a short-lived trend to emphasize the problem of conceptualizing design and structure in formal organizations. The third development created in the 1940's had as its primary emphasis the area of interpersonal and small group relations (19, 1957, p. 102).

In the 1930's as the Great Depression deepened, the dictatorial businessman lost his position of predominance in the American social structure. The rise of European dictators began to threaten the social and political structure of America and, as business theorists turned to talk of democracy within their organizations, school administration theorists also took up the cry for democracy in administration. Since schools were designed to serve democracy, it would seem only reasonable that they would be organized democratically. Decisions were to be made by all those involved in the process (18, 1971, pp. 208-209).

Many school officials, especially those outside the large city districts, had little preparation and generally lacked knowledge of scientific management principles, which made it easier for the human-relations-behavioral science movement to affect educational administration.

There were efforts to democratize the practice of educational administration. . . . there was a growing emphasis on the utilization of concepts from anthropology, psychology, sociology, and the behavioral elements of economics and political science (when considered collective, the term social science was frequently used) for the study and practice of educational administration (60, 1976, p. 93).
From the 1930's to the mid-1950's, educational meetings, journal articles, and textbooks centered on the principles of democratic administration. Harold Spears stated that no subject got more attention in the twenty-year period encompassing the 1930's and 1940's of American administration. The influence of the Transitional-Era scholars began in the 1930's with education writers urging democracy in educational administration (60, 1976, p. 94).

Another theme of these advocates of democratic administration was the need for the school executive to satisfy the psychological, as well as the economic, needs of the teacher and other school employees. The works of Maslow began to influence education leaders. In the early days of this era, preparation programs began to pay less attention to the scientific principles of management.

While theorists spoke of the high ideals of democracy, the practitioner nodded in agreement and went ahead developing its antithesis, the bureaucracy. The college professor encouraged prospective administrators to be humanistic, democratic, people-oriented managers, and the large urban school district was busily entrenching Weber's bureaucracy as the characteristic mode of day-to-day operation within the school districts of America. In school districts of any significant size, the characteristics of the bureaucracy appeared: line-staff, hierarchy of authority, statutes, ordinances, policies, and the like (60, 1976, p. 89).
The Present Era - 1960-1980

In the 1960's, it became more common for management practitioners, researchers, and writers to challenge the assumptions underlying the classical approaches (21, 1973, p. 5). In education, a neo-scientific method emerged as the public school administrators once again turned to private industry for patterns of management.

Earlier Scientific Management has emerged into a new, more sophisticated form. In education this neo-scientific management offers such "new" ideas as performance contracting, behavior objectives, state and national assessment, cost benefit analysis, (MBO) Management By Objectives, Planning Programming Budget Systems (PPBS), Management Information System (MIS) and others, each prescribed to maximize educational reliability and productivity at decreased costs. Neo-Scientific management's reliance on norms of rationality increases as it pursues accountability, control, and efficiency, and seeks greater reliability in the organization and operation of schools (99, 1979, p. 13).

This approach has been identified as a systems approach to management and has usually been super-imposed on the bureaucracy already in operation.

The general system-social era focuses on unifying principles that serve to integrate knowledge and understanding from many diverse fields. It places major emphasis on an analytical approach. Its foundation is in the efforts of scholars from many fields, including the behavioral and social scientists, who made major contributions to the Transitional Era. It represents a logical refinement of some of the key ideas of the human relations - behavioral science era. In fact, some have suggested that as applied to theories of administration and organization, the systems era combines the better ideas from the Traditional and Transitional Eras (60, 1976, p. 77).

One of the earliest systems approaches of this period was PERT, the Program Evaluation Review Technique, which like the GANTT
technique, was first introduced by the United States Government and was the next step in a systems form of management. In 1958, the Special Project Office of the United States Navy, concerned with the execution of large military development programs, introduced PERT for its Polaris weapons system (27, 1977, pp. 24-25). PERT was designed as an aid in identifying and concentrating on the objectives of the organization. Figure 3, which follows, illustrates PERT and its key. The chores to be completed are encircled, with the lines between representing the amount of time that should be required to complete the task. Three numbers are given; they represent a pessimistic, an optimistic, and a most likely estimate. Doctoroff felt that the value of PERT is that it more realistically dealt with the increased complexity of society and business, which makes exact times impossible. The system also shows relationships between different tasks. PERT will also indicate if one task must be completed before another can be started (27, 1977, p. 25). Since the system is numerically based and focused on the sequential order of tasks, it is easily adaptable to the computer, and most practitioners of PERT make use of modern data-processing aids. It is an easy matter to subject a program to statistical analysis and calculate the amount of variance that may be expected for the predicted values. In Doctoroff's study, it was found that PERT began to lose its popularity in the early 1970's. The loss of favor was due to the fact that corporations grew more and more complex and opaque in the 1960's. This complexity made it increasingly difficult for PERT to meet the needs of the organization (27, 1977, p. 27).
1. Solid lines indicate the number of weeks required to complete a task. Three numbers are given, representing an optimistic (first number), most likely (second number corresponding to time shown on GANTT chart), and pessimistic (third number) estimate.

2. The broken line shows the critical path (activities that must be completed in the sequence and within the time limits shown). Tasks not on the critical path must be completed before the next task on the critical path is undertaken; within that limit, management can use discretion as to the exact scheduling of such tasks.

Figure 3. Simplified PERT Diagram (27, 1977, p. 26)
An administrator accepting the systems approach will be goal-oriented, situationally aware, and will understand group dynamics. One of the most common systems approaches in operation today is Management By Objectives (MBO). The public school administrator has incorporated MBO without destroying the bureaucracy, which has become an integral part of public school administration.

Ouchi found that every major company and government bureau devotes a large portion of its time to the setting of specific and measurable performance goals. If this is a valid evaluation of time usage, it is only logical that these organizations will determine their success based on how well they meet these objectives. Drucker and McGregor are credited with developing the principles of Management By Objectives. Ouchi found that MBO has joined programming, planning, evaluation, and cost-benefit analysis as one of the basic tools of American management (84, 1981, p. 40). The current formulation of MBO is most often credited to Drucker who, in 1964, suggested that managers should be held accountable for results rather than processes. Doctoroff found that the principles of MBO were further developed by management practitioners, who derived inspiration from the 1965 writings of Odiorne.

Doctoroff listed the following four features that he found common to all variants of MBO:

1. Objectives are established for each position in the hierarchy.
2. Objectives are established jointly by the superior and the subordinate in an objective session.
   a. Superior may set all the objectives with subordinate in attendance.
b. Subordinate may set all the objectives with the superior in attendance.

c. An outside expert may be consulted to establish objectives to be met by both subordinate and superior.

(It is this feature of MBO that is new and distinguishes it from earlier systems.)

3. The objectives of one group must be linked to those of other groups.

4. There is an emphasis on measurement and control of the objectives that are selected.
   a. The feature implies the need for periodic reviews of objectives and a mechanism for allowing regular redrafting.
   b. This aspect of MBO truly goes beyond GANTT and PERT techniques.
   c. It recognizes the need to respond and change and provides a mechanical procedure for dealing with it (27, 1977, p. 28).

Doctoroff summed up his review of contrived control systems by stating that the GANTT technique was developed when production was the prime focus of industrial efforts. When research and development became the key to organizational success, PERT replaced the GANTT technique. As organization became more complicated and results became the target of appraisal, MBO began to dominate organizational management. MBO can be used in many new ways, the most popular of which includes improved corporate communications and control, qualification of the organization's goals, well-structured planning systems, a vehicle for team building, and a system of performance review (27, 1977, p. 29).

S. J. Knezevich, in his study, "MBO: Its Meaning and Application to Education Administration," offered a model of the operation of an MBO system. In his model, Knezevich added the aspect of human relations to the principles of MBO. The emphasis is placed on what Knezevich called PMBO. PMBO's number-one concern is the
manager of the organization. Figure 4 illustrates the General MBO Model.

Drucker also stressed the immense importance of the manager, for Drucker felt they are a basic resource of every corporation. Not
only is the manager a basic resource, he is one of the scarcest and most expensive of all the resources in a business enterprise.

Sergiovanni stated that in any mechanistic model, the school is viewed as a well-oiled machine moving toward pre-determined goals. The role of the administrator is to discover the most rational structure and the most efficient work routines for achieving these goals (99, 1979, p. 14). However, neither neo-scientific management nor bureaucratic thinking gives adequate attention to the human side of life in educational organizations. Such issues as individual personality, motivation, and morale seem clearly secondary in a contrived control system. This neglect of individual needs has caused many of the major problems that exist today between management and labor. As American workers developed into what Drucker classified as "knowledge workers," they have demanded that their work experience satisfy a far greater variety of their needs. As Japanese industrial leaders took ideas from American business leaders after World War II, American are now turning to their former students for management instruction.

Japanese institutions provide a particularly illuminating mirror for America for several reasons:
1. Japan consciously examined and restructured all traditional institutions on the basis of rational consideration.
2. Japan is the only non-Western, fully industrialized democratic country.
3. Japan has confronted many of the problems confronting America for the first time today.
4. Japanese institutions have been extraordinarily successful (111, 1979, pp. 4-8).
Among the earliest theorists to apply systems concepts to educational administration were Getzels and Guba, as they set out to develop a model picturing administration as a structure of a hierarchy of superordinate-subordinate relationships within a conceptualized social system. Figure 5 illustrates their Nomothetic Dimension Model.

\[
\text{Institution} \rightarrow \text{Role} \rightarrow \text{Expectation} \\
\text{Social System} \rightarrow \text{Observed Behavior} \\
\text{Individual} \rightarrow \text{Personality} \rightarrow \text{Need Disposition}
\]

Figure 5. Getzels-Guba Model of Nomothetic Dimension (60, 1976, p. 104)

In addition to the model of Getzels and associates, several other systems-type models have been created. These models can serve as a source of hypotheses to guide the study of educational administration. The better known models include the works of Homan, Stodgill, and Halpin. The systems-oriented administrators approach events with the conviction that there are general principles that usually can be applied to the specific problem at hand. As the organization increases in complexity, the more numerous will be the range of activities of each. One can apply this to schools, for as a school district grows in size and complexity, there will be an increase in demands and an increasing number of units (60, 1976, p. 112).
Ouchi's book, *Theory Z*, is an overview of Japanese management practices and an attempt to identify which of those practices are adaptable to American industry. Ouchi outlined the difference between Japanese and American industry as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>JAPANESE</th>
<th>AMERICAN</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lifetime Employment</td>
<td>Short-term Employment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slow Evaluation and Promotion</td>
<td>Rapid Evaluation and Promotion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Specialized Career Paths</td>
<td>Specialized Career Paths</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Implicit Control Mechanisms</td>
<td>Explicit Control Mechanisms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collective Decision Making</td>
<td>Individual Decision Making</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collective Responsibility</td>
<td>Individual Responsibility</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The close relationship between the Japanese worker and company is intimately connected with the country's system of lifetime employment, which covers thirty-five percent of the labor force. Japanese companies provide extensive social services for their employees. Much of the employee's life outside work is spent in company social clubs [55, 1981, p. 59]. In Japanese industry, Ouchi found that virtually every department has someone who knows the people, the problems, and the procedures of all other areas within the organization; thus, when coordination is necessary, both sides will be able to understand and cooperate with others [55, 1981, p. 31]. Naboru Yoshi, a senior advisor with the Sony Corporation, said: "We do not call our employees workers or laborers but associates instead" [55, 1981, p. 59].
One of the most publicized features of Japanese organizations is the participative approach to decision making.

When an important decision is made in a Japanese organization, everyone who will feel its impact is involved in making it... will often mean sixty to eighty people and, each time a significant modification arises, contacting all the people involved again. The team will repeat this process until a true consensus has been achieved. Making a decision... takes a very long time, but once a decision is reached, everyone affected by it will be likely to support it (84, 1981, p. 44).

Pascales and Athos dealt with two key facets of decision making: the degree of agreement among people and the extent of knowledge as to whether the decision will produce the desired result. The authors further stated that when the two are in agreement, there is little problem in unilateral decision making. However, where either ingredient is lacking, there is a great need for a more consultative, as compared with an autocratic, decision-making process. "When disagreement exists and the basis for making a sound decision is highly uncertain, highly consultative type decisions are called for (88, 1981, p. 82).

Western-style participative decision making is by now a fairly standardized process. Typically, a small group of not more than eight or ten people will gather around a table, discuss the problem, and suggest tentative solutions. Abrahamson defined participation as involvement of employees in decision making on different levels in an organization (2, 1977, p. 186). To achieve consensus, he recommended an emphasis on the need for less fractionalization of work and a greater involvement in and influence by workers over their work
situation (2, 1977, p. 193). Ouchi stated that a group has reached consensus when it finally agrees upon a single alternative and when each member of the group can honestly say three things:

1. I believe that you understand my point of view.
2. I believe that I understand your point of view.
3. Whether or not I prefer this decision, I will support it, because it was arrived at in an open and fair manner (84, 1981, p. 43).

For Fred Fielder, leadership effectiveness should be evaluated in terms of the group's performance in relation to its primary task, even though the group's output is not entirely within the immediate physical control of the leader (37, 1977, p. 9). Rick Bardellini, in his pamphlet, "Leadership Makes the Difference," explained that participative management assumes that people are responsible, want to do a good job, and should participate in the decisions that make the organization function; this can be thought of as management by involvement. Pascales and Athos stated that people, generally speaking, want to identify with their organization and want to trust and depend on those with whom they work. Ouchi dealt with this issue in the following paragraph.

The hierarchy of work, somewhat relaxed in this setting, gives people the opportunity to interact more as equals, or at least without the familiar hierarchical roles. Technicians can express their willingness to regard foremen as regular people rather than supervisors to be suspected. Managers show subordinates their acceptance of them as equals, as whole human beings (84, 1981, pp. 80-81).

Kenneth Fallon spoke of democratic decision making as requiring the consultation of all segments of the staff affected by the decision. Fallon believed that employees who participate in this management style
feel more highly motivated and tend to incorporate the organization's goals more readily than do employees working in organizations that are autocratic or consultative in nature (35, 1974, p. 556). Howard Carlisle believed Fallon's assumption to be correct, as evidenced below:

The premise is that if individuals are permitted to function more on their own, they will take more responsibility for their work and derive greater feelings of recognition and self-satisfaction from what they do. The appeal is to the psychological need of applying personal skills to activities that are significant to the work of the organization (21, 1973, p. 131).

Another key feature of decision making in Japan is the intentional ambiguity as to who is responsible for what decision. In the United States, job descriptions and negotiations between employees are designed for the purpose of setting boundaries as to where the authority to make decisions begins and where it changes hands. In Japan, no one person is responsible for any particular decision. A group or a team of employees assumes joint responsibility for all tasks, and each member is completely responsible for all tasks in which they are involved. The concept of a strong orientation to collective values and a collective sense of responsibility is a Japanese business concept difficult for Americans to accept. However, the concept is logical when one realizes that work life is essentially integrated and interdependent. No one completes his tasks alone in the complex world of today. In a sense, the Japanese value of collectivism fits naturally into an industrial setting, whereas Western individualism provides constant conflict (84, 1981, p. 51).
Ouchi's Theory Z culture dealt with the worker's life as a whole. He felt one cannot view the worker as a machine from nine to five and as a human being during his non-working hours. The company organization plays a central role in the lives of its workers. Employees in all ranks of the organization derive much of their daily social contact there and situate themselves in social relations outside the organization through the position they hold in the company or organization (88, 1981, pp. 300-301). Theory Z suggests that humanized working conditions not only increase productivity and profit to the company, but also increase the self-esteem of employees. Ouchi referred to Chris Argyis' study in which managers are challenged to integrate individuals into the organization, so as not to create alienation and hostility among their workers. Argyis felt that alienation and hostility are inherent in the bureaucratic form of management. The Type-Z organization is a consent culture: a community of equals who cooperate with one another to reach common goals (84, 1981, p. 83).

Eastern societies were so populous, and because spiritual, public, and private matters were so integrated, their organizations tended to regard the task of control in the context of the whole of human needs, rather than as a more narrow transaction between labor and capital (88, 1981, p. 31).

An organization that maintains a wholistic orientation and forces employees at all levels to deal with one another as complete human beings creates a condition in which depersonalization is impossible. Argyis argued that motivation in work will be maximal when each member pursues individual goals and experiences psychological growth.
and independence. Employment involves a psychological contract as well as a contract involving the exchange of labor for capital (88, 1981, p. 304). Close supervision diminishes motivation, retards psychological growth, and hampers personal independence and freedom. Argyis warned that supervision can be supportive only when the supervisor trusts workers to use their discretion in a manner consistent with the goals of the organization (84, 1981, p. 51). Matsushita believed workers can be trusted, but that control systems must be established to provide guidelines to prevent ruinous mistakes (88, 1981, p. 59).

Doctoroff called his overall program "Synergy," and the synergistic organization parallels Ouchi's Theory Z organization. He felt that these organizations are characterized by a feeling of inner harmony, which enables people to work with a sense of fulfillment and to enjoy what they do (27, 1977, p. 5). Carlisle found that subordinates of participative leaders are more cooperative in dealing with others and display commitment to the goals of the organization.

If goals are imposed from outside, there may be little reason to accept them. If, on the other hand, an individual participates in establishing the goals, he is more inclined to identify with the objectives and with the goal oriented activity of the organization. The normal result is higher morale and better group cohesion. Also, when an individual participates in management processes by recommending a course of action, he develops his managerial skills much faster than someone who is closely directed in all that he does. Generally, better decisions are made because of the ideas and impetus of subordinates (21, 1973, pp. 131-132).

Pascales felt that an employee has to believe that the organization cares about him in order to invest the energy and effort to help it
change. To disclose ideas, the employees must believe in, and identify with, the organization (88, 1981, p. 307).

