WHOSE GOALS? A SOCIOLOGICAL ANALYSIS OF MEMBER

PERCEPTIONS OF THE GOAL STRUCTURE

OF THE PUBLIC JUNIOR COLLEGE

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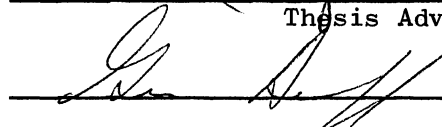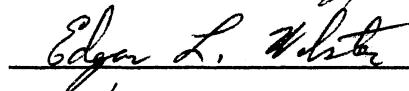DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
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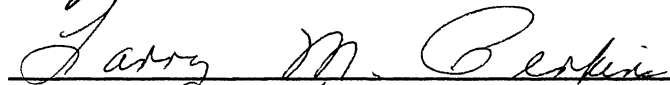WHOSE GOALS? A SOCIOLOGICAL ANALYSIS OF MEMBER

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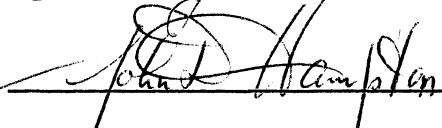
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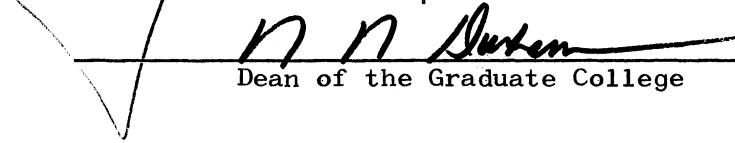
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Public Two-Year Colleges

At the beginning of the Twentieth Century, public two-year colleges played a relatively minor role in American higher education. At that time only eight such colleges existed and their total enrollment was approximately 100 students (Bushnell, 1973: 1-2; Blocker, 1965: 25). Seventy-four years later, in the 1973-74 academic year, 1,821,903 students were enrolled in 572 public junior colleges (Parker, 1974). Enrollment trends for junior colleges also seem to indicate that this remarkable expansion period has not yet ended. Projections developed by the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education (1970: 33-34) indicate a continued rise in the proportion of total undergraduates enrolled in two-year colleges.

Table I presents two separate projections made by the Commission. Projection A is based upon the assumption that approximately 60 percent of the future growth in undergraduate education will be absorbed by two-year colleges. This 60 percent figure has been exceeded by a number of states during the past five years. The figures in the second projection are based upon the assumption that the future increases in annual enrollment will continue at the same rates that have been established for each state over a five-year base period from 1963 to 1968 (for a

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more detailed analysis of the expansion of junior colleges, see Medsker
and Tillery, 1971).

TABLE I

ENROLLMENT PROJECTIONS FOR TWO-YEAR COLLEGES

Year	Projection A	Projection B	Percent of Undergraduate Enrollment		Percent of Total Enrollment	
			A	B	A	B
1980	4,430,000	3,740,000	41	35	34	28
1985	4,280,000	3,610,000	42	35	33	27
1990	4,380,000	3,690,000	42	35	33	28
1995	5,340,000	4,400,000	44	36	35	29
2000	6,620,000	5,340,000	46	37	36	29

If either of the above projections are accurate, this tremendous
growth of the junior colleges will signal a major transformation in the
character of American higher education. Such a transformation would
result from the fact that junior colleges are neither simple extensions
of high school, nor are they merely the first two years of a university
removed to a different setting. Rather they represent a significant
innovation in types of educational institutions in this country (Kelly
and Wilbur, 1969; Palinchak, 1972). Although founded initially as an
alternative means of providing the first two years of a basic under-
graduate curriculum, the junior college now provides a wide variety of

community, cultural, and education services (Bushnell, 1973; Cohen, 1969).

While the growing importance of the junior college has been stressed by numerous authors in educational literature, any close survey of that same literature will point to the paucity of empirical studies on the purposes and programs of the junior college (cf. Roueche and Boggs, 1968; 1-2; Cohen et al., 1971: 23-24). As recently as 1973 a group of scholars (Katz et al.) exclaimed over the near absence of any sociological investigation of the role of the junior college in American educational systems. Thus, while the junior college has been the object of much speculation and discussion in educational circles, empirical studies informed by carefully developed theoretical frameworks remain few in number.

Most studies of the junior college have centered their analyses on its institutional properties and very few have conceptualized and investigated this type of school as a complex or formal organization (Katz et al., 1973; Katz, 1964; Carver and Sergiovanni, 1969: ix-xii). In particular, the intraorganizational aspects of the operation of the junior college have received little research attention.

In this study the interactions of the various individuals and groups in the junior college are viewed as occurring within a formal organizational context and the intraorganizational dimensions of such interactions receive particular attention.