Ouchi wrote that Theory Z organizations devote a great deal of energy to develop interpersonal skills necessary to insure effective group decision making. Carlisle stated that the leader seeks involvement, but not purely for its own sake. He must be convinced that when conditions permit participatory decision making, the subordinate is more productive and can increase his contribution to the organization (21, 1973, p. 131). As long as the subordinates achieve the results desired, the manager should permit them to make decisions and have freedom of action in the way those results are accomplished. For Ouchi, trust is the first lesson of Theory Z, as productivity and trust go hand-in-hand (84, 1981, p. 5). Doctoroff stated that without trust, justifiable risks are not taken and everyone loses. The responsibility for establishing trust must be shared between subordinates and superior. Doctoroff stressed that work trust involves confidence in people's professional abilities.

The latest trend is to study the manager in relation to the arena in which he functions. Carlisle has stated that in the past, most theoretical structure or management knowledge have been developed with the "one-best-way" assumption as a major tenent (21, 1971, p. 7). Situationalists felt that there is no one best way to manage. Taylor may have been correct when he said that there is no one best way to perform a repetitive physical task, but that it is not true of planning, organizing, leading, controlling, or decision making. Different organizations with different tasks and different
competitive environments require different plans. Pascales stated that a society in a changing environment is doomed if it does not produce managerial innovators. The Hewlett-Packard Corporation has been identified as a Theory Z corporation, and one of its management manuals recognized the arena as a management factor in the following statement:

The performance system consists of the environment or situation surrounding the person or persons with implementing the manager's responsibilities and the evaluation of performance expected and received from those charged with responsibilities. The manager then attempts to modify behavior by making the person or persons comprising his work group aware of the rewards or punishments associated with various forms of behavior (70, 1978, p. 46).

The ultimate purpose of an educational organization is to unify and coordinate the efforts of individuals toward common goals and objectives. As man developed his social, political, and economical systems to a greater degree of complexity, there arose a need for more complex leadership styles. In a democratic society where there is no hereditary aristocracy, every man is a potential leader. This broadening of the base of potential leaders has led to many studies on leadership of groups. The need for coordination of organizational activities has led to a sub-division of leadership called management. The great need for flexibility in modern organizations has led to numerous challenges to the validity of the various management systems that have been championed over the last seventy years. In the complicated society of today, leadership has evolved into managership.
The manager's major objective is to reach organizational goals through the work of others. Knezevich emphasized this axiom when he stated: "To accomplish his objectives a manager manages men" (61, 1972, p. 13). Therefore, a manager, to be successful, must understand what his subordinates are all about, how they view themselves, and what personal goals they have set. The Hewlett-Packard management manual, "Management at Hewlett-Packard," tells the new manager to evaluate the tasks and responsibilities associated with their managerial positions. In a video-tape entitled, "Managing by Wandering Around," John Doyle described a style of management that grew out of the MBO concept, one which has proven successful for many Hewlett-Packard managers. In the tape, Doyle outlined several specific ways to improve managerial effectiveness:

1. Set a positive, outgoing impression, to your employees.
2. Be accessible.
3. Stay in touch with your entire territory not just selected individuals.
4. Set a climate in which your employees work in constructive and positive ways.
5. Listen and learn.
6. Recognize and accept diverse opinions.
7. Act on information received from employees in constructive and positive ways.
8. Let people make mistakes; let them learn from their mistakes; provide a climate where learning is a natural process.
9. Be supportive, fair and honest.
10. Do not accept a second rate effort.
11. Wander around inconsistently; often, but inconsistently.
12. Have a good time managing by wandering around (70, 1978, pp. 41-42).

The manager must analyze his job to determine what is critical to the accomplishment of his positional objectives. His concern is
not only for the work he does, but also for the total effort of the
unit under his leadership. The Hewlett-Packard Corporation felt that
there are two major classifications of labor in a working organization:
management work and vocational work. Figure 6 illustrates the
responsibilities inherent in these types of work.

![Diagram of Management and Vocational Work Responsibilities]

Figure 6. Management and Vocational Work Responsibilities (70,
1978, p. 57).

One of the major problems the new manager must face is the
difference between the vocational work, in which his competence led
to his being promoted to a managerial position, and the work of his
new position. The amount of vocational work a manager performs varies
with the situation. The Hewlett-Packard manual stated that when new
on the job and uncertain about the capabilities of his employees, the
manager tends to do some vocational work to make sure it is properly
performed (70, 1978, p. 49). It was also found that the lower the
management position, the more vocational work the manager tends to
perform (70, 1978, p. 48).
Drucker, in his book, The Effective Executive, used the term "knowledge work" to identify the work of the effective executive rather than the management of people. Knowledge work is defined by its results. Throughout knowledge organizations, there are people who manage no one and yet are executives (30, 1967, p. 7). Drucker felt that every worker in a modern organization is an executive by the virtue of his position or knowledge. Such a person must make decisions; he cannot simply carry out orders, but must take responsibility for his contribution. He is, by virtue of his specialized knowledge, better equipped to make the right decision than is the generalist who coordinates the efforts of these specialists. Drucker emphasized that a knowledge worker does not produce something that is effective by itself; he produces knowledge, ideas, and information. The importance of the knowledge worker is his ability to get the "right" thing done.

Working on the right things is what makes knowledge work effective. This is not capable of being measured by any of the yardsticks for manual work. The knowledge worker cannot be supervised closely or in detail. He can only be helped (30, 1967, p. 4).

Drucker has found that until recent times, the major problem of the organization was efficiency in the performance of the manual worker who did what he had been told to do. For manual work, efficiency is all that is required. Drucker defined efficiency as the ability to do things right. Effectiveness is defined as getting the right thing done. Manual workers can always be judged in terms of quality and quantity of a definable output. Until recently, manual
workers were predominant in all organizations. Few people of effectiveness were needed, for those at the top gave all the orders. For Drucker, effectiveness is the specific technology of the knowledge worker within an organization. Until recently, only a few knowledge workers were found in each organization. However, in more recent years, many organizations have had an increasing number of workers schooled to use knowledge, theory, and concepts rather than physical force or manual skills (30, 1967, p. 3). Effectiveness can no longer be taken for granted and can no longer be neglected. Drucker explained that the measurements and tests which we have developed for manual work are not applicable to knowledge work.

One of the major problems with the new manager is that he does not understand the real role of management. The Hewlett-Packard manual tried to answer the question, "What is management?" in the following manner. They divide management tasks into the "trivial many" and the "critical few." The Pareto Principle can be used to determine into which area a certain task falls. This principle states that a manager's most important problems, as well as opportunities, are concentrated in a small part of his job (80-20 rule). Figure 7 presents a graphic illustration of the Pareto Principle.

At the top level, executives will identify and devote ninety percent of their time to management duties and only ten percent to vocational work. Figure 8 presents these two time spans. At first-level management, supervisors ideally devote no more than fifty percent of their time to vocational work and the other half to management work.
T H E  TRIVIAL MANY RESPONSIBILITIES

THE CRITICAL FEW RESPONSIBILITIES

<table>
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<tr>
<th>80% of Your Job</th>
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<th>20% of the Results</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20% of Your Job</td>
<td>Produces</td>
<td>80% of the Results</td>
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Figure 7. The Pareto Principle (70, 1978, p. 55)

Figure 8. Management Time vs. Vocational Time (70, 1978, p. 50)

The Hewlett-Packard Corporation found that the amount of time and effort the individual devotes to management work often depends on the standards and personal examples set by their immediate superiors. The difference between what can be achieved and what actually happens is
designated as the "management gap." Usually this gap is fairly consistent from top to bottom. This management gap is illustrated in Figure 9.

President
Vice-President
General Manager
Functional Manager
Manager
Supervisor

Figure 9. The Management Gap (73, 1978, p. 50)

Successful managers will concentrate their efforts on management responsibilities and the proper allocation of time to vocational work. The Hewlett-Packard manual stated that if employees are incapable of doing the vocational work, it is the manager's role to see to it they receive the necessary training and development to correct the deficiency (70, 1978, p. 50). Doing the vocational work is not the duty of the manager; however, it is his responsibility. Therefore, it behooves him to see that his people are trained to achieve the vocational work of his unit. Managers must consciously keep themselves working on management work or they will find that their time will be poorly utilized.

One of the basic duties of the manager is to delegate authority to his subordinates. Melvin Heller, in his pamphlet,
"Preparing Educational Leaders: New Challenges and New Perspectives," stated that for a leader to be successful, he must develop insights and a talent for delegating authority (52, 1974, p. 10). The Hewlett-Packard management manual defined delegation as the work managers do to entrust responsibility and authority to others and to create accountability for agreed-upon results. The manual lists three important features of delegation:

1. **Responsibility** - the assigned work which is a continuing obligation of a position.
2. **Authority** - the powers and rights of a person or a position to accomplish the work. The term "authority" is used to refer to certain rights and power which are not limited. The levels of authority must be clearly defined:
   - **Level A** - Act on own
   - **Level B** - Act but advise
   - **Level C** - Recommend, then act.
3. **Accountability** - the delegation to perform the responsibility and exercise authority to accomplish the agreed-upon results (70, 1978, p. 67).

The Hewlett-Packard Corporation outlined the following plan to help their managers in delegating authority and responsibility to their subordinates.

**PLANNING FOR DELEGATING**

Delegation can be an extremely useful tool to the manager if, and only if, the manager defines the specific purpose for his/her actions. There are two specific purposes for delegating:

1. Delegating for efficiency.
2. Delegating for personal and employee development.

**STEPS IN DELEGATING**

1. Assign Priorities to Tasks, Decisions, Etc.
2. Decide Which Task Should Be Delegated.
3. Decide Who Should Get the Assignment.
4. Delegate the Responsibility and Authority.
In a recent study, the primary causes of managerial failure were found to be the inability to delegate responsibility and a lack of knowledge of the organization's objectives. Managers sometimes refuse to delegate to their employees because of task urgency, task definition, and task specialty (70, 1978, p. 67). The lack of employee confidence and the risk and fear of losing control are also reasons the manager refuses to delegate tasks. The poorest excuse for not delegating authority and responsibility is fear of recognition. Hewlett-Packard Corporation has found that there may be a fear on the part of the manager that delegation of certain tasks to employees may expose personal and technical skills of strong employees. This recognition of the subordinate's skill may cause the manager to fear for the security of his own position within the organization.

Hewlett-Packard also found that the employee may refuse to accept delegated responsibility, because he finds it easier to ask the manager to make decisions for him. Also, the subordinate may refuse to accept authority, because he fears criticism when incorrect decisions are made. The employee may lack self-confidence or the task knowledge needed to carry out the delegated assignment. If work rewards and incentives are inadequate, the employee may not be motivated to take on new assignments (70, 1978, p. 68). Some workers may find the delays caused by collective decision making unsettling, seeing it as an inability of the leader to make a decision. However, most American workers like the Theory Z management style and some do not find it at all that foreign. A supervisor at the Sony plant in
San Deigo stated: "A long time ago Americans used to be more people-oriented, the way the Japanese are. It just got lost somewhere along the way" (55, 1981, p. 58).

**Conclusion**

Carlisle contended there is no best way to organize group activities. Organizational methods must be based on such factors as the task to be performed and the nature and skills, knowledge, and capability of the people required to perform those tasks. The effectiveness of leadership styles depends on the factors present in the situation (21, 1973, p. 15). Carlisle reminded his readers that the forces and institutions in our society are constantly changing and evolving. Doctoroff stated leadership necessary for the continual success of the organization cannot be provided for by mechanical processes such as MBO. These techniques must be supplemented by a managerial approach that recognizes the importance of communications and inter-personal relationships (27, 1977, p. 49). Ouchi's Type Z organization tends to be unusually adaptive in the present-day, ever-changing arena. "A better way to accomplish some task can be adapted without worrying about whether this change will hurt the current way of measuring performance" (88, 1981, p. 89).

Benjamin Cullers found a study done by Hill in 1973 which would indicate that schools are moving slowly toward the collegial type of organization, characterized by a high degree of professional authority (24, n.d., p. 3). But Carlisle found two problems arising from collegial management: (1) much more time is needed to involve
others in developing a course of action or making a decision, and (2) it is difficult to find executives with the leadership temperament required for success (21, 1973, p. 132). Sergiovanni stated that critics of the collegial theories view collegial administrators as being missionaries or "do-gooders." Fallon stated that leadership is not going out of style, only changing due to the change of the followers in education. Ouchi believed top management must be dedicated not to brain-washing, but to setting objectives that permit every individual to satisfy their own self-interest while simultaneously serving the corporate interest (84, 1981, p. 209).

Organizations today must be flexible - respond quickly to changes. Doctoroff feels that the coordination problem cannot be solved satisfactorily by mechanical procedures such as MBO. These techniques must be supplemented by a management approach that recognizes the importance of communications and interpersonal relationships (27, 1977, p. 49).

Kenneth Fallon has stated that new leadership of the schools must recognize several key concepts:

The leader who survives the challenge of new leadership will be a disciple to a humanism which recognizes several key concepts:

1. Educational gimmickry will never replace person-to-person relationships which must nurture all teaching-learning situations.
2. Human capabilities must be more fully utilized - must recognize that self-fulfillment, the most basic and most relevant drive undergirding human achievement.
   a. Creativity is widely distributed among people.
   b. Principle of worth and dignity of the individual must receive more than just lip-service as the cornerstone of functional humanism (35, 1974, p. 15).

Many Western organizations in 1981 are functioning the same as they did in 1940.
There is still a troublesome tension between boss and subordinate, and between the firm and the public good, broadly defined. There are still negative attitudes toward necessary collective efforts, notably toward meetings and activities with and dominating the United States leadership ideal that prevailed in past centuries (88, 1981, pp. 32-33).

The school manager must keep his organization adaptable to the changing needs of the clients it serves and the society at large. Administrators also must be trained to be followers when dealing with subordinates with more specific knowledge in areas of their expertise (11, 1977, p. 212). As Drucker pointed out, knowledge workers must be managed differently than manual workers.

Every knowledge worker in modern organizations is an executive if, by virtue of his position or knowledge, he is responsible for a contribution that materially affects the capacity of the organization to perform and to obtain results. Such a person must make decisions; he cannot just carry out orders. He must take responsibility for his contribution. He is supposed, by virtue of his knowledge, to be better equipped to make the right decisions (30, 1967, p. 196).

This paper will contend that the Japanese management characteristics adapted to American business by William Ouchi in Theory Z are a viable answer to meeting the varied demands of public school administration. In the last analysis, therefore, given the increased complexity of the school setting and the corresponding request for flexibility, it is maintained that a new management style, Theory Z, will become a part of the management of the public schools. The problem is, how difficult will it be to make the necessary revisions in present-day public school management?
Chapter 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND PROCEDURES

Introduction

The study of business management is a fairly new field of endeavor; however, the study of school management is even newer. As the pattern of organization in American education has progressed from the nineteenth-century, one-room schoolhouse to the multi-faceted educational facility of urban America, the corresponding development of management studies post-dates the turn of the twentieth century. After Taylor and Fayol introduced scientific management to business, school administrators began to adapt these principles to the public schools. When Mary Parker Follette called for humanism in business management, school administrative philosophers again followed suit. The aping of business management continued throughout the entire twentieth century.

When American business found itself in trouble in the 1970's, several American business leaders began to look for answers outside the traditional management philosophy. One of the areas that became popular was the theory best expounded by Wiles, Wiles, and Bondi, and became popularly known as "situational leadership." Out of this search also came a turn to Japanese management styles, which have been revamped and best adapted to American industry by writers such as
William Ouchi under the title of Theory Z. Assuming the public schools continue to follow private industry in management style, the overriding questions are: Is it possible to incorporate Theory Z into the daily operation of the public schools? If an attempt to incorporate Theory Z into the daily operation of the public schools was made, what facilitators and barriers are the adaptors likely to encounter in making the transition from current bureaucratic principles to school management to the principles of Theory Z?

**Design of the Study**

In order to establish the probability that public schools would try to adapt Theory Z, or portions of it, to public school administration, it was necessary to review the evolution of school management. The review and corresponding history of the evolution of school management constitutes the majority of Chapters 1 and 2.

With the evolutionary trends established in Chapters 1 and 2 resulting in verification of the probability of efforts to adapt some or all of Theory Z to school management, the next concern was to develop a means whereby probable facilitators and barriers to the success of such an attempt could be identified and described in advance of actual adaptation effort. Two resources were needed. First, there was a need to identify the most prevalent type of pattern currently in existence in public school administration, and second, to locate an on-going school setting in which comparisons between the substance of Theory Z and current practice could be made.
A review of the literature on school administration revealed the most common pattern to be the bureaucratic model. Characteristics of this model were identified. Then, using those characteristics as a guide, an analysis of the Clark County School District, Clark County, Nevada, was made involving a review of existing policy manuals, tables of organization, and current rules and regulations as the basis for describing the existing operation of the school. This analysis revealed that the Clark County School District functions primarily as a bureaucracy and would serve as an on-going arena within which comparisons could be made in order to determine possible barriers and facilitators to any effort to adapt Theory Z to contemporary school management. Because of the importance of an on-going situation to the analysis in this study, in addition to analyzing various district manuals, flow charts, tables of organization, job descriptions, and assorted rules and regulations, a representative sample of managers at all levels in the school district was surveyed (see Appendixes A and B). The combination of sources supplied the basic description of the Clark County School District as an on-going bureaucracy.

For purposes of comparison, a full range of information on Theory Z and comparable models was analyzed. For example, in addition to Ouchi's Theory Z, material by such writers as James Abegglen, Michael Doctoroff, Richard Johnson, Richard Pascales, and Anthony Athos were also analyzed along with other sources. This investigation served to establish the centrality of the eight
theoretical hypotheses to any effort to adapt Theory Z management to the current bureaucratic school setting.