Definitions of what constitutes a complex or formal organization, as distinct from other types of social organization, abound in current sociological literature (see Grusky and Miller, 1970, for a comprehensive review of definitions). This plethora of definitions reflects not

only the complexity of the concept, but also the diversity of theoretical orientations existing among those studying complex organizations. The approach utilized in this investigation is one of viewing these types of organizations as a form of open system in which the behaviors of the members of the system are interrelated and interdependent with the formal structure of the organization, the personalities of other individuals, the informal components of the organizational structure, and forces external to the organization (Lawrence and Lorsch, 1967).

Out of the many dimensions inherent in the concept of complex organizations, the goal structure of such organizations has received primary research attention (Hall, 1972: 79-80; Etzioni, 1964: 5). Gross (1969: 277) has even gone so far as to claim that the concept of a goal is coincidental with that of an organization.

Early studies of organizational goals largely adopted uncritically the model of organizational activity set forth by the German sociologist, Max Weber (Haas and Drabek, 1973: 23-24). Weber offered in his writings a highly rational conceptual scheme in which organizations were systems of continuous activity strictly oriented toward the pursuit of official goals. In this scheme the decision-makers of the organization were viewed as using rational and logical means to attain the ends set forth by official statement of goals (Haas and Drabek, 1973: 26-27; also Perrow, 1961: 854; Gouldner, 1959). One of the the concomitants of the acceptance of such a model is the assumption that a high degree of consensus exists as to the purposes of the organization. From this perspective goals are not viewed as being problematical and organizational members are assumed to adjust their activities to the requirements imposed by the goal structure (Scott, 1970).

A number of more recent analyses of organizational goals have moved beyond the rational model just described (cf. Blau, 1968; Weick, 1969; Selznick, 1943; Glaser and Sills, 1966). Perrow (1961) for example, extended Selznick's (1943) discussion of the significance of informal groups in organizations to derive a construct he termed "operative goals." These goals result from the many decisions organizational members must make among alternative means of achieving official goals and setting priorities among these goals. Operative goals further include the various unofficial goals determined by informal groups and individuals during the normal course of their organizational activities.

The realization that within an organization various groups and/or individuals may direct their actions toward goals other than those formally specified by the organization make it dangerous at best, and specious at worst, to make any assumptions concerning the degree of goal consensus. However, such assumptions continue to appear in research on complex organizations and are especially present in much of the literature relating to the junior college.

With regard to the junior college, most writers assume that the purposes and goals set forth in college catalogs and official charters (and reprinted in textbooks designed for university courses on the junior college) represent the ideal role of the junior college, and further, that those who learn and teach there are essentially in agreement with such listings (Cohen et al., 1971: 13-16). On the other hand, a smaller but significant number of authors in this area assume that, due to the diverse backgrounds and interests of the various groups in the junior college, some degree of goal dissensus exists (Brawer, 1968). Both Hurlburt (1968) and Scott (1969) for example, even found cause to

question the extent of general understanding and acceptance of the basic
concept of the comprehensive junior college among many faculty and
administrators. The possibility that faculty, administrators, and
students may be moving in divergent directions in regard to educational
goals was also strongly suggested by Bolin in 1973 (245). Other writers
(Cohen, 1971; Feldman, 1969) have speculated that within faculty, stu-
dent, and administrative groups significant differences may exist as to
the purposes of the junior college.

Given the importance of the junior college to the future of higher
education, it becomes essential that informed knowledge replace specula-
tion. However, as Sieber (1971) emphasized:

> In the absence of definitive, full-scale studies of goal con-
> flict in higher education, it is impossible to determine
> whether these conflicts are real or imaginary. . . . In view
> of the serious attention given to goal conflict by educators,
> it is surprising and unfortunate that more research into the
> matter has not been undertaken. One important area of
> needed research concerns the incidence and consequences of
> conflict among goals espoused by different groups within the
> same institution (164).

To date, Sieber's call for further research has largely remained
unheeded.

Purposes and Exploratory Research Questions

In this section, a series of research questions which provide a
bridge between the theoretical framework used in this study and the
empirical data which has been gathered will be presented. These re-
search questions also form the basis of the objectives and purposes of
the study. These purposes vary in terms of scope and level of abstrac-
tion. The study was primarily designed to provide tentative answers to
a few of the many unresolved sociological and educational questions

concerning junior colleges. However, these objectives were also shaped
by a personal and sociological curiosity arising out of the author's own
teaching experiences in the junior college. Thus, the objectives of
this study spring from both professional and personal sources.

Research Questions

The major exploratory research questions and objectives of this
study are as follows:

1. What is the nature of the relationship which obtains
   between the individual and the social organizations
   in which he participates?