Using the substance of the eight theoretical hypotheses, a comparison between the substance of each of the hypotheses and corresponding activity in the existing bureaucratic model took place. Based on the comparison, conclusions were drawn as to whether or not the hypothesis was supported and, at the same time, the description of barriers and facilitators was developed.

In short, based on the comparison between the two profiles, answers were then able to be given to the two basic questions: (1) Is it possible to incorporate Theory Z into the daily operation of the public school? and (2) If an attempt to incorporate Theory Z into the daily operation of the public schools was made, what facilitators and barriers are the adaptors likely to encounter in making the transition from current bureaucratic principles of school management to the principles of Theory Z?

Data Treatment

Profiles of the bureaucracy, as represented by the Clark County School District and Theory Z, as developed by William Ouchi, were analyzed in terms of the eight theoretical hypotheses selected for the study. The selected features of each of the eight characteristics used in the comparison are as follows:
The First Hypothesis

Long-term employment of school personnel is neither a concern nor consideration of current school management. Long-term employment, within the context of Theory Z, means a minimum of ten years and a maximum of life-time employment.

The Second Hypothesis

Relatively slow evaluation and promotion are not characteristics of public school management. In a complex and multi-faceted proposal such as Theory Z management, serious evaluation may take place no earlier than five years after the date of first employment and may be extended as long as ten years. The first five to ten years are characterized by promotions that are standard for all individuals employed at the same time.

The Third Hypothesis

Career paths do not tend to wander in public school management. Early organizational movement is inter-departmental rather than intra-departmental. Positional changes are lateral and non-promotional; careers are conducted between specialties rather than between companies within a specialty. Movement in a Theory Z organization is generally characterized by horizontal movement as opposed to bureaucratic vertical movement.

The Fourth Hypothesis

Both implicit and explicit controls are in evidence in public school management; however, implicit control does not dominate.
Control in a Theory Z organization is based on values mutually accepted by the employees and the employer. Actions of both the employees and the employer are controlled by a set of beliefs and an over-riding philosophy that makes rules and regulations consistent between individuals.

The Fifth Hypothesis

Collective decision making is not a facet of public school management. In a Theory Z system, decisions are not made until each individual to be affected by the decision has had sufficient time to offer their views, feel they have been fairly heard, and are willing to support the decision, even though they may not feel it is the best one. Each time a major modification is made to an accepted decision, it is returned to those concerned for acceptance.

The Sixth Hypothesis

The Theory Z organization is concerned with the social life of the individual as well as his economic life. Organizational decisions are made with the complete organization in mind rather than within segmented departments of the organization.

The Seventh Hypothesis

Management systems are not in place in public school management. The paraphernalia of modern information and accounting systems, Management By Objectives, formal planning, and specific area management systems are valued for their use in making proper decisions, but are seldom the deciding factor on any issue.
The Eighth Hypothesis

A basic agreed-upon philosophy is not the guiding principle of public school management. An organizational philosophy states the goals of the organization, states what is and what is not important to the organization, and will provide a standard response to problems, as well as explaining why certain behavior will be rewarded.

A procedure was then developed for comparing the bureaucracy in the public school setting, as evidenced by the Clark County School District, Clark County, Nevada; and the eight selected principles of Theory Z. This procedure offered a method for utilizing the research procedures which had been selected, namely, a review of general management literature, a review of educational management literature, an interview questionnaire, a leadership characteristic survey of selected Clark County School District employees, and a review of Clark County School District policies and regulations manual, management systems manuals, and curriculum guides used in the Clark County School District.

Establishing the Profiles for Comparison

By comparing the features in each of the eight hypotheses with current practices in the Clark County School District, it was concluded which hypotheses were supported and which were not. Finally, based on the comparison, possible facilitators and barriers found in the efforts to adapt some or all of the eight selected principles of Theory Z to contemporary practices were identified.
Review of General Management Literature

The first investigative avenue employed was a review of literature dealing with the historical development of business management from 1900 to the present.

Review of Clark County School District Policy Manuals, Flow Charts, and Management Systems

This review included the basic policy and regulation manuals of the Clark County School District as well as specific manuals, management systems, curriculum guides, and flow charts.

Interview Questionnaire

A questionnaire and interview schedule were used to gather evidence in support of the contention that the Clark County School District is truly a bureaucratic institution and to add an additional dimension to the search for facilitators and barriers to the adaptation of Theory Z principles to the management of the public school. Those interviewed included a representative group of administrators from each level of the organization. This group of twenty were selected at random and were made up of the following: sixteen males, four females, nine high school administrators, six elementary principals, five central office administrators, six black administrators, and one Chicano. The number of administrators interviewed constituted approximately ten percent of the administrators of the Clark County School District. According to Pauline Young, in her book, Scientific Social Surveys and Research, "an adequate sampling is one that contains enough cases to insure reliable results." Young
went on to quote Hagood and Price as follows:

If the universe is very homogeneous with respect to a certain quantitative characteristic, a quite small sample may yield more reliable results in the estimation of the parameters describing the distribution than a much larger sample of another universe which is very heterogeneous with respect to the characteristics studied (117, 1960, p. 304).

Raymond Gordon, in his book, *Interviewing: Strategy, Techniques and Tactics* (1975), referred to ten percent as a valid random sampling. It was assumed, and the results of the interviews substantiated the fact, that the administrators of the Clark County School District are a highly homogeneous group.

The interview tool was previewed by a Secondary Principal, a Vice-Principal, and a Zone Director. This preview led to a number of changes in the interview tool, and it was decided that a short questionnaire be sent to those to be interviewed prior to the actual interview. A copy of the interview tool is found in Appendix B and the pre-interview questionnaire is found in Appendix A of this report. The interview questionnaire was designed to deal with each of the eight selected hypotheses to obtain data related to constructing answers to the two basic questions: (1) Is it possible to incorporate Theory Z principles into the daily operations of the public schools? and (2) What facilitators and barriers are the adaptors likely to encounter in making the transition from current approaches to school management to Theory Z style management?
Leadership Characteristic Survey

A survey of prospective and practicing administrators in the Clark County School District was used to help determine attitudes about Locus of Control, Tolerance Level, Motivation in three areas: achievement, belonging, and power, and finally, Leadership Behavior: concern for production and concern for people. This survey was conducted in January of 1981, and the sample group was made up of thirty-one prospective administrators and sixteen practicing administrators of the Clark County School District. A copy of the survey instrument may be found is Appendix C of this study. The results of this survey were used to help identify additional facilitators and barriers to the adaptation of the eight selected Theory Z principles to the public schools.

Summary

Descriptive data regarding management practices were collected from the following: (1) related general management literature, (2) related educational literature, (3) management manuals, (4) Clark County School District policy manuals, flow charts, and management systems as well as an interview questionnaire, and (5) a survey instrument designed to obtain correct perceptions of current practices in the eight selected principles in the Clark County School District, and the data were reported. Based on the data collected, the legitimate bureaucratic nature of the Clark County School District was established.
Once the available data were obtained and analyzed, it was established that school managers would probably attempt to incorporate some facets of Theory Z management practices into the general management of public schools. Eight basic principles of Theory Z were selected for study by comparing characteristics of Theory Z to present practices in public school management as represented by the Clark County School District.

Chapter 3 has described the research methods used to conduct the study and report the data. The reader is reminded that throughout this design of the study, because it is both historical and predictive, there was a need to make subjective inferences and to draw conclusions regarding the information that was available for review. Chapter 3 has described the method employed for obtaining information related to the subject of adaptation of Theory Z to public school management. Such information was organized in order to answer the questions originally posed as a statement of the problem: Given the problem of adapting Theory Z management to public schools and the purpose of identifying facilitators and barriers to make such a change, it was hypothesized that those attempting to make the change will encounter more barriers than facilitators in the selected elements wherein change is likely to be pursued. In particular, the following eight hypotheses were presented: (1) Long-term employment of school personnel is neither a concern nor consideration of current school management; (2) relatively slow evaluation and promotion are not characteristics of public school management; (3) career paths do not tend to wander in the public school setting; (4) implicit and explicit controls are in
evidence in the public school management setting; however, explicit control dominates; (5) collective decision making is not a facet of public school management; (6) the public school setting is not wholistic in nature; (7) management systems are not in place in the public school management scheme; and (8) a basic agreed-upon philosophy is not the guiding principle for public school management.

The design of this study was not traditional, for traditional procedures would restrict the full utilization of inferences and the projection of possible social events without supportive objective data. When one tries to project what may take place in the future, complete objectivity is impossible, for many variables may change the outcome of any event. However, in seeking to make changes, it is to the advantage of the adaptors to know in advance anticipated areas of support and resistance. With this knowledge, those seeking to make a change can more completely plan a course of action, make better use of available resources, and produce results of a more permanent nature.

Findings are reported in Chapter 4. Conclusions, recommendations, and predictions based on these comparisons are reported in Chapter 5.
Chapter 4

ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

Introduction

The purpose of the study was to identify the nature of facilitators and barriers to the implementation of Theory Z in the public school. A comparative analysis of selected characteristics of Theory Z management and selected characteristics of the bureaucracy as it exists in a representative public school system in the United States was made. Based on this comparison, the answers to two questions were sought: (1) Is it possible to incorporate Theory Z into the daily operation of the public school? and (2) If an attempt is made to incorporate Theory Z into the daily operation of the public school, what facilitators and barriers are the adaptors likely to encounter in making the transition from current bureaucratic principles of school management to the principles of Theory Z? It was also hypothesized that those attempting to make the change will find more barriers than facilitators in making the transition from the bureaucratic model of management to Theory Z.

The Clark County School District

As A Bureaucracy

Bureaucratic is a term of ambiguous meaning. It has often been used perjoratively to symbolize all that is
distasteful about centralized government, a planned economy, impersonal officialdom, rigidity, and red tape. . . . the term is used in its descriptive and non-derogatory sense, "bureaucracy" means a certain kind of formal organization, characterized by a complex administrative hierarchy, specialization of skills and tasks, prescribed limits on discretion set forth in a system of rules, impersonal behavior with regard to clientele, and separation of ownership and control in the sense that the members of the bureaucracy no longer own the tools and instruments with which they work (89, 1967, p. 803).

Using a simplified definition of a bureaucracy developed by Hanson, the Clark County School District can be identified as a fairly typical bureaucracy. While there are some unique features to the Clark County School District, i.e., the large geographic area it covers (7,927 square miles), the vast majority of the Clark County School District characteristics are in line with the typical bureaucratic organizational structure common to large urban school districts in the United States. The Clark County School District is made up of approximately 90,000 students, employs nearly 4,000 teachers and over 200 administrators. The seven elected School Trustees direct a district of 111 schools and a budget of $212,292,595. In an interview process which included twenty administrators at various levels of the Clark County School District, nineteen of the twenty interviewees were emphatic about the bureaucratic nature of their district.

To determine the bureaucratic nature of the Clark County School District and to establish the profile needed for comparison, it became necessary to see how each of Hanson's five selected characteristics of a bureaucracy related to the Clark County School District: (1) Hierarchical Structure, (2) Division of Labor,
(3) Control by Rules, (4) Impersonal Relations, and (5) Career Orientation.

Hierarchical Structure

The Clark County School District is organized on a typical pyramid structure. From the Board of School Trustees to the Clark County School students, there are seven layers of a pyramid: Board of School Trustees, Superintendent, Associate Superintendents, Directors, Principals, Assistant Principals, Teachers, and finally, the students. Authority in the formal structure is based on the positional power of those holding a dominant step in the hierarchy. Clark County School District Policy 2130 clarifies positional authority as follows:

3. Responsibility shall flow simply and clearly from the Board of School Trustees through the Superintendent to Central Office Administrators, Principals, Certificated and Classified employees.

4. Employees shall be informed as to whom they are responsible and for what function. Whenever possible, employees shall be made responsible to only one immediate superior per function.

5. Employees shall be informed to whom they can go for assistance in meeting the responsibilities of their position (91, 1982, Policy 2130).

Success is measured by movement up the pyramid. This success is measured by intangibles as well as financial increases. Salary steps are built to reward the individual as he moves up from one level of the pyramid to another. Money has been a mark of success
Division of Labor

The Clark County School District is organized around a single Superintendent and six Associate Superintendents. The six Associate Superintendents head divisions of specialists who make up the six segmented and independent departments of the Clark County School District. The six divisions are: Personnel Services, Business and Finance, School Facilities, Elementary Education, Secondary Education, and Administrative/Special Student Services. Each division is further divided under Directors who have expertise in each area. Taking the Secondary Education division as an example, one will find that the further up the scalar chain, the more segmented appointments become. The vast majority of the secondary Principals and Vice-Principals have been selected from the ranks of those who have been secondary Teachers. Each secondary Zone Director, of which there are four, has his entire background in secondary education. There tends to be a view of protecting one's own department versus a concern for the health of the organization as a whole.

Control by Rules

The Clark County School District operates through a set of regulations based on the policies established by the Board of Trustees. These policies and regulations are divided into eight separate categories of direction.
The policies and regulations are established to insure uniformity in decision making throughout the Clark County School District. The codified set of regulations tend to allow all administrators to develop a sense of what is and what is not acceptable in the decision-making process. Bureaucracy appears to be essential to some for two reasons: (1) The school system is responsible for a uniform product of certain quality for its sets a minimum, but not a maximum, level of student accomplishment, and (2) the bureaucratic office is a way to insure employee adherence to universalistic criteria (T3, 1965, pp. 974-975). In an administrative survey conducted in 1981 (see Appendix C), it was found that half of the thirty-nine administrators who responded to the survey were inwardly directed. The inwardly directed administrator will feel more comfortable in the segmented bureaucratic organization, where rules and regulations determine the selected solution to problems.

Impersonal Relationships

Decisions are made on the basis of the policies and regulations codified by the Clark County School District. Leaders do not
make their decisions based on the personality of the individual, the nature of the situation, or the type of event. As a general rule, decisions are made on a rational basis using the regulations of the Clark County School District as the deciding factor. In the Clark County School District attitudinal survey, the thirty-nine interviewees indicated that Clark County School District administrators do not rely on the organization to satisfy their belonging need.

Career Orientation

Employment in the Clark County School District is based on individual expertise gained through advanced education and experience. Promotion is based on a combination of seniority and merit. Salary is based on position within the hierarchy. Retirement benefits are offered to all Clark County School District employees, and the district begins to stress the benefits of a career with the Clark County School District once the individual has moved into the management phase of district employment.

Theory Z vs. the Bureaucracy

Introduction

There are two basic tasks undertaken in Chapter 4. First, consideration was given to the answers to the basic questions of this study: (1) Is it possible to incorporate Theory Z into the daily operation of the public school? and (2) If an attempt is made to incorporate Theory Z into the daily operation of the public schools, what facilitators and barriers are the adaptors likely to
encounter in making the transition from a current bureaucratic school management model to a model based on Theory Z? The second task was to prove or disprove the basic hypothesis growing out of these two questions: Those attempting to replace bureaucratic principles with principles common to Theory Z organizations will encounter more barriers than facilitators. To determine answers to the questions and to test the theoretical hypothesis, eight theoretical sub-hypotheses, based on eight selected characteristics of Theory Z, were used: (1) Long-term Employment, (2) Relatively Slow Evaluation and Promotion, (3) Implicit and Explicit Control, (4) Collective Decision Making and Individual Responsibility, (5) Wandering Career Paths, (6) Wholism, (7) Management Systems, and (8) an Agreed-upon Basic Philosophy. The substance of these eight characteristics was then compared to current practices in a bureaucratic school system as represented by the Clark County School District.

For the purposes of clarity in comparing the characteristics of Theory Z organization with a bureaucratic organization using the eight selected characteristics, two profile labels were provided. Profile Z refers to Theory Z organizations and Profile B refers to bureaucratic organization.

**Long-term Employment**

Profile Z. In the organization developed by the great Japanese entrepreneur, Matsushita, there is a promotion of managerial continuity through long job tenure. Long-term employment holds a prominent position in the basic managerial philosophy of Japanese
managers like Matsushita (88, 1981, p. 79). Studies by Robert Cole of the University of Michigan have shown that turnover rates in American companies are four to eight times as high as for all Japanese companies (84, 1981, p. 58). Ouchi felt that by varying experience and by allowing participation in decision making, a great deal of the voluntary termination of employment can be avoided (84, 1981, p. 117). In Japan, during the occupation after World War II, a life-time employment system was imposed under the leadership of General Douglas MacArthur. This system of guaranteeing employment for a long term generates a sense of security and high morale among Japanese employees (116, 1981, p. 55). With an organization taking a long-range view of goals and objectives, it is imperative that management remain stable. A Japanese company committed to life-time employment will go to great lengths to build loyalty among its employees by ensuring fair and humane treatment, due to its commitment to long-term employment. Ouchi stated:

In the United States, by comparison, an alienated, disgruntled employee can be laid off during the next downswing in the business cycle and thus represents only a short term burden to the employer. The problem is purely one of incentives. People committed to long term relationships with one another have a strong commitment to behave responsibly and equitably towards one another (84, 1981, p. 34).

Hewlett-Packard wanted its people to have a stable, long-term career dependent, of course, upon satisfactory job performance (68, 1977, p. 21). Some American companies have many of the characteristics of Theory Z. Best known are Kodak, Cumins Engine Company, IBM, Levi-Strauss, National Cash Register, Proctor and
Gamble, and Utah International. Their historic rates of turnover are low, loyalty and morale are reputed to be very high, and identification with the company is strong (85, 1978, p. 307). These companies do not express goals in short-term profitability, but rather pay some cost in order to maintain employment stability through difficult times. Workers who know that they are guaranteed a job are more flexible at work than employees in most Western countries, where the typical management model is the bureaucracy.