A long standing debate in social theory has centered around the
extent and means by which an individual is included in an organiza-
tionally structured activity (cf. Wrong, 1961). If social reality is
viewed as arising out of the subjectively meaningful interactions of
individuals, then the major task of organizational analysis must be to
distinguish and describe the orientations, i.e., finite provinces of
meaning, of various organizational members and member groupings. In
this way it becomes important to attempt to acquire knowledge of the
definitions of the situation constructed by individuals in the organiza-
tion, the hierarchy of ends they pursue, and the nature of their attach-
ment to the formal organizational structure. This study, therefore, is
concerned at the theoretical level with the understanding of how indi-
viduals come to define organizations and their roles in these
organizations.

A second general question flows from the theoretical perspective
outlined above.

2. To what extent do individual orientations differ and

    what are the sources and consequences both for the

    individual and the organization of such differences?

Theoretically, it should not be assumed that either conflict or

consensus must prevail continuously either in organizations or in social

reality generally. Since social relations emanate from interactions

which are based upon the expectations and definitions of the actors,

it theoretically is more logical to expect the existence of varying

shades and levels of both conflict and consensus.

In considering the sources of possible dissensus, the sociology of

knowledge offers an important line of research exploration. This branch

of sociology is primarily concerned with the ways in which thought and

perspectives are socially conditioned (Chapman, 1971: 1). If orienta-

tions do differ, then this approach would suggest that the social posi-

tion of the actor, both historically and presently, should be examined.

Each organizational member also holds and has held many other positions

in society and these experiences will impact upon the meanings he

attaches to that organization.

One method of investigating the personal constructs used by indi-

viduals as they attempt to make sense of their organizational world is

to study the goals that these actors endorse or reject.

3. What factors affect the process by which organizational

    goals come to be viewed as either legitimate or

    illegitimate by organizational members?

Although the term goal is perhaps the widely used concept in organ-

izational analysis, few have questioned in what sense organizations

possess goals. The major theoretical difficulty in working with

organizational goals is the tendency to reify both the organization and the goal structure. In this way, goals are often divorced from the actors and their definitions of the situation. Goals are viewed as a kind of symbolic cement which holds the organization together and provides for it a general mandate of activity (Hall, 1972). Treating goals in such an abstract fashion masks the essential point that goals are meaningless unless people attach value to them and choose to implement them. The goal structure is not some "thing" which automatically exists, but rather is a form which must be continually reaffirmed, reconstituted, and negotiated by the members of the organization. In this third question, goals are defined as symbols used by the actors in the organization to legitimate their activities both in their own eyes and the eyes of others.

Several more specific questions relate these basic theoretical issues to the empirical data presented in this study.

4. To what extent do the perceptions of real (i.e., operational) and ideal goals by the participants in the junior college coincide?

5. What differences exist across these groups as to the goals which are preferred?

6. What differences exist across groups as to the perceived operational goals of the organization?

As Sjoberg and Nett (1968: 157) pointed out, no absolute method for selecting respondents or events to be observed within a complex organization has yet been devised. However, a traditional approach has been to make comparisons among "natural" groups within the organization. The term "natural" is used to refer to existing groups which are commonly

recognized by the members of the organization (Roueche and Boggs, 1968).
Thus, if the researcher proposes to study a complex organization, a com-
mon starting point is the observation or interviewing of individuals
occupying similar formal statuses. These status-sets may then be
compared on whatever variables the researcher wishes to use (Sjoberg and
Nett, 1968: 159). Within the junior college, administrators, faculty,
students, and trustees form the major clusters of related statuses
(Cohen et al., 1971: 17-18).

The comparison of the perspectives of the individuals in these
groups provides the basic research thrust of this study. It is proposed
that the junior college is constituted by the ways in which students,
staff members, and trustees come to regard the organization and their
roles in that organization. Each individual operates within a particu-
lar frame of reference or image structure compounded of experience,
values, perceptions, cognitive styles and other similar variables deter-
mined both internally and externally. Such social images of persons,
institutions, and organizations constitute important forms of social
knowledge. It is out of these images of reality that both attitudes and
action are shaped (Cohen, 1971: 13; Hager, 1962: 306-307).

7. What are the possible organizational consequences of a
    significant degree of goal dissensus among these groups
    in the junior college?

The possibility of conflict among groups over diverse goals is a
recurring theme in junior college literature. In general, dire conse-
quences are posited by the authors concerned with this question. They
state that the implementation of plural goals would lead to undesirable
forms of political behavior. This behavior would be manifested in

dissension over such items as the setting of priorities, fixing of budgets, and selecting and retaining personnel (Hall, 1972). Writers such as Feldman (1969: 265), Peterson (1970), and Bolin (1973: 245) have hypothesized that an absence of uniform perceptions of goals will generate significant conflict among faculty, administrators, and students. Medsker and Tillery (1971: 91-92) worried that if the teaching staff were not in harmony with the expectations held by the community for the junior college, then the efficiency of the college would be reduced. In a similar fashion, Hager (1962: 308) feared that if the images of the junior college held by the faculty were at variance with those entertained by local board members and administrative officers a serious degree of discontent and demoralization would result. Page (1951) suggested that the reaction to goal conflict may reach beyond simple discontentment. He constructed a hypothetical model of an "academic neurotic." This is one who is incapacitated by extreme anxiety generated by his inability to cope with any contradictions between professed goals and actual practices. Carrying the mental illness model further up the ladder of abstraction, Glaser and Sills (1966: 193) submitted that goal displacement (i.e., the neglect of official goals for operative ones) would result in an organization which itself was pathological in nature. The presence of goal conflict has also been suggested to have detrimental effects on the learning process. For example, Rosen and Bates (1967) indicated that as goal consensus among faculty increases, so does the effectiveness of instruction.

Thus, the view widely expressed by all of those authors just cited is that lack of agreement over goals will reverberate throughout the entire organization and generally weaken the organizational structure.

Therefore, goal and implicity value consensus is required. If these assumptions concerning goal consensus are correct, and this remains as yet problematical, then an understanding of group goal expectations is essential to the future of the junior college, particularly in a time in which higher education faces increasingly limited resources.

8. What sociological variables are directly or indirectly

   related to collective perceptions of goals?

Sociology as a science is basically concerned with the totality of sociocultural reality and the many ways in which this reality is socially structured (Berger and Luckmann, 1966; Chapman, 1971). The data of sociology are drawn from this dimension of external reality and consists of the records made by scientists as they come into contact with portions of this reality. The totality of social reality represents such a high degree of complexity and vastness that it is impossible to achieve any complete record of its nature. Thus, the records constructed by sociologists can only attend to selected aspects of the total social reality and will further be determined by the point and time of the sociologist's entry into the external social world.

In this study the major variables utilized are the social and organizational characteristics of selected actors and their perceptions of the organizational reality in which they operate. These characteristics and perceptions are examined through a process of cross-classification in order to discover if any significant relationships exist. A more detailed discussion of these variables may be found in Chapter V.

Summary and Research Overview

A brief introduction to the significance and purposes of the study
has been provided. For the purposes of this research, the junior
college is viewed as a type of complex organization. This is an approach
which allows the investigator to become aware of aspects of educational
activity which otherwise might be obscured (Gross, 1968; Rabow and
Robischon, 1972). One such dimension highlighted by this approach is
the goal structure of the organization.

A statement of purpose which contains the goals and general philos-
ophy of an educational institution is considered to be an essential
element of its structure and is usually prominently displayed in the
catalogs, handbooks, and other publications of the institution. However,
the impact of these educational goals upon organizational members, in
this case the faculty, administration, students and trustees is less
clear. Since most organizational studies assign prime importance to the
goals of an organization in terms of understanding and assessing the
activities of the members of that organization, knowledge of what the
various members perceive as being the real and ideal goals of the junior
college would seem to be essential for an understanding of its
functioning.

Although the goal structures of university and secondary school
settings have been studied (Gross and Grambsch, 1968; Rabow and
Robischon, 1972), the institutional goals of the community junior
college have received little attention from researchers. In fact,
there is a lack of research on many aspects of junior colleges
as a part of American high education (Roueche and Boggs, 1968).

The degree of consensus existing among faculty, students, administrators, and trustees forms the primary research concern of the study. Relevant empirical data have been collected and aggregated in such a fashion as to indicate similarities and differences in the collective perceptions of these groups.

Chapter II, Review of Related Research Literature, presents a detailed examination of other studies which bear on the theory, methodology, and conclusions reported herein.

Chapter III, A Theoretical Frame of Reference, presents the theoretical underpinnings of the study. The major assumptions, concepts, and hypotheses developed in the study are reviewed.

Chapter IV, Methodology and Research Design, specifies the design and rationale for the sample utilized, the general procedures used in data collection, and the research difficulties encountered in the study.

Chapter V, Strategies of Analysis, presents the methods of analysis, including the use of descriptive and inferential statistics, index construction and other methods of data reduction, and cross-sectional analysis of variable relationships.

Chapter VI, Conclusions, summarizes the findings of the study and presents suggestions for additional related research.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED RESEARCH LITERATURE

Introduction

Sociological research does not occur in a vacuum. No matter