Ouchi felt that the fate of most firms ties into employment security. Involuntary termination, or mass layoff and firing of employees, is largely a matter of company policy. Some companies will argue that layoffs are forced on them when the economy weakens and sales decline. Ouchi stated:

A company or economy suffering from short run decline can avoid layoffs through a sharing of the misfortune. Shareholders can share in the loss by accepting less profits or even moderate losses for one year. In exchange, a highly committed and experienced team of employees will repay them in future years with large profits. Similarly employees at all levels can share the burden by accepting shortened work weeks and paychecks, foregoing prerequisites and temporarily performing tasks they find distasteful (84, 1981, p. 118).

Profile B. The average administrator in the Clark County School District has been with the district for eighteen years in various positions. The administrative force of the Clark County School District has an average of eleven years in administrative service. Both of these figures fall within the definition of long-term employment outlined in Chapter 3. When the sample group was asked if the district had done anything to directly sell them on a
career commitment to the Clark County School District, thirteen of the twenty answered in the negative. But the seven who did answer in the affirmative further explained by citing the bureaucratic incentives of vested retirement, competitive salaries, and rapid promotions. None of the sample group felt their skills were unique to the Clark County School District. All of the respondents stated that they could easily fill a similar role in another district or in private industry. While all twenty of the respondents felt their role in the Clark County School District was challenging, all but one of them felt they could find equally rewarding and challenging work elsewhere.

**Relatively Slow Evaluation and Promotion**

Profile Z Evaluation. In a Japanese company, a short-term assessment of individual performance is not wanted, so the company can save the considerable expense of collecting and processing all that information. Ouchi has found that slow evaluation and promotion serve as stabilizing factors in an organization (84, 1981, p. 119). Speed of evaluation has a major effect on the character of the interpersonal relationships within an organization. Rapid and frequent evaluations lead to a narrow view of the individual evaluated, for only the direct supervisor is involved in the process. This continual overt supervision makes it impossible to form friendships with the subordinate. By delaying formal evaluations, more people can be involved in the process and it becomes less threatening to the interpersonal relationship of the supervisor and
the supervised (85, 1978, p. 308). Slow evaluation takes the pressure off a single superior and frees him to show a wholistic concern for the employee. In the Theory Z organization, the real evaluation is subjective and highly personal. No one is rapidly promoted, nor punished, due to good or bad performance scores (85, 1978, p. 311). Pascales stated that company leaders like Matsushita are known for long-range evaluation (88, 1981, p. 62).

The Theory Z organization operates from the premise that individual performance and reward can be judged equitably only over a period of years; then, relationships must be long-term and trust must be great (84, 1981, p. 84). Ouchi stated:

What is critical, is that this young person realize that his or her superior performance is recognized and will indeed be well compensated for in the long run. In order to induce young employees to accept a slower process of formal evaluation and promotion, a system of non-monetary forms of evaluation, such as frequent involvement with superiors on projects, including close instruction and guidance, must be provided. They communicate the expectation of greater income in the future without creating short-run incentives (84, 1981, p. 120).

Profile B Evaluation. The bureaucratic organization responds to high turnover rates with rapid evaluation and promotion. Many American corporations find themselves training over half of their work force each year. Due to this type of turnover, jobs have to be reduced to basics where rapid training will allow the worker to do a job with minimum skills. Ouchi and Jaeger stated:

The A type (bureaucratic) organization has a relatively short time in which to realize productive benefits from the necessary investment in an individual employee (cost of search and training). It can best
realize these benefits by having the person follow a highly specialized career path, in which necessary learning can occur rapidly and scale economies are soon achieved. Finally, rapid turnover requires replacement of managers and thus rapid promotion of those at lower levels. Because promotion must be proceeded by evaluation, to preserve the impression if not the fact of a maritocracy, evaluation also will occur rapidly (85, 1978, p. 310).

Rapid evaluation can cause an uneasiness among managers, who feel that three to five years without a significant evaluation leading to a promotion marks them as a failure.

Nevada Revised Statutes (NRS 391.3125) requires that probationary employees of the Clark County School District be evaluated at least four times a year. The Clark County School District developed Regulations 4161 and 4761 to comply with this state law. All of the interviewees indicated that the district is complying with state law. The evaluation process is highly formalized and follows the basic tenets of clinical supervision leading to evaluation.

Full compliance with these statutory requirements can only be met in reference to the post-probationary employee if:

1. The Board of School Trustees establish objective criteria and procedures for evaluation after consultation with the elected representatives of the certificated employees or their designees.

2. Each post-probationary employee is observed and evaluated at least once annually. A written copy is to be given to the employee within fifteen (15) days of the evaluation (47, 1979, p. 6).

With a first-year or probationary employee of the district, the procedures are somewhat different. Four evaluations must take place
and be documented. The evaluation regulations of the Clark County School District are based on Board Policy 4320:

CLARK COUNTY SCHOOL DISTRICT POLICY 4320

EVALUATION: ALL EMPLOYEES

1. It is the responsibility of all supervisors to evaluate the work of assigned employees and to make reports on appropriate Clark County School District forms. Evaluations shall be made at any time the conditions warrant in accordance with the procedures prescribed by Nevada Revised Statutes and by the Personnel Division.

A. Noncertificated administrators, certificated employees, and classified employees will be evaluated on the basis of developed performance standards.

B. The primary purpose of the evaluation process is to assess employee competency. The assessment should provide employees with an awareness of the procedures used in the evaluation and should include an analysis of employee performance with recommendations for improvement to enhance the educational process (91, 1982).

According to Clark County School District Regulation 4321, evaluation may take place any time that conditions warrant, and the process is specifically stated and highly formalized. All post-probationary employees are to be evaluated once a year and all probationary personnel must be evaluated by November 1, January 1, March 1, and May 1 of each school year. A probationary administrator is one who is in his first year or a second trial year of employment as an administrator.

Eighteen of the twenty sampled administrators felt evaluation was not only good but necessary. Four of those interviewed felt that bi-annual evaluation was more desirable than the present
yearly requirement. Only two of those interviewed indicated yearly was too often. Only one suggested an interval as long as three years. All but one of the respondents felt the evaluation interval of the Clark County School District is about the way it should be.

When asked about the value of peer evaluation, in relation to formal evaluation, all but two felt that formal evaluation was most important to their career development. One stated neither appears to have much to do with career advancement. Ouchi summed up Theory Z attitude toward the bureaucratic practice of frequent evaluation as follows:

If everyone is going to be promoted, to evaluate any of them is unnecessary, except for your personal amusement. Over the long run, the high performers will emerge and will take the positions of greater responsibility while developing long-term values and cooperative attitudes (84, 1981, pp. 119-120).

Profile Z Promotion. Fielder stated that one of the most difficult personnel decisions in management is what sort of person to promote into a leadership position. The proposition that what people have done in the past is the best indicator of what they will do in the future is invalid, for most promotions move the individual into entirely new areas (37, 1977, p. vii). In education, this is especially true, since most school administrators come from the teaching ranks. The requirements of a successful classroom teacher are not necessarily those needed to be a successful administrator.

If promotion is slow, the managers will have an opportunity to become thoroughly acquainted with the people they supervise. Slow promotion also gives the new employee an opportunity to be
shaped by and assimilated into the organizational culture. An organization that has a philosophy of rapid promotion will not have as unified a culture as an organization with a slower rate of upward mobility (85, 1978, 308). Theory Z makes a slowing of promotion possible by moving both new and old managers from assignment to assignment. This movement allows the young person to develop a wide circle of more experienced acquaintances. Some of those older managers will often provide a mentoring relationship with young managers (84, 1981, p. 120). When evaluation and promotion finally do take place, they can be done on a firmer basis. The slowing down of evaluation and promotion is vital to underscore the emphasis on long-term performance. At Matsushita, performance is rated over seniority. Pascales found that after fifteen years of service (a period long enough to insure that everyone is firmly socialized into the company), promotion criteria weigh performance with seniority. From this juncture on, the firm does not hesitate to promote young men to key posts over their seniors (88, 1981, p. 81).

The main problem with slow promotion is that the most capable people always have the most options to move to other corporations. A corporation like Hewlett-Packard, for example, tries to solve this problem by promoting from within the ranks and developing training opportunities to broaden the capabilities of personnel and prepare them for more responsible jobs. Managers on all levels are to be concerned with the development of their subordinates (70, 1978, p. 21).
Profile B Promotions. The Clark County School District's policy in selecting administrators is stated below:

CLARK COUNTY SCHOOL DISTRICT POLICY 4111

ADMINISTRATIVE APPOINTMENT

I. The Board of School Trustees recognized the importance of employing highly qualified and professionally trained administrative personnel as expressed in the achievement of goals in the Statement of Educational Principles, and delegates to the Superintendent the responsibility for establishing administrative selection processes that will assure the Clark County School District of effective professional leadership (91, 1982).

From this statement, the Clark County School District has evolved a number of regulations to deal with the administrative processes of the district. Certified personnel holding an administrative position may apply for other administrative positions as they become available. Non-administrative personnel seeking administrative positions must be on the Administrative Eligibility List. To be placed on the list, the employee must hold a Nevada Administrators Endorsement, a Master's Degree from an accredited college or university, and have completed five years of successful certified experience. The district has developed a screening process; those candidates who survive the screening process participate in the Leadership Training Program. The individuals named will remain on the list for five years. If not placed in those five years, they will be deleted from the list. There is a provision for out-of-state administrative appointments, but the district has almost exclusively recruited from within the district for new administrators below the level of superintendent. While the average administrator has eighteen years
total service in the district and 11.3 years of administrative experience in the district, he has an average of only .5 years administrative experience outside the Clark County School District.

Those in the interview sample were promoted on the average of every 4.3 years. There is no set philosophy on time between promotions within the Clark County School District. Fourteen of the twenty sampled administrators felt the time between promotion must depend on the position and the individual filling the position. Nineteen of the twenty respondents felt the district's promotion "is about the way it should be." This answer was based on the fact that all of the respondents felt their prestige, power, and financial needs were being met by the present Clark County School District promotion program.

Wandering Career Paths

Profile Z. In a bureaucratic organization, promotions typically remain within a specialty whereas in the Theory Z organization, the typical career path is not specialized by function. Ouchi and Jaeger described the effect of specialized career paths as follows:

A specialized career path yields professionalization, decreases organizational loyalty, and facilitates movement of the individual from one firm to another. A non-specialized career path yields localism, increases organizational loyalty, and impedes inter-firm mobility. Career specialization also increases problems of coordination between individuals and sub-units, while non-specialization eases the coordination problem. Career specialization also yields the scale economies of task specialization and expertise, whereas non-specialized career paths often sacrifice these benefits. A (bureaucratic) and J (Theory Z) organizations may be the same in formal structure - having equal
divisional separation, for example - but individuals will move through those sub-units in quite different patterns (85, 1978, p. 309).

Ouchi felt that American firms tend to overvalue specialization and underestimate the importance of having people in each department who understand the other department (84, 1981, p. 122). The weakness of specialization is that the workers can never be intimately integrated with one another. Only if the right specialists are put together will the structure work. These specialists can function together only if there is no need to understand anything beyond their own specialty.

In a company with rapid advancement and turnover, people learn to operate without depending on consulting others. No one else is likely to know or care about their problems or be around long enough to follow through with collaborate responsibilities. People and departments become sealed off from one another. In order to accomplish anything, each must stick to those things which they can do alone (84, 1981, pp. 59-60).

In Japan, employees become knowledgeable in all aspects of the organization rather than a specialist in a single function of the organization. Since their skills are unique to a single organization, the worker cannot readily move from organization to organization. This generalization of talent helps build corporate loyalty. "Japanese executives do not specialize and regularly move from one corporate department to the next" (17, 1981, p. 74). Theory Z organizations tend to be moderately specialized in comparison to the typical bureaucratic organization. Each year, fifteen percent of Matsushita employees rotate from one division to another. Hewlett-Packard Corporation tries to regularly rotate its managers in order to broaden their experiences (77, 1981, p. 3). Ouchi felt that managers who circulate
across jobs within a company retain their enthusiasm, their effectiveness, and job satisfaction. It would be of benefit to the organization to develop a process of advertising new positions widely and encourage employees to transfer to related jobs that permit them to learn something new. A *Time* magazine article (55, 1981, p. 54) stated that Japanese corporate leaders are people who have spent time in a lot of different aspects of the business; this is in contrast to the one-dimensional leaders found in most American firms.

This movement throughout the organization also effectively reduces coordination problems. Due to the variety of acquaintances and friendships developed, employees who have needed information are inclined to help each other. Since employees will spend a lifetime together, they have an interest in maintaining harmonious relationships. In Theory Z organizations, virtually every department will have someone who knows the people, the problems, and the procedures of any other area within the organization (84, 1981, p. 31); this will help coordination, for both sides will understand and cooperate with the other. The person asking for assistance today may be a co-worker or even a superior tomorrow. This interchanging makes it desirable to cooperate with one another within the organization.

**Profile B.** When the career paths of the twenty interviewees were traced, it was found that only two had any horizontal movement at all, and that movement was limited. According to this sample, there was very little emphasis on obtaining an overall view of the district; however, most felt there should be. Nineteen of the twenty
interviewed felt an administrator in the Clark County School District would be rewarded for cooperating with others on the same level. A common comment was: "You should cooperate, for you never know who your boss may be in the future." Thirteen of the twenty interviewees believed there is value in horizontal movement within the organization, but only six of the twenty felt horizontal was more important than vertical to career development. However, eighteen of the twenty indicated that for promotional purposes, a wide organizational view is most important. While these statements seemed to contradict each other, one high school principal tried to clarify this apparent dichotomy as follows: "Your expertise in a specialty draws the district's attention to you, but when interviewed, they question you to determine your overall knowledge of the organization. If you do poorly in the interview, your chances for promotion are hurt."

Implicit and Explicit Control Factors

Profile Z.

In the Theory Z corporation, shared values communicate a sense of meaning that helps guide people in the direction senior executives want. They also bind employees to the organization, so that they see themselves not just as cogs in someone else's wheel but as people who are serving society through the company (115, 1981, p. 54).

In the Theory Z organization, there is a great need to rely on others. The top management of Theory Z companies does not allow explicit measures to be the final arbitrators in decision making. Mutual trust allows decisions acceptable to all to be made without explicit rules and regulations. Matshushita believed that people can be
trusted, but he did maintain control systems and provided the guidelines to prevent various mistakes (88, 1981, p. 59). Relationships between people are always subtle and implicit, and bureaucratic rules can do violence to them. The Theory Z foreman who is forced by bureaucratic management to assign work strictly on the basis of seniority will lose subtlety and production will decline.

An intangible called "trust" is the key to inter-organizational relations:

Says Yorchi Takahaski, head of Hitachi's 70,000 strong labor union: "Everything depends on dialogue and trust. What is good for the company is good for the union. The workers know that their labor is what makes the company prosperous." Adds Noboru Yoshii, a senior advisor of Sony Corporation: "There is little opposition between management and workers because every manager comes up the ladder from employee" (55, 1981, p. 57).

Argyis argued that motivation in work will be maximal when each member pursues individual goals and experiences psychological growth and independence. He felt close supervision retards motivation, rewards psychological growth, and hampers personal independence and freedom. Supervision can be supportive only when the supervisor trusts workers to use their discretion in a manner consistent with the goals of the organization (84, 1981, p. 81).

Trust is an important aspect of Theory Z: trust by management in the decision-making capabilities of the workers; trust by the workers that management is looking out for the employee's best interest; and trust between both groups that everyone is working for the best interest of the company and not for personal or group aggrandizement (77, 1981, p. 3). Without trust, justifiable risks
are not taken and everyone loses. The responsibility for estab­lishing trust must be shared between subordinates and superiors. Work trust involves confidence in people's professional abilities. Doctoroff stated:

To establish an atmosphere of trust, which we have recognized as another prerequisite of resonance, managers should encourage their subordinates to get to know one another on a social basis.
1. They must act in such a way as to enable people to act in a forthright manner without fear for their position or careers.
2. They may have to develop a willingness to trust their subordinates.
3. Managers must make sure that the people in their groups share a common code (27, 1977, pp. 44-45).

Bureaucratic organizations are identified by the use of explicit rules and regulations and performance standards to ensure actual performance meets desired performance. However, in the Theory Z organization, expectations are not explicitly stated; they are to be deduced from a more general understanding of the corporate philosophy (85, 1978, p. 309). Due to the practice of long-term employment, control can be more implicit and internalized as opposed to explicit and compliant. This implicit control can encompass a much wider variety of activities and behaviors. Pascales discussed ambiguity in Japanese management as follows:

We believe that the essence of Japanese success in these areas is rooted in assumptions that are rather fundamental to life. First, the Japanese accept ambiguity, uncertainty, and imperfection as much more of a given quality in organizational life. . . . Second, the Japanese see themselves as far more independent. Thus they are prepared to make far greater investments in people and in the skills necessary to be effective with others (88, 1981, p. 155).
Ambiguity, uncertainty, and imperfection carry different connotation in the occidental world than they do in the orient. The Japanese would see the ambiguous situation as acceptable and as a fact of life (88, 1981, p. 141). Ouchi quoted Harold Leavitt of Stanford University as saying the penchant for the explicit and the measurable in the bureaucratic organization has gone well beyond reasonable limits. Leavitt feels it is time to return to the subtle and the subjective. In the Theory Z organization, explicit and implicit seem to exist in a state of balance (84, 1981, p. 72). The Theory Z manager realizes that the informal and implicit cannot function in a pure form. This type of management can exist only when other ingredients exist: stable employment, slow evaluation and promotion, and low career specialization. Even with those features in place, the implicit must be supported with a crutch of formal control and analysis in organizations where a complete agreement on values and beliefs cannot be fully realized. The problem becomes how to ensure a high level of discipline and hard work without hierarchical supervision and mandatory production. Ouchi stated that the answer to this dilemma is to develop a complete unity of goals within the organization.

Type Z organizations . . . do employ hierarchical control, and thus do not rely entirely upon goal congruence among employees for orders. Nevertheless, they do rely extensively upon symbolic means to promote an attitude of equalitarianism and a mutual trust, and they do so in part by encouraging a wholistic relation between employees. Self-direction replaces hierarchical direction to a great extent which enhances commitment, loyalty, and motivation (84, 1981, pp. 82-83).
When Pascales evaluated Matsushita's company and ITT in the area of implicitness, he stated that vagueness is not always desirable; however, in these two organizations, he found no need for less vagueness. There seemed to be an acceptable balance of the implicit and explicit.

Profile B. The crux of management skills is the ability to get people to do what you want them to do. It is in this area that a major difference can be found between the bureaucracy and the Theory Z corporation. The basic strategies by administrators seem to involve a manipulation of the intrinsic reward structure of the teachers and a manipulation of the normative sense of being a professional, inherent in the thinking of most teachers (50, 1979, pp. 126-127). Hanson felt the principal is a "gatekeeper" who interprets and enforces the rules, policies, and expectations of the state education code, the board of education, and the parents. Nearly everyone in a bureaucracy recognizes the importance of having standardized school rules that control the functions of the schools. Hanson summed his findings as follows:

The outer limits of decisional autonomy are shaped by a variety of forces, some of which are rigid in character and others of which permit considerable latitude for interpretation. Basically, these constraints are imposed by the state legislature, the local board of education, parental expectations, the leadership style of the principals, the professional standards of the teachers, and the availability of resources (50, 1979, p. 121).

Feelings are not allowed much expression in this type of management due to the absoluteness of instructions. Achieving
positive results in a bureaucratic system depends a great deal on explicit instruction. A bureaucracy refers to an authority structure based on rational behavior. Rational authority is projected throughout the organization in such a way as to directly control human activity to the point of high predictability and maximum efficiency. Hanson further explained control in the bureaucracy:

In organizations based on legal-rational authority, the organization's charter and formally established policies vest the authority of command in specific offices to be used by the people who occupy these offices. The legitimacy of the controlling influences of the supervisor over the subordinate is a matter of organizational law. Anyone who accepts the terms of employment in effect is accepting a legal constraint on his or her behavior and considers it his or her duty to obey orders. In this context, when a teacher chooses to sign a contract with a school system, he is prepared and willing to bind himself to the decisions of his superiors in all aspects of school tasks (50, 1979, p. 24).

Alvin Goldner stated that rules serve five functions in an organization:

1. Rules exist as the equivalent of direct, personal orders.
2. Rules provide a substitute for the personnel repetition of orders by supervisors.
3. Rules serve to define and limit a subordinate's area of decision-making discretion.
4. Rules facilitate the "remote control" capability of managers.
5. Rules serve as "punishment-legitimating" functions (50, 1979, p. 24).

Pascales has found that English cultures attach importance to precision, problem solving, and clear logical presentation. Rationality becomes an end unto itself.
An implicit assumption of bureaucratic theory which we have had repeated occasion to question is that hierarchical authority and discipline are compatible with decisions based on expert judgements made in accordance with professional standards.

... that there is a conflict between those two conditions. Rigid discipline stifles professional judgements. Conversely, hierarchical authority is weakened by increasing technological complexity in an organization with its resulting emphasis on technical expertness for all personnel, including those on the lowest operating levels (50, 1979, p. 122).

The potential danger of conflict between the need for discipline and the need for professional judgment is a major problem in the school setting. When teachers do not conform to district policy, pressures can be brought to bear to bring the teacher in line with school policy. Hanson discussed this problem as follows:

In the classical theorist's world of "should be," the assumption exists that everyone is cognizant of a rule shares a similar interpretation. Under real world conditions it is rare for everyone to be aware of (or even care about) all the rules and even rarer for everyone to share the same interpretation. In schools the problem is compounded because the educational instruction has a relatively undefined technology that almost defies a precise and uniform definition among educators. The board of education, the superintendent, or the principal may make rules about "the application of firm procedures of discipline," or the "utilization of team teaching in the classroom," or the "participation of teachers in all major decisions concerning the schools." A precise meaning of these regulations, however, is by no means self-evident. Hence, when the same rule is interpreted and implemented by different people, the possibility of different courses of action being taken is very real (50, 1979, pp. 44-45).

In the opening statement of the Clark County School District Regulations and Policies Manual, the organization attempted to explain their reliance on the bureaucratic mode of rules codification.

"The Policy Manual ... saves time, effort and money, by
providing consistent answers to the many questions arising in governing the schools. Questions that arise can be answered by a quick referral to the policy manual." The organizational structure of the Clark County School District in itself is an explicit control factor.

Philosophy of Administration and Organization

Whenever a number of people are concerned in carrying out an undertaking, administration is necessary to plan, staff, implement, coordinate, control and evaluate the efforts of those people toward commonly accepted goals.

The administration must be able to anticipate the needs of the enterprise far in advance and must develop plans which will accommodate these needs. It must have clearly in mind the goals which are being worked toward. It must develop cooperatively with the staff ways of achieving these goals.

The type of leadership needed in the top administrative positions of the Clark County School District must be of the highest order to enable children and youth of the community to benefit from the best educational program possible, and to give the taxpayers of the District full value for the expenditure of their money.

Operational decisions can be made effectively at the school or department level with the development of adequate policy and delegation of authority (91, 1982, Policy 2110).

The regulation developed from Policy 2110 explicitly details what the Superintendent is to do within the organization. The terms used are highly bureaucratic in nature: "The Superintendent shall enforce the statutes of Nevada, rules of the State Board, and the policies of this Board." "The Superintendent may promulgate regulations to implement law or Board policy." "Such regulations shall be
binding when issued and shall be provided to the Board." In a policy statement numbered 0300, the Board stated: "The Board, with the Superintendent, develops and publishes sound rules governing its plans of operation." This policy further stated: "The responsibilities and respective roles of each are clearly defined and set forth in writing." Clark County School District Policy 2130 outlined the organizational structure of the Clark County School District as follows:

CLARK COUNTY SCHOOL DISTRICT POLICY 2130

DISTRICT ORGANIZATION

The Superintendent shall organize the administrative staff for the efficient and effective operation of the District and for the implementation of Board policy. The Superintendent shall recommend for Board approval any changes in the administrative organizational plan at divisional and department levels.

3. Responsibility shall flow simply and clearly from the Board of School Trustees through the Superintendent to central office administrators, principals, certificated and classified employees.

4. Employees shall be informed as to whom they are responsible and for what functions. Whenever possible, employees shall be made responsible to only one immediate superior per function.

5. Employees shall be informed to whom they can go for assistance in meeting the responsibilities of their position (94, 1982, Policy 2130).

In an attempt to determine the amount of explicit control exerted in the Clark County School District, a series of questions were asked of the sample group selected for the interview process
(see Appendix A). These questions focused on the decision-making process and on what the administrators base their decisions. While fourteen of those interviewed stated that their decisions are not completely dominated by the Regulations and Policies Manual, all twenty indicated that the rules and regulations do at least set the parameters for their decisions. Fourteen of the respondents indicated that the majority of their decisions were repetitive and governed by the regulations based on policy often developed from state laws. Fifteen of those interviewed felt that at least some of their subordinates follow directions, due to the punishments built into the regulations established by the administration of the Clark County School District in compliance with Board policy. Three of the interviewees indicated a charismatic loyalty to explain why their subordinates followed directions given to them. Four of the respondents felt a commitment to education explained their subordinates' willingness to comply with administrative directives. Their commitment to education will cause compliance as long as rules and regulations do not seem counter-productive.

**Decision Making and Responsibility**

**Profile Z.** Whereas American corporations encourage executives to be decisive, to act forcefully, and accept the consequences, Japanese corporations make decisions by a tedious collective compromise that can sometimes involve as many as sixty to eighty individuals, each of whom holds a potential veto. Pascales stated that the Japanese are as interested in Americans in getting
decisions made. When they have time, the Japanese prefer to use a collective decision-making process. The Japanese believe the workers of an organization will be more committed to a decision if they take part in making it. The Japanese managers go so far as to believe they are obligated to include all employees who are to be affected by a decision (88, 1981, pp. 174-175). What ordinarily happens in Japan is those people who are to carry out the new policy or program are involved at the earliest planning stage. This participatory approach to decision making is probably the best known feature of Japanese organizations. The Japanese go to great lengths to involve employees in the life of the company. While General Motors actively recruits suggestions from employees and even offers up to $10,000 for a proposal that is adopted, the company receives an average of less than one suggestion per employee per year, and only one-third are accepted. In the same time period at Toyota's main plant at Nagoya, officials received more than nine suggestions per worker per year, and adopted vast majority (55, 1981, p. 56). Matsushita viewed employees' recommendations as instrumental to making improvement. He believed that a great many little people paying attention each day to how to improve their jobs can accomplish more than a whole headquarters full of production engineers and planners.

The Theory Z organization uses a consensual, participative, and collective decision-making process. Ouchi and Jaeger explained this decision-making process in the following quote:
The mode of decision making refers to typical ways of dealing with nonroutine problems. Individual decision making is a mode by which the manager may or may not solicit information or opinion from others, but he or she expects and is expected by others to arrive at a decision without obligation to consider the views of others. Under consensual decision making, the manager will not decide until others who will be affected have had sufficient time to offer their views, feel they have been fairly heard, and are willing to support the decision even though they may not feel that it is the best one (85, 1978, p. 308).

The Japanese dislike making decisions in an arbitrary manner. The Japanese conduct their dialogues in circles, widening and narrowing them to correspond to the others' sensitivity to the feedback (88, 1981, p. 151). They discuss issues thoroughly, but once all perspectives have been expressed, they more willingly let a consensus decide. The group can be said to have achieved consensus when it finally agrees upon a single alternative and when each member of the group can honestly say three things: (1) "I believe you understand my point of view"; (2) "I believe that I understand your point of view"; and (3) "Whether or not I prefer this decision, I will support it, because it was arrived at in an open and fair manner" (84, 1981, p. 43).

Since the employees realize their ideas are being heard and implemented, their desire to be a part of the decision-making process and to improve their work environment increases.

In a real sense, a participative approach to management asks all workers to give more. They are not being asked to carry heavier loads nor to exert themselves more physically. The productivity gains come from improved coordination rather than from increased physical effort. However, these improvements
in coordination come only if all employees willingly engage in analysis, planning, and decision making (84, 1981, p. 190).

Rensis Likert's studies indicated that participative companies, like Theory Z organizations, were more profitable and had healthier employees than did autocratic organizations. He also found that very few people preferred the autocratic system of management (84, 1981, p. 178). Kimbrough indicated employee satisfaction is highly important. "If an individual derives sufficient satisfaction from his involvement in the cooperative effort, he will continue it; if not, he will not continue it" (60, 1976, p. 66). Argyis reported in the Journal of Business:

Studies show that participative management tends to 1) increase the degree of "we" feeling or cohesiveness that participants have with an overall organizational point of view instead of the traditional more "now" departmental point of view; 3) decrease the amount of conflict, hostility and cutthroat competition of participants; 4) increase individuals' understanding of each other, which leads to increased tolerance and patience toward others; 5) increase the individual's free expression of his personality, which results in an employee who sticks with the organization because he (i.e., his personality) needs the gratifying experiences he finds while working there; and 6) develop a "work climate" as a result of the other tendencies, in which the subordinates find opportunity to be more creative and to come up with the ideas beneficial to the organization (35, 1974, p. 555).

John Madden, the highly successful football coach of the then-Oakland Raiders of the National Football League, explained the importance of the feeling of "we-ness" in the following quote:

I always thought that if the quarterback called the plays, the right spirit would emanate from the group. It would be a "we" thing inside the huddle, a "we" thing marching to the line, a "we" thing after the ball was snapped. If the play worked, the players
would look at it as their triumph and would be pumped-up. Conversely, if it failed, they'd assume the responsibility and fight that much harder the next time (66, 1982, p. 23).

Teamwork sounds good in principle, but it takes a great deal of executive time to develop an effective team. It is not possible to simply order subordinates to behave like a team. Followers and leaders must unite for mutual goal achievement, and this uniting can often be tedious and time-consuming. In the end, however, the group benefits because all members will be aligned in support of the same goal. Sandra O'Connell suggested that problem solving is essentially two adults talking with mutual respect. From problem-solving communications, the organization will benefit from better solutions (81, 1979, pp. 22-23). Evidence tells us that a consensus approach yields more creative decisions and more effective implementation than does individual decision making.

Perhaps the most difficult aspect of Japanese management for Westerners to comprehend is the strong orientation toward collective values, particularly a collective sense of responsibility.

In Japan no one individual carries responsibilities for a particular turf. Rather, a group or a team of employees assumes joint responsibility for a set of tasks. While we wonder at their comfortableness in not knowing who is responsible for what, they know quite well that each is completely responsible for all tasks, and they share that responsibility jointly. . . . this approach leads to a naturally participative decision making and problem solving (84, 1981, p. 50).

In the Japanese mind, nothing of consequence occurs as a result of individual effort. Everything important happens as a result of teamwork or collective effort. To fix blame on a single individual
is a fruitless effort. Japanese executives do not value bravado or "legend-making" moves as much as Americans do. The Japanese emphasize the organization's achievements over time more than an individual's one-shot success (88, 1981, p. 174). The notion of independence in managerial thought and action is not a salient feature for Japanese managers. The Japanese value persistence, care, judgment, attention to detail, but do not comprehend the term "independence." Independence is not a relevant term in the way the Japanese manager thinks (88, 1981, pp. 195-196).

In Theory Z organizations, the decision making may be collective, but the ultimate responsibility for the decision still resides in one individual. Ouchi felt that Americans will never be able to tolerate the collective form of responsibility (84, 1981, pp. 78-79). Ouchi and Jaeger approached the problem as follows:

Although responsibility is not easily distinguished from decision making style in all cases, it represents an important, independent dimension. Individual responsibility as a value is a necessary precondition to conferring rewards upon individuals in a meritocracy. A manager possibly could engage in consensual decision making while clearly retaining individual responsibility for the decision. Indeed, the Type Z organization exhibits just this combination. In the J (Japanese) organization, responsibility for overseeing projects and for accepting rewards or punishments is borne collectively by all members of a sub-unit. American companies in Japan which have attempted to introduce the notion of individual responsibility among managers and blue collar workers have found strong resistance from their employees. But in the United States individual responsibility is such a central part of the national culture that no organization can replace it with the collective value of the J type (85, 1978, p. 308).
This sense of individual responsibility creates tension in the Theory Z organization. When collective decision making takes place, the leader places his fate in the hands of the group, and this calls for a great deal of trust. The leader is asked to accept responsibility for decisions he may not prefer, but that the group has, in an open manner, decided.

Profile B. It is difficult to find American managers with participative leadership temperaments. The Theory Z manager is called upon to share his power and the spotlight with subordinates. This sharing is often contrary to a bureaucratic manager's ego needs. For the bureaucratic manager, the concern with power is acute. This need for self-protection or aggrandizement leads to open and frequent displays of power; it also leads to a constant expression of competitive aggression, which has become a valued style of behavior among American corporate leaders (88, 1981, pp. 239-240).

American idols are rough, tough individualists, the John Waynes, the Evil Knevels and the Gloria Stienhems. Our most pitiable failures are those who lose their individualism to some larger, corporate entity and become organizational men, faceless persons in flannel grey suits (86, 1978, p. 306).

Americans assume that an executive needs to get all the power he can and needs to use it openly. If the executive does not blatantly use his power, it is feared that he will lose it.

A U.S. News & World Report article alluded to the frontier tradition when explaining the drive for individualistic leadership in this country.

Because of our frontier tradition, we tend to value two-fisted, individualistic leaders. We choose them as
though we were selecting winners for a Miss Universe contest, looking for flashy qualities - articulateness, personal attractiveness, toughness. We like leaders able to deal with the media and who have a knack for saying things cleverly (115, 1981, p. 54).

But this frontier spirit may have been misread.

The United States was indeed forged by a frontier spirit that valued cooperation and collective enterprise (i.e., the barn raising, husking bees, etc.). Western thinking was politically collective as well. John Locke and Oliver Wendell Holmes believed that individuality, at some point, has to give ground to group needs (55, 1981, p. 60).

Bureaucratic structure and administration are designed to routinize problem solving. By establishing set methods for solving problems, answering questions, and dealing with issues in a programmed, systematic way, problem solving will take a minimum of human and material resources. Hanson dealt with the issue in this manner:

By routinizing the process of organization, the myriad of competing demands on the system can be dispatched quickly and efficiently through established standing operating procedures. Hence, the multitude of round holes are created to which must fit pegs of all sizes and shapes (50, 1977, p. 23).

However, the bureaucratic model, in emphasizing the formal distribution of authority, does not prepare us for many of the events that actually occur in public schools. All too often, a bureaucracy will fail to do that which makes sense because common sense does not fit the rules. Americans have been conditioned to feel ambiguous as meaning incomplete, unstable, and in need of cleaning-up. The American drive for closure often prompts the manager to make premature choices based on conceptual analysis and substantive merit, but without due regard for implementation feasibility. The manager
then struggles to get his people to comply forcing more than would be necessary had they decided later and differently. All too often, bureaucrats are trained not to allow personal values to intrude on decisions and, therefore, will treat their clients in an unfeeling manner (84, 1981, p. 93).

The Clark County School District sample group was asked eight questions dealing with their feelings toward collective decision making and individual responsibility. Twelve of those interviewed felt that when decisions are made by those higher in the chain of command, they do so without consulting them. Fifteen of the twenty felt that they should be consulted on issues that affect their daily operations. All of those interviewed indicated that when they make decisions, they almost always consult others in the organization. Ten of those sampled consulted those higher in the chain of command; thirteen indicated they contacted those lower; and fifteen said they contacted those on the same step. Only nine consulted the Regulations and Policies Manual, and six tried to contact all those who would be affected by the decision. Six respondents indicated they felt collective decisions were usually the best decisions. Five of those sampled felt it depended on the decisions; the other nine felt decisions were best made by one person. Nineteen of the twenty felt that there must always be one person responsible for a decision. When asked about the advantage of collective decision making, the most common answer was "ownership" of those involved. The greatest disadvantage identified by those in the sample group was the time involved in reaching a collective decision.
Profile Z. The purpose of any organization is the unification of the group's effort toward a common objective. With this in mind, Sergiovanni stated that the ideal school is made up of highly motivated individuals who are committed to school objectives. Whereas scientific management characterized by the bureaucracy emphasizes specialization, the Theory Z work group is committed to common objectives and is characterized by group loyalty and mutual support (99, 1979, p. 15).

The Theory Z culture deals with the worker's life as a whole; it does not look upon the worker as a machine from nine to five and a human in the hours before and after work. By humanizing attitudes toward workers, the Theory Z corporations have found that they not only increase productivity and profits of the company but the self-esteem of the worker (84, 1981, p. 195). Pascales found that the Japanese see each individual as having economic, social, psychological, and spiritual needs, much as we do when we step back and think about individuals. But Japanese executives assume it is their task to attend to much more of the whole of the person, and not leave so much to other institutions. . . . And they believe it is only when the individual's needs are met within the subculture of a corporation that they can largely be freed for productive work that is in larger part outstanding. United States' executives, conditioned by a society which for good reason firmly separated church from state, and later the corporation from both, perhaps naturally assumed in the early years of this century that the mandate of the corporation was much more narrowly economic (88, 1981, p. 123).

Wholistic relationships are consequences rather than a cause of organizational integration. They help maintain the egalitarian nature of the organization by bringing subordinates and superiors
together as temporary equals. A wholistic relationship cannot be developed, but once Theory Z principles are put into effect, wholism will develop (84, 1981, p. 120). A wholistic relationship provides an atmosphere that encourages egalitarian attitudes.

Ouchi stated that leaders of Theory Z companies show great concern for the welfare of subordinates and peers as a natural part of work relations. Relations between executive and subordinate tend to be informal and emphasize the whole person. The wholistic approach inevitably maintains a strong egalitarian atmosphere, and this is a basic characteristic of the Theory Z corporation. By maintaining a wholistic nature, employees are forced, at all levels, to deal with one another as complete human beings. Under these conditions, depersonalization is impossible, autocracy unlikely, and open communication, trust, and commitment are commonplace (84, 1981, p. 80).

Corporate life is, for the most part, integrated and interdependent. No one completes a corporate task alone. The Japanese view of collectivism fits naturally into an industrial setting. The Western obsession with individualism is a constant cause of conflict in what is inherently a collective activity. The Japanese value the concept of Hosa, which translates into English as "assist," as a concept that reminds the Japanese manager that all success is a group effort (88, 1981, p. 232). All executives are aware, whether they admit it or not, that peers, superiors, and subordinates provide the support needed for success. The Theory Z model openly admits the role of collectivism and uses it to the benefit of the entire organization. In the Theory Z organization, group identity supersedes
individual identity. Loyalty to one's group is the most respected personal attribute. In the Theory Z corporation, managers are encouraged to coach their subordinates, to take them to lunch, and to bring their juniors along to meetings and presentations.

On the one hand, they expect a subordinate to assist his senior in such a way that he leaves to his boss all credit for outward appearances. On the other hand, it is wholly understood that whatever a boss achieves is the result of the subordinate's efforts and support backstage. The Japanese simply can't imagine giving sole credit to the person in the spotlight (88, 1981, p. 230).

Berg stated that educational leaders should have a clear understanding of their functions, a desire for and a knowledge of group dynamics (11, 1977, pp. 213-214).

People identify with an organization for reasons that are related to their needs. Obviously, their employment provides the income that they use for sustenance and for the physical needs they satisfy in their outside activities. In addition, however, their employment provides them an opportunity to apply their skills and training. It can also reward them with social contacts and with the recognition given them for their performance. In that way institutional purpose becomes intangled in a complexity of human wants, desires, and expectations and the broader goals and needs of the organization (21, 1973, p. 21).

The Theory Z manager considers it essential to be fully informed of the personal circumstances of each subordinate (85, 1978, p. 304). The Theory Z organization forms inclusive relationships (84, 1981, p. 52). Pascales stated:

The dilemma for modern Western organizations is that, like it or not, they play a very central role in the lives of many who work for them. Employees in all ranks of the hierarchy not only "work" at their jobs, but 1) derive much of their social contact there, and 2) often locate themselves in social relations outside
Japanese companies provide extensive social services for their employees. For example, they go so far as to house new employees in dormitories. Much of the employee's life outside the work setting is spent in company social clubs. The firm strives to build strong ties with its employees in the belief that workers will become loyal to the company.

To a Japanese worker, his company is not an oppressor but rather a source of his income and the expression of his place in society. Says Ryutaro Nohmur, 57, who owns a tent making firm in Osaka: "Employees in Japan view their company as an extension of their family life. Indeed many of them equate the importance of their company with that of their own life" (55, 1981, p. 58).

Profile B. Prior to the last great industrial revolution in America, the typical American relied on the neighborhood, church, and family to provide social outlets. However, with the advent of urbanization, ties to neighborhoods, churches, and families were strained to the point of breaking. Social observers point to this weakening of social ties as the basic cause of increasing alcoholism, divorce, crime, and other symptoms of mental illness plaguing America today (85, 1978, p. 305). Most Americans seem to favor a work organization which provides associational ties, stability, and job security. They are, however, reluctant to consider the work organization as a viable part of their social life. This reluctance is probably an outgrowth of the mine and factory owners' paternalism of the late nineteenth century. Ouchi and Jaeger believed we need to find a uniquely American solution which allows individual freedom, while
using the work organization to support and encourage the stability of associational ties.

The surprising finding was that Japanese companies with operations in the United States are applying a modified form of the pure Japanese type with some success. While they do not provide company housing or large bonuses as in Japan, they attempt to create the same sort of complete inclusion of the employees into the company. Supervisors are taught to be aware of all aspects of an employee's life; extra-work social life is often connected other employees and corporate values are adjusted to reflect employee needs as well as profit needs, and high job security is protected above all else. The American employees expressed a liking for this "atmosphere" or "climate," with the managerial staff in particular noting the difference from their previous employers (85, 1978, pp. 306-307).

In the bureaucratic organization, the supervisor sees the subordinate in a purely task-oriented light and may consider it improper to inquire into his personal life. Most bureaucratic organizations practice "partial inclusion"; this involves the understanding between employees and employer that the connection between them involves only those activities directly related to the completion of a specific job. American social scientists argue that partial inclusion maintains the emotional health of individuals.

When the sample group of administrators were asked about the role Clark County School District played in their social life, only five felt that the role was a viable one. Three of those, who felt the district did play a viable role in their social life, indicated that this was not a desirable situation. They felt that if they could, they would totally isolate their social and professional lives. Eight of the respondents used the terms "rarely," "seldom," or "not often" when asked how frequently they met socially with their
peers. All but one of the respondents felt that this small amount of social contact was desirable. Professionally, their contacts were more frequent. In many cases, the interviewees reported that they had daily contacts with peers professionally. Those who reported less than daily contact indicated that they felt more contact would be desirable. When asked to indicate the ideal gap between social contact with peers, all of the respondents indicated there was little need for social contact. For the Clark County School District administrator, professional contact was judged to be the most important of the two. For the sample group, the ideal frequency of professional contact varied from daily to six times a year. When asked if their position was easily understood and identifiable in its relationship to other positions in the district, all but one respondent felt that it was. However, this seemed to be due to the flow chart, policies, and regulations rather than to an overall understanding of the organization.

**Management Systems**

**Profile Z.** The goal of general systems theory is to provide a vehicle for understanding and integrating knowledge from the many specialized fields found within an organization. This assumes there are enough common denominators in each specialized segment of the organization to serve as unifying principles. Ludwig Von Bertalanfly is often credited with being the first advocate of this idea and is generally credited with being the "father" of the general systems theory (60, 1976, p. 75). Carlisle stated that as organizations
grow in size, there is a greater need for formal procedures to co­ordinate and integrate activities. Structure deserves consideration as one of the key factors in any management situation (21, 1973, p. 27). Doctoroff, in his book, Synergistic Management, explained the idea of contrived control as a mechanism used to ensure the "right" amount of stimulation within the organization.

As a way of thinking, the systems movement is of great value to the practicing administrator. An administrator given to this approach will be goal oriented; will examine the context of problem faced (e.g., consider the totality of the situation); will be aware of the dynamic inter-relations among groups, events and ideas; will seek feedback; will examine various alternatives; and will be cognizant of possible long-range impact (60, 1976, p. 77).

According to Pascales, the various systems that are employed to move information through the organization, make decisions, and implement change are management's most powerful tools for expressing how it wants an organization to work and what it wants accomplished (88, 1981, p. 49). General systems theorists believe it is possible to represent all forms of matter as systems. Other scholars say that systems are not theory at all, but really methodology which is empirical and inter-disciplinary (60, 1976, p. 83).

Kimbrough explained the system-oriented manager as follows:

The systems oriented administrator, although recognizing the necessity for dealing with the immediate realities, approaches events with the conviction that these are general principles that can usually be applied to the specific . . . System theorists stress the relationships between a system and its environment (60, 1976, pp. 112-113).

The most commonly referred-to management system, in both Theory Z and bureaucratic organizations, is Management By Objectives
(MBO). According to Campbell, managerial decisions of administrators are useless, unless they are to implement programs which have grown out of pre-determined goals (20, 1962, p. 77). Knezevich felt this developing of operational goals plays a major role in coordinating personal goals with organizational goals (61, 1972, p. 18). At the Hewlett-Packard Corporation, the major philosophy of managing was summed up by the concept of MBO.

MBO is the process in which employees at all levels in the organization make their individual plans to achieve company objectives and goals. After receiving management approval, each employee is given a wide degree of freedom to work within the limitations imposed by these plans, and by the general corporate objectives. Performance, in turn, should be judged on the basis of how well these individually established goals have been achieved (70, 1978, p. 47).

Goal statements are used for accountability when evaluating the tasks performed. MBO becomes especially valuable when several people work on the same project. MBO forces the managers and employees to agree on desired outcomes and work plans to insure the agreed-upon results. Goal statements also provide a means of evaluating employee performance for a specific time frame (70, 1978, p. 73). Knezevich felt it is not necessary that all the objectives of an organization be identified at one time. A school may start with those problems recognized by teachers, students, or administrators, or the pressure produced by the community, state legislature, or federal agencies (61, 1972, p. 18). Hewlett-Packard felt that managers benefit from employee participation by gaining their increased commitment and motivation. They felt better-quality decisions
result when managers are responsive to employee suggestions, grievances, and ideas.

The results-oriented managerial appraisal could lead to a new approach to job or position description as well. . . . You don't tell a principal that his job is to turn in certain reports on a given schedule, supervise teachers, handle discipline problems, or take tickets at all athletic events. You specify instead pupil learning standards, teacher performance and morale levels, and community reactions to educational services instead as matters of responsibility for the principals (61, 1972, p. 14).

The assumption is that morale will be higher and productivity greater when the individual knows what is expected and he has the ability to meet those expectations. Hewlett-Packard stressed the fact that MBO is a two-way street. Management must be sure that each individual understands the immediate objectives as well as corporate goals and policies (70, 1978, p. 41).

Ed Carlson of United Airlines believes in visible management and a system he calls MBWA (Management By Walking Around). MBWA stresses a hands-on, direct participation of managers not long-range order-giving. While Carlson pokes fun at the elaborate MBO of Theory Z and the many ideas of the holders of the degree of Masters of Business Administration, he still accepts the fact that in a successful management approach, there is a coherent system and an underlying logic to the whole (88, 1981, p. 257). Leaders in a Theory Z organization carefully design a system for: (1) defining personal functions, (2) aligning the performance standards of each-position, and (3) developing and implementing methods of measurements.

Profile B. The management systems used by educators have developed over the years to implement, support, and monitor the
instructional programs. The system used by most school districts is the classical industrial production-military "line-staff" model that characterizes the bureaucracy. Ouchi has found in his study of American management practices that Management By Objectives, program planning, evaluation, and cost benefit analysis are among the basic tools used as control mechanisms in American management. Ouchi also discovered that every major American company and government bureau devotes a great deal of time to the setting of specific and measurable performance goals (84, 1981, p. 40).

All twenty of the interviewees indicated that management systems are a vital part of the Clark County School District. Eighteen of the twenty respondents felt that directly or indirectly they deal with management systems on a daily basis. The most commonly listed systems were Management By Objectives, High Priority Objectives, and Elements of Quality. Nineteen of the twenty indicated that their decisions were based on objectives established by a systematic method. Once again, they referred most often to MBO or HPO. Thirteen of the interviewees indicated that management systems are used as the "bottom line" in decision making. One of the respondents indicated that management systems were guidelines for him; however, he felt the district would prefer that management systems be the deciding factor. The rest of the interviewees indicated management systems established parameters within which managers operate.

It was in this area that the Clark County School District and Theory Z organizations are the most similar. Similar management
systems designed to do basically the same things are apparent in both models of management. However, where management systems are deciding factors in the bureaucratic organizations, they are merely tools used to help make decisions in the Theory Z organization.

**Basic Philosophy**

_Profile Z._ The bedrock of Theory Z companies is a basic agreed-upon philosophy. It is the opportunity for the company to state what it is and what it is not. This statement of philosophy can help an organization to maintain a sense of uniqueness. A philosophy should clearly set forth the company's motivating spirit for all to understand. Ouchi outlined what a corporate philosophy must include as follows:

A corporate philosophy must include 1) the objectives of the organization, 2) the operating procedures of the organization and 3) the constraints placed on the organization by its social and economic environment. It thus specifies not only ends, but also means. In most cases these statements will not be complete. In some areas the ends are not fully specified while at other times the means are incomplete (84, 1981, p. 134).

When goals are too ambiguous, "to help these kids learn as much as possible in the short time they are with us," problems emerge when specific issues arise and the generalized goal provides no help in making choices (50, 1979, pp. 124-125). It is essential that the philosophy specify the desired objectives and a means to reach the goals as well. A complete statement of philosophy builds in the subtle and the complex, so those elements regularly come to the attention of managers and employees (84, 1981, p. 137). A philosophy
provides a statement of responses to problems, explains why certain behavior will be rewarded, and accounts for the company image. Ouchi felt that a complete statement of philosophy will be written in a general manner which provides each employee and manager with guidance. The philosophy is of little value if it is not expressed in the everyday operations of the company. The philosophy can replace bureaucratic methods of giving orders and closely supervising workers, thus leading to both increased productivity and supportive relationships at work (84, 1981, p. 132).

For the non-managerial employee, a clear, widely-distributed statement of philosophy serves as a protection. Each employee will understand the company philosophy as it relates to employee rights and to employee participation in decision making. A foreman who abuses those rights or who fails to involve employees in decision making cannot claim to be doing what he or she was told or what is normal elsewhere in the company (84, 1981, p. 142).

Hanson felt the potential for conflict always exists in the organization; therefore, it is imperative that a process be worked out that insures a relatively clear understanding by all in the organization as to what must be done and when it must be done (50, 1979, p. 124). As dependent as Theory Z companies are on long-range planning, a basic philosophy for all to understand and within which to operate is of the utmost importance. All employees need to be aware of acceptable goals.

Profile B. The Clark County School District has attempted to state an overall philosophy in the policy statement quoted below:
STATEMENT OF EDUCATIONAL PRINCIPLES

I. The Board of School Trustees of the Clark County School District recognizes that it has responsibility for educating all students in the District regardless of ability, race, color, religion, nationality, or sex. The Board also recognizes that the home is the most important factor in shaping the personality, health, and character of students and it totally supports a well-adjusted and stable home life. It therefore accepts the responsibility of sharing with the home the task of developing the highest standards of achievement and moral conduct in our students.

II. The Board of School Trustees of this District believes the most important educational task assigned to the school is that of maximum intellectual development of students, including the development society. Therefore, this District will concentrate its resources on developing an educational program to discharge this most important responsibility (91, 1982).

The district also deals with the problem of discrimination in two statements of policy based on philosophy. The first statement is:

AFFIRMATIVE ACTION PROGRAM FOR SCHOOL AND CLASSROOM PRACTICES

The Board of School Trustees shall provide all students in the Clark County School District an equal opportunity to achieve their maximum potential through the programs offered in District schools, regardless of race, color, age, creed, religion, sex, national origin, handicap or marital or parental status.

The second statement is:

NONDISCRIMINATION IN EMPLOYMENT

The Board of School Trustees of the Clark County School District is an equal opportunity employer and will not knowingly discriminate in any area of employment practices, including recruiting and hiring, against any United States citizen or legal alien on the basis of race, color, creed, religion, sex, age, marital status, national or ethnic origin, or physical handicap. This shall extend to working conditions of employment (91, 1982).
While sixteen of the twenty interviewees felt there were assumptions that could be made about responses to problems and decisions, eighteen felt it was not due to an over-riding philosophy, but to an understanding of the rules and regulations in the Clark County School District Regulations and Policies Manual. Twelve of the interviewees went so far as to indicate there was no philosophy stated, and all of them indicated that if there was a philosophy, it had little to do with their day-to-day operation. There appeared to be no over-riding philosophy guiding the Clark County School District. The policy and regulations manual appeared to fill this role for the Clark County School District.

**Summary**

Chapter 4 has provided the current profiles of the two approaches to institutional management with which this study was concerned. Profile Z dealt with the Japanese model, and Profile B treated the bureaucratic approach found in a typical, large public school system. Because of basic components common to the description of eight selected characteristics of the current "Z" model, a description of "what is" in each category was provided.

In Chapter 5, a report of the findings is made. Further, based on the findings, the results are reported in relation to the eight sub-hypotheses and the main hypothesis. Chapter 5 concludes with a series of conclusions drawn from the findings and a collection of recommendations for further study.
Chapter 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

Chapter 5 presents a summary of the findings in Chapter 4 and reports the conclusions drawn from those findings. Recommendations will be made about possible future studies in the area of adapting Theory Z management to the public school setting.

An Overview of the Study

The Problem and Purpose of the Study

An overview of managerial growth in American education was developed through an extensive review of related literature. Based on the readings, a number of issues became apparent: (1) Business management has been a growing organic matter; (2) public schools have often emulated or adapted features of various business management styles to the public schools; and (3) the latest innovation in private management is Theory Z, William Ouchi's adaptation of Japanese management principles to American industry. With these three propositions in mind, two major questions arose: First, is it possible to incorporate Theory Z principles into the daily operation of the public school? And second, assuming attempts are made to implement some or all of the principles of Theory Z into the public schools, what facilitators and barriers are the adaptors
likely to encounter in making the transition from current management practices to practices based on a Theory Z model? In an attempt to answer these two questions, it was hypothesized the adaptors would encounter more barriers than facilitators. Eight specific sub-hypotheses were selected for study.

Given the problem, it was the purpose of this study to seek to identify the nature of facilitators and barriers to the implementation of Theory Z management into the public school setting by means of a comparative analysis of selected characteristics of Theory Z and selected characteristics of the bureaucracy as it exists in a representative school system in this country.

The Theory Z profile was built from current literature dealing with Theory Z and business administration. The bureaucratic management profile was developed from: (1) Current literature on the bureaucracy, (2) questionnaires and personal interviews with members of the Clark County School District administration, and (3) a review of policy manuals, regulations in force, and the daily operating procedures of the Clark County School District. The steps involved in this study were as follows:

1. There was an extensive review of literature to outline the historical development of administrative theory in America. This review was used to establish the fact that public school management has relied on general management theory as a basis of operation.

2. From the literature, it was established that public school management is most often bureaucratic in nature and seems to have little in common with proposed Theory Z management.
3. To provide a basis for comparison, the Clark County School District was used as an example of an educational system where: (a) business models of management have been borrowed, and (b) where bureaucratic characteristics are in evidence.

4. Through the use of questionnaires, personal interviews, and an examination of policy and regulations as well as current operating procedures, an attempt was made to determine what actually takes place in the Clark County School District in relationship to the eight selected characteristics of Theory Z.

5. From this comparison, conclusions about each of the eight sub-hypotheses were drawn for presentation in Chapter 5. Following from these conclusions, answers were provided to the two central questions: (a) Is it possible to incorporate Theory Z principles into the daily operation of the public school? and (b) Assuming attempts will be made to implement some or all portions of Theory Z management into the public school setting, what facilitators and barriers are the adaptors likely to encounter in making the transition from current management practices in the public school? By developing a description of current practice in each of the eight sub-hypotheses, a conclusion could be drawn regarding the basic hypothesis, that is, it could be determined whether or not attempts to incorporate Theory Z principles into public school management would encounter more barriers than facilitators.
Summary of the Findings

Since the turn of the century, American public school administrators have adapted general business management practices to the public school setting. Chapter 2 represented an extensive review of business and school management developed from 1900-1981. Kimbrough, in his 1976 book, Educational Administration, stated that "many of the concepts relevant to the practice of educational administration had their origins in the field of business administration" (60, 1976, p. 45). Sergiovanni agreed with Kimbrough. He felt, however, that business administration is only one of many fields from which public school administration borrows. Chapter 2 of this study traced the growth of both business management and management of the public school through three major eras: the Traditional Era 1900-1930, the Transitional Era 1930-1960, and the Present Era 1960-1980, with correlations shown throughout. From this review of the adaptation of business administration principles to public school administration, it was concluded that a trend existed and the practice of borrowing business management principles would continue.

The writer analyzed the Clark County School District as a bureaucracy. Five selected features of the bureaucracy, as outlined by Hanson in his book, Educational Administration and Organizational Behavior, were used: (1) Hierarchical Structure, (2) Division of Labor, (3) Control by Rules, (4) Impersonal Relations, and (5) Career Orientation. The analysis of the Clark County School District policy manuals, rules, regulations and procedures in terms of these
five factors substantiated the bureaucratic nature of the Clark County School District.

Having established that historically public school management has adapted business management principles to their mode of operation, and that the Clark County School District is sufficiently bureaucratic in nature to permit comparison, the study moved to seek answers to the two primary questions and to prove or disprove one major hypothesis. The first question was: "Is it possible to incorporate selected Theory Z principles into the public school?" The second question was: "What barriers and facilitators are the adaptors likely to encounter in attempting to incorporate selected Theory Z principles into the public school?" To complete this task, principles of Theory Z that might be adaptable to the public school setting were identified and compared with present practices in a representative urban school setting. The eight Theory Z characteristics selected for study were: (1) Long-term Employment, (2) Relatively Slow Evaluation and Promotion, (3) Wandering Career Paths, (4) Implicit and Explicit Control, (5) Collective Decision Making and Individual Responsibility, (6) Wholism, (7) Management Systems, and (8) an Over-riding Agreed-upon Philosophy.

Based on the profiles developed in each of the eight categories, the following findings, conclusions, and recommendations are provided.
Findings

1. Long-term employment of school personnel is neither a concern nor a consideration of current school management. It was found that the average administrator has served eighteen years in various positions in the Clark County School District and has been an administrator for over eleven years. Both of these figures meet the requirement set for long-term employment in a Theory Z organization. However, it was also found that this longevity was not due to an overt concern for long-term employment on the part of the Clark County School District but rather to bureaucratic benefits of vested retirement, competitive salary schedules, and fairly rapid promotion, all of which are antithetical to a Theory Z model. The sample group interviewed felt the Clark County School District did nothing to overtly encourage them to make a career with the Clark County School District. This hypothesis was supported. Further, the lack of concern might prove to be a barrier to instituting a program of overt effort to encourage young administrators to work in the Clark County School District.

2. Relatively slow evaluation and promotion are not characteristic of public school management. It was found that state law (NRS 391.3125) requires yearly evaluation of post-probationary employees and evaluation four times a year for probationary employees. This law was written into policy and regulations within the Clark County School District. Those administrators interviewed indicated the Clark County School District was in compliance with the Nevada
Revised Statutes that require frequent evaluation. The respondents indicated that more frequent evaluation would be more desirable than less evaluation. Only two respondents felt a greater time span between evaluation would be desirable. The state law on evaluation and present administrative attitude toward evaluation could be barriers to incorporating a process of long-term evaluation into the public school setting.

There is no set pattern of promotion within the Clark County School District; however, promotion has been fairly rapid. In reviewing the promotional pattern of the interviewees, it was not unusual for them to be promoted after having served only one or two years in a position. The average time between promotions was 4.3 years, and this is under the definition of slow promotion as a characteristic of Theory Z organizations. All but one of the respondents felt the districts' promotion policy was "about the way it should be," and they also indicated that had they not been promoted as rapidly, they would have looked elsewhere for an administrative opportunity. This sub-hypothesis was supported by the findings of the study. The attitude of the sample administrators, the district as an operational entity, as well as current evaluation and promotional process will act as barriers to the incorporation of these Theory Z characteristics into the public school setting. This two-part sub-hypothesis, slow evaluation and promotion, was also found to be a barrier due to current state law.
3. **Career paths do not tend to wander in the public school setting.** When the career paths of the sample group were reviewed, only two of the twenty showed even limited horizontal movement within the organization. Thirteen of those interviewed felt there was value to be had from horizontal movement; however, they also indicated it was secondary to vertical movement within the hierarchy. There did seem to be a general upward mobility. The findings of this study supported this hypothesis. This lack of wandering career paths and extreme value put on vertical movement by current Clark County School District would act as barriers to incorporating this facet of Theory Z management.

4. **Implicit and explicit controls are in evidence in the public school management setting, although explicit controls dominate.** The organizational structure of the Clark County School District in itself is an explicit control factor. The policy manual explicitly outlines the lines of control within the organization. Many of the interviewees indicated that rules and regulations set parameters for decision making, and they were emphatic as to the need for these explicit controls. The majority of those sampled also felt explicit factors were the most important reason why their subordinates followed directions and orders issued to them. Nearly all of the respondents felt both they and their subordinates had a commitment to the educational profession that could explain some of their willingness to comply with directions from superiors. Findings of the study substantiated this hypothesis, and while there are some implicit controls
in the Clark County School District, it is not the balance acceptable to a Theory Z practitioner. The district's reliance on specific control factors would prove a barrier to the incorporation of the implicit/explicit balance essential to a Theory Z organization.

5. **Collective decision making and individual responsibility are not facets of public school management.** It was found that while collective decision making was not highly developed in the Clark County School District, individual responsibility was highly prized. While the sample group spoke often about consulting others and the need to be consulted before decisions were made, only one respondent indicated that true collective decision making was desirable. Only six respondents felt decisions made collectively were the best decisions; five felt it depended on the decision. Nine of the respondents openly stated that decisions were best made by a single individual. All twenty respondents felt it was imperative that one person be the responsible party for any group activity within the organization. The findings of this study substantiated the first part of this hypothesis: collective decision making is not a facet of management in the Clark County School District. The lack of understanding of the collective decision-making process would act as a barrier to incorporating this facet of Theory Z management into a bureaucratic organization. The second part of this hypothesis was disproved by the findings of this study. Indeed, a great deal of value is placed on individual responsibility within the organization. This dependence on individual responsibility would act as a
facilitator in incorporating Theory Z management into the public school setting.

6. The public school is not wholistic in nature. There are two facets to wholism: (a) the overall role of the district in the life of the employee (social), and (b) the role of the employee within the organization as a whole (professional). Only five of those sampled felt that the district played a viable role in their social life; three of those felt it was an undesirable role. The terms most often used to describe social contact with peers was "seldom," and most felt this lack of contact was desirable. Professionally, contact was frequent, and most respondents felt that it was about the way it should be. They also indicated that they understood and were able to identify their position within the Clark County School District. There was an indication of a fairly easy and frequent crossing of departmental lines that circumvented the standard scalar principles of the bureaucracy. The interviewees did indicate that the district valued an overall knowledge of the district as a facet of promotion within the district. This required a consideration of three separate facets of this hypothesis: (a) the role of the district in the social life of the employee would suggest that wholism, as practiced in a Theory Z organization, is not a facet of the Clark County School District and further, there is little support for the district becoming a part of their social life; (b) professionally, there seems to be a great deal of formal contact between the various positions in the Clark County School District;
and (c) there seems to be a great deal of informal contacts, outside the bureaucratic structure, between the various segmented departments of the Clark County School District. Items two and three would be facilitators in the adaptation of Theory Z principles to the public school management setting. This theoretical sub-hypothesis was proven and, given the importance attached to wholism in Theory Z organization, the lack of interest in the social dimension would act as a barrier to the incorporation of Theory Z management into the public school setting.

7. Management systems are not in place in the public school management schemes. Numerous management schemes are in effect in the Clark County School District, and these include math-management, a language arts management program, and a reading management system. The evaluation program of the Clark County School District is a management system based on the Elements of Quality (see Appendix D). The over-riding management system is Management By Objectives (MBO). Some respondents, on the elementary level, also used the management system labeled High Priority Objectives (HPO). While thirteen of the respondents indicated that management systems were the "bottom line" in their decision-making process, this is not the use made of management systems in the Theory Z organization. This hypothesis was not proven, as there are a profusion of management systems in the Clark County School District. The fact that both the bureaucracy and Theory Z find management systems compatible to their
organizational situation would make this a facilitator to the introduction of Theory Z into public school administration.

8. A basic agreed-upon philosophy is not the guiding principle for public school management. The Clark County School District Board of Trustees attempted to state an overall philosophy in an opening comment in the Regulations and Policy Manual under the heading of "Statement of Educational Principles." They dealt philosophically with discrimination in two statements entitled, "Affirmative Action Program for School and Classroom Practices" and "Nondiscrimination in Employment." But there appears to be no real over-riding philosophy stated. The majority of the interviewees felt there were assumptions that could be made about responses to problems; however, they felt it was due to an understanding of the rules and regulations not due to an over-riding philosophy. Most of the interviewees went so far as to indicate that there was no philosophy stated, and they all indicated that if there was a stated philosophy, it did not affect their daily operations. Respondents did not indicate a dislike for an over-riding philosophy; they were merely ambivalent on the issue. While the analysis of available information on the Clark County School District supported the hypothesis, this study failed to discover anything that would indicate the matter of an agreed-to philosophy would be either a barrier or facilitator to adapting Theory Z management to public school management. This hypothesis proved to be true of the Clark County School District.
A final effort to identify barriers and facilitators in the current practices of the public school management setting led to the use of a survey instrument to determine attitudes dealing with various aspects of the personality and values of the Clark County School District administrator (see Appendix C). There were four major areas of management surveyed: (1) Locus of Control; (2) Tolerance Level; (3) Motivation: (a) Achievement Needs, (b) Belonging Needs, (c) Power Needs; and (4) Leadership Behavior.

1. **Locus of Control**

None of the respondents were in either of the two extremes of inward or outward directedness. The group was almost equally divided between moderately inward-directed and moderately outward-directed. A person who is inward-directed will find it difficult to adapt to Theory Z management with its emphases on cooperative and collective effort. Those who are outwardly directed will find the collective activity of Theory Z desirable. With nearly half of the respondents in the inwardly motivated group, this would be a barrier to the incorporation of Theory Z management into the public school setting.

2. **Tolerance Assessment**

This survey measured open-mindedness on the part of the individual administrator or prospective administrator in the Clark County School District. Two-thirds of the respondents proved to be close-minded to change according to this survey instrument. Close-mindedness could be a barrier to the incorporation of Theory Z into public school management.
3. **Motivational Analysis**

**Trait A: Achievement.** Only eight of the respondents' achievement needs fell in an area judged conducive to Theory Z management. These eight would be open to feedback and tend to be good at calculating how much give-and-take a situation would tolerate.

**Trait B: Belonging.** Present and prospective administrators indicated their need for belonging was not satisfied within the Clark County School District. Twenty-four of the thirty-nine respondents felt their ideal job would not be a means of satisfying this need.

**Trait C: Power.** Those who scored twenty or less on the power scale would most likely be able to adapt to a Theory Z leadership role. Only seven of the respondents felt their present job allowed them to operate in this realm, and none felt this would be an ideal power base from which to operate. The results of this part of the attitudinal survey further supported the contention that the motivational needs of the current and prospective leadership of the Clark County School District are not conducive to the incorporation of Theory Z into the administration of the Clark County School District.

4. **Leadership Behavior**

In a survey designed to measure relative concern for people versus tasks, using a nine-point scale, the Clark County School District administrator and prospective administrator scored an average of 5.3 on the concern for task scale and 2.3 on the concern for people scale. Both of these scores are extremely low for a Theory Z manager. The 2.3 concern for people would be a major
barrier to overcome when incorporating the highly people-oriented Theory Z management style into the Clark County School District. While Theory Z is highly people-oriented, it does not sacrifice concern for task to raise their concern for people. Whereas the bureaucracy is highly conscious of task, even to the point of sacrificing the individual, the Theory Z organization finds the two, concern for task and concern for people, to be mutually inclusive.

Conclusions

In the light of the findings of this study, the following conclusions were made:

1. It is concluded that historically, public school management has adapted private management skills to the public schools.

2. It is concluded that the latest trend in private business management is the adaptation of Japanese management skills to American business, most often referred to as Theory Z.

3. With the first two conclusions in mind, the third conclusion follows: It is highly likely that an attempt will be made to incorporate all or some of the principles of Theory Z into the public school management scheme.

4. It is concluded that present managerial practices in the area of long-term employment will be barriers to the incorporation of Theory Z into public school management.

5. It is concluded that state law, district policy and regulations, as well as current administrator attitudes in relation to
slow evaluation and promotion, will be barriers to the introduction of these Theory Z principles into a bureaucratic organization.

6. It is concluded that career paths do not wander in a bureaucratic-type public school administration as represented by the Clark County School District, and this will act as a barrier to the incorporation of Theory Z.

7. It is concluded that implicit and explicit controls are not in the balance desired by a Theory Z practitioner. This imbalance, in favor of the explicit controls, will be a barrier to the incorporation of Theory Z.

8. It is concluded that the dislike for collective decision making will be a barrier to Theory Z adaptation; however, the bureaucratic support for individual responsibility will help facilitate Theory Z introduction into the public school setting.

9. It is concluded that the public school is not wholistic in nature and, since wholism is a major facet of Theory Z management, this will act as a barrier to its introduction.

10. It is concluded that management systems are in place in the public school setting, and this will help facilitate the adaptation of Theory Z.

11. It is concluded that although there appears to be no basic agreed-upon philosophy guiding school management, findings of this study do not indicate this feature is either a barrier or a facilitator in the incorporation of Theory Z into public school administration.
12. It is concluded that close-mindedness toward change among current and prospective Clark County School District administrators will be a barrier to the change from bureaucratic management to Theory Z.

13. It is concluded that demonstrated needs of the Clark County School District leaders in the areas of Achievement, Belonging, and Power will serve as barriers to the introduction of Theory Z management into the public schools.

14. It is concluded that Clark County School District administrators' medium concern for task and low concern for people will act as barriers to the incorporation of Theory Z into public school management.

15. Based on conclusions one through fourteen, it is concluded that it is possible to incorporate some selected aspects of Theory Z into the management of public schools.

16. Based on conclusions one through fourteen, it is concluded that there will be more barriers than facilitators in the typical bureaucratic public school setting when an attempt is made to incorporate selected characteristics of Theory Z into the public school setting.

Recommendations

Given the probability of attempts to adapt some aspects of Theory Z to public school management and given the barriers and facilitators identified, the following recommendations for further study were made:
1. It is recommended that research be done to determine what role oriental and occidental cultural differences will have in the attempt to adapt Theory Z principles to the management of American public schools.

2. It is recommended that research be done to determine if there is a "cultural lag" in any change process and what can be done about it to expedite the transformation from bureaucratic management to Theory Z.

3. It is recommended that research be done to determine in what ways Theory Z is compatible with the Puritan Ethic characteristic of American business.

4. It is recommended that research be done to determine how each of the identified barriers to the adaptation of Theory Z can be overcome, so that Theory Z can be incorporated into public school management with a minimum of disruption.

5. It is recommended that research be done to determine how the identified facilitators can best be used to help incorporate Theory Z into the public school setting.

6. It is recommended that research be done to determine the effect of post-World War II American occupation on current Japanese management and its adaptation to American business by William Ouchi.

Summary

After an extensive review of the literature on the history of school management in America, it was apparent that school administration does adapt business management principles. With Theory Z
being the latest model of management undergoing exploration in the business world, it is logical to assume that the more forward-looking and adventuresome school administrator will begin to explore the adaptability of Theory Z to the public school setting. While a complete scrapping of the bureaucratic model now in use in many urban school management settings is not likely, there are many principles of Theory Z that may encourage some school managers to try to adapt selected characteristics to public schools.

To insure the smooth incorporation of Theory Z, it will be necessary for the top-echelon administrators in the public schools to lead the way. Without a doubt, there are some principles of Theory Z that would be beneficial to school management. The stability inherent in long-term employment, for example, is such that an overt effort should be made to insure continuity within the administrative realm of a school district. Collective decision making has a great deal to offer the public school setting. Identifying and expanding administrative areas of freedom will be important to the expansion of collective decision making.

As the lower levels of Maslow's hierarchy of needs are met, the public school administrator can move to satisfying the higher needs within the organization. The Theory Z model will allow associational needs and self-actualization needs to be met. Men like Alvin Toffler and Peter Drucker write on the new role the work environment is beginning to play in the socialization of man. The Theory Z corporation meets many of these socialization needs. At
the present time, it appears that the Theory Z model of management will not replace the bureaucracy, but there is little doubt it will have an effect on the present bureaucratic nature of public school administration.
SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY


APPENDIX A

LETTER AND PRE-INTERVIEW QUESTIONNAIRE SUBMITTED TO

CLARK COUNTY SCHOOL DISTRICT ADMINISTRATORS
November 29, 1982

Dear

Enclosed you will find an interview questionnaire designed to help the researcher identify barriers and facilitators in the process of adapting Theory Z management principles to the public schools. I have selected 10% of the Clark County School District managers, at various levels of management, to help determine the feasibility of Theory Z being used as a management practice in the Clark County School District. I would appreciate your completion of this interview form prior to setting up an interview conference with you. The personal interview will help to clarify any questions you may have and should be no longer than fifteen to twenty minutes. I hope to have the interview completed by December 18, 1982. I will be calling you to set up an interview schedule.

Thank you for your time and help.

Sincerely,

Larry R. Moses
PRE-INTERVIEW QUESTIONNAIRE

Name ________________ Sex __M__F Years of Employment with CCSD ____

List the various positions you have held in the CCSD. (Include department and length of time in each position.)

There are eight general areas of Theory Z that appear to have some adaptability to public school administration. I am interested in your reaction to these eight areas in relation to their adaptability to the administration of the CCSD. This is a general outline of the areas I will discuss with you in a personal interview. You may find it beneficial to make some written comments to these before our interview.

1. **Long-Term Employment.** Do you feel a career commitment to the CCSD and a reciprocal commitment on the part of the District?

2. **Relatively Slow Process of Evaluation and Promotion.** I am interested in your reaction to the frequency of evaluation and promotion in the CCSD. I am also interested in your feelings toward peer evaluation.

3. **Career Paths Wander Cross Function.** How important is cooperation between people holding similar positions in the organization (principal to principal, for example)? What value do you see in vertical as versus horizontal movement within the organization?

4. **Implicit and Explicit Control Factors.** In this area I am interested in what you feel are the control factors influencing your actions when decisions must be made. Also, I am interested in what you feel are the major factors contributing to compliance on the part of those under your direction.

5. **Collective Decision-Making and Individual Responsibility.** To what degree do you feel collective decision-making can be used in the CCSD? I am interested in determining how consultive you find the decision-makers of CCSD. Do you feel there is a viable place for collective responsibility in the CCSD administrative structure?

6. **Wholism.** There are two facets to wholism, one within the organization and the other deals with the effect the organization has on the complete life of the employee. I am interested in your reaction to your relationship with others in the organization, especially those holding similar positions. Does the CCSD play an important role in your social life?

7. **Management Systems.** How important do you find management systems in your decision-making process?

8. **Basic Agreed-Upon Philosophy.** Is there a basic agreed-upon philosophy that is the determining factor when decision-making takes place in the CCSD?
INTERVIEW QUESTIONNAIRE

NAME ____________________ SEX ___ M ___ F YEARS EMPLOYED BY CCSD ___

I. Long-term employment.
   A. What skills do you have that are unique to the Clark County School District?
   B. Do you feel that you could readily find equally remunerative and challenging work outside the Clark County School District? Outside education? (explain)
   C. Has the Clark County School District directly attempted to sell you on making your work in the district a lifetime vocation? If so, how?

II. Relative slow process of evaluation and promotion.
   A. How often are you evaluated by those above you in the organizational hierarchy?
   B. How often do you evaluate those below you in the organizational hierarchy?
   C. What do you feel is the ideal evaluation interval?
   D. List the promotions you have received while working for the Clark County School District. (Include the number of years between each of these promotions)
   E. What do you consider an ideal time period between promotions?
   F. Do you feel the Clark County School District evaluation and promotion is: too slow ___ too rapid ___ about the way it should be ___ (explain if you wish)
   G. Do you feel cooperating with those on the same organizational level will not hamper or help you in moving up the hierarchy of the Clark County School District? (explain)
   H. Do you feel that the evaluation of your peers is more important than formal evaluations, and the rewards received from that informal evaluation is what really matters? (explain)

III. Career paths wander across function.
   A. What are the various positions you have held in the Clark County School District? (Include the department location of that position)
   B. Do you feel that the Clark County School District stresses the importance of taking an organizational wide point of view in the individual decision-making process?
   C. I feel an individual in the Clark County School District is rewarded for cooperating with others on the same organizational level as themselves. Why? Why not?
IV. Implicit and explicit control factors.

A. Do you make decisions and follow orders basically because of the hierarchy? (explain)
B. Are your decisions as a leader completely determined by the rules and regulations as stated in policy manuals of the Clark County School District? (explain)
C. Are your subordinates most likely to comply to organizational needs, because of rules and regulations and the penalties inherent in them, or due to a commitment to the Clark County School District?
D. Are your decisions based on objectives you have established by some systematic method? If so, how?
E. Are there assumptions you can make about responses to situations, or agreements you can make without taking time to negotiate them, due to an implicit understanding of the overall goals of the Clark County School District?

V. Collective decisions and individual responsibility.

A. When decisions are made, do those higher in the hierarchy consult with you before they are finalized? 
   Never ___ Rarely ___ Often ___ Always ___
B. Do you believe you should be consulted before decisions that affect your daily operation are made?
C. How do those higher in the structure consult with you?
D. When you are consulted, do you feel that your opinion is considered equally with the others involved? How do you know?
E. When I need to make a decision, I consult: (how)
   1. Those higher in the chain of command.
   2. Those lower in the chain of command.
   3. Those who are on the same step or in similar positions in the chain of command.
   4. The policy manual of the Clark County School District.
   5. All of those who will be affected by the decision.
F. Do you feel that decisions are best made by one person versus a collective process? (explain)

G. Do you feel no matter how decisions are made, there must always be one person responsible for the results of the group? (explain)

H. What do you see as advantages and disadvantages to a school reaching decisions collectively?

I. What changes, if any, would have to be made in the existing Clark County School District operation to make collective decision-making a reality?

VI. Wholism.

A. Do you consider the Clark County School District as having a viable role in your social life? If yes, in what way? If no, do you feel it should have?

B. How often do you have contact with others holding positions on the same level in the organization?

C. How often do you feel would be the ideal gap between the contact you have with your peers in the Clark County School District?

D. Is your position easily identified and understood in its relationship to other positions in the Clark County School District?

VII. Management systems.

A. Are management systems in effect in the Clark County School District? If so, which management systems do you deal with on a daily basis and what role do they play in your decision-making process?

B. Are management systems the deciding factor in decisions that are made throughout the Clark County School District?
APPENDIX C

CLARK COUNTY SCHOOL DISTRICT ADMINISTRATIVE ATTITUDE SURVEY
AND THEORY Z
In January of 1981, the Clark County School District began their 1981 prospective administrators class. The class was made up of thirty-one candidates. These thirty-one prospective administrators and sixteen practicing administrators completed the questionnaire. The make-up of the thirty-one prospective candidates had the following characteristics:

- 20 were male
- 11 were female
- 14 worked in junior high schools
- 13 worked in senior high schools
- 2 worked in special schools
- 18 were deans
- 3 were female teachers
- 3 were male teachers
- 3 were consultants
- 2 were administrative aides.

The sixteen practicing administrators answered their questionnaires without an indication of sex, age or position held.

These survey instruments* were sent to prospective administrators; twenty-three were returned. Sixty surveys were sent to practicing administrators in the Clark County School District; of these, sixteen were returned. There were four factors measured that may help indicate facilitators and barriers to the adaptation of eight selected principles of Theory Z to the characteristic bureaucracy of the modern school district.

The four survey instruments measured:

1. **Locus of Control** - an attempt to ascertain if an individual is inner- or outer-directed in decision making.

2. **Tolerance Level** - gives an indication of the open-mindedness of the individual.

3. **Motivation** - divided into three areas:
   a) a need for achievement
   b) a need for belonging
   c) a need for power.

4. **Leadership Behavior** - defined the relationship between concern for production and concern for people.

**LOCUS OF CONTROL PROFILE: EXERCISE #1**

**Interpretation**

The numerical ranking of questions 1,2,3,6 and 7 are totaled. A total score on these five questions of 20-25 would indicate the individual is extremely outer-directed. A score of 5-10 implies the individual responds to external pressures and controls. The lower the score, the more likely the individual could adapt to a more collective approach to decision making. The lower scores of 5-7 are indicative of people highly self-oriented in terms of decisions and where they feel control is located. The person who is highly self-oriented will find it difficult to fit into the wholistic nature of a Theory Z organization.

**Results**

For whatever reason, the range of **Locus of Control** of those surveyed remained outside the extremes of either inner or outer directiveness. The group was evenly divided as to being moderately inwardly directed and moderately outwardly directed. This result would suggest that many
of the prospective administrators of the Clark County School District will have a problem adjusting to the needs of a Theory Z organization.

**TOLERANCE ASSESSMENT: EXERCISE #2**

**Interpretation**

This instrument was designed to measure open-mindedness of the administrator. The responses marked "dislike" were totaled and multiplied by five to obtain a total score. If two items were marked "dislike," then the score would be $2 \times 5 = 10$ points.

**Results**

**Ten points or less.** This score indicates generally an open mind toward most controversial issues and a live-and-let-live attitude toward people and their values. The individual has an easy-going and accepting attitude, which is sometimes seen as indifference or a refusal to take a stand on issues. This person tends to be informed and knowledgeable in many areas and will often suspend judgment about right or wrong and good or bad, because he feels that he has little basis for making a sound decision. People will tend to express their opinions to such an individual and turn to them for advice, because they feel that this person will listen with a sympathetic ear and will not judge them harshly. People in this group are more likely to adjust to a new mode of management and more likely be able to make the change to a Theory Z management style. Ten members of the survey group fell in this category.

**Eleven to twenty-two points.** Most people fall into this area, for they tend to be less flexible and more subjective in important areas that have deep personal meaning to them. Willingness to accept change
even when doing so means giving up long-standing beliefs; however, the transition takes time. This individual can usually recognize his intolerate views, but finds it emotionally difficult to give up those views completely. It is likely that in areas where this individual is most threatened by change, he will look for proof that his opinions and attitudes are correct. Those who fall into this group will have difficulty making the transition from the bureaucracy, as presently practiced by the Clark County School District, to a Theory Z-style of management. Nineteen respondents fell in this category.

Twenty-three points or more. This person tends to be quite conservative in his approach to new ideas; he prefers to stick to conventional ideas and values. He will maintain high standards and often disapproves of those who do not meet these standards. This individual finds it difficult to see or accept opposing viewpoints, especially in areas dealing with social conduct. This person is uncomfortable with change, tends to be suspicious of those who are in favor of altering the traditional ways of doing things and will usually weigh both sides of a question before making a decision. Eleven members of the survey group fell in this area.

Only ten of the respondents fell in a range which would suggest that they could fairly easily adapt to Theory Z management due to their open-mindedness.
MOTIVATIONAL ANALYSIS: EXERCISE #3

Trait A: Achievement

Interpretation

This survey instrument was designed to analyze three motivational traits: power, achievement and belonging. The participants were asked to indicate how thoroughly each item describes both their present job and their ideal job. Each statement was given a value of zero to five points, using the one that most appropriately described how they felt about each statement.

5 - Extremely true of my present (ideal) job.
4 - Very true of my present (ideal) job.
3 - Somewhat true of my present (ideal) job.
2 - Not very true of my present (ideal) job.
1 - Only slightly true of my present (ideal) job.
0 - Not at all true of my present (ideal) job.

Results

Thirty-five points or more. This person tends to think in terms of results and may not want to spend time planning. He will set high standards and thus may wish to do many tasks himself. He may be practical and right to the point, but unwittingly be insensitive to others. This individual is uncomfortable with instability and wants to work productively and get the job done. None of the respondents fell in this category in their present job and only two felt their ideal job would find them located in this category.
Twenty-nine to thirty-four points. The person who falls in this category generally feels a short-term viewpoint is practical and that task completion is vital, but is not the total leadership game. He is open to feedback and tends to be good at calculating how much give and take a situation will tolerate. Eight people felt their present job presented them a chance to operate in this realm and eighteen felt an ideal job would offer an opportunity to function on this level. These characteristics, with the exception of taking a short-term view, are conducive to adaptation to Theory Z management.

Twenty-eight or fewer points. This individual may need to focus on tasks he feels should be done. He also has great difficulty accepting instability, but does little to change the situation. This type of profile is good for the person serving only as a representative. Thirty members of the group fell into this category and fourteen felt they would operate in this realm in their ideal job. This area is too weak in the leadership area to be effective in a Theory Z organization.

Trait B: Belonging

Results

Thirty-four points or more. This individual likes to involve others even at the risk of reducing the chance for task completion. He tends to be supportive, but may develop territory and find it hard to let go. He works well, and the need to belong is a constant motivator. His need to belong may, at times, reduce objectivity. Six individuals fell in this area in their present job and eleven felt the ideal job would find the leader of a group in this area. These characteristics will be conducive to Theory Z adaptation.
Twenty-nine to thirty-three points. This person tends to want to belong, but often does things that are based more on the fear of hurting people than on the concept of task completion. He can also separate himself from a situation better than the person who scores high in this motivator. Present job situations placed sixteen in this area. Only thirteen felt the ideal job would find the manager in this category. While belonging is important to the Theory Z organization, this individual may need to belong for reasons that are not in the best interest of the Theory Z corporation.

Twenty-eight or fewer points. Others may feel this individual is cold and isolated or hard to get to know. He may not need close friendships at work. Seventeen respondents evaluated their present jobs in this area and twelve felt the ideal job would place them in this category. For the most part, the present and prospective administrators indicate there is little need for belonging in the present management program of Clark County School District and twenty-four show little need for belonging in their ideal job.

Trait C: Power

Results

Thirty-one points or more. This person likes predictability in others and is good at getting things done. He tends to be a short-cutter and people working with him may feel intimidated. He tends to want control over as many aspects of a role as possible. Many times he might manage by information control. There is a potential to become obsessed with influence. His image is often involved in administrative
behavior. While only three of these respondents felt their present job allowed them to operate from this stand, nineteen felt the ideal job would allow them this management position.

Thirty to twenty-three points. This individual may hoard information, but can tolerate more irregularities in the behavior of others. There is a tendency to swing between the need for much power to no power, depending on the situation. He may be interested in the political aspects of his job. He can relinquish power when it is feasible.

Thirteen respondents felt this was true of their present job and four thought this should be true of their ideal job.

Twenty-two or fewer points. This person tends to be less threatened and more open to feedback. Also, he feels it is better to use the power of his title when needed. He tends to understand power, but elects not to use it constantly. This is the category in which the successful Theory Z administrator would fall. Those who felt this was true of their present job numbered seven, and none of the candidates thought this should be true of their ideal job. This lack of present administrators who fail to fall in this category and with none of the present administrators feeling their ideal job would place them in this category will indicate difficulty in adapting Clark County School District to a Theory Z model of management.

LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR: EXERCISE #5

Interpretation
The participants were asked to respond to each item to the way they would most likely act if they were the leader of a work group
designing a program for phasing in a women's sports program in a pre-
dominately blue-collar district. Items number 1,3,9,10,11,15,16 and 17
are used to indicate the concern the respondents had for people. Items
2,4,5,6,8,14,16 and 18 are used to indicate the respondents' concern
for production (task) of the group. Using the numbers, one can plot
the participants' concern for people and production on a managerial grid.

Results

The results showed the respondents averaged a 5.5 on the production
scale and a 2.3 on the scale indicating concern for people. A 10 could
be maximum in each area. The ideal Theory Z administrator would score
high on both production and concern for people. For Theory Z to
function effectively, a major increase in both areas will be necessary
in their concern for people and production.
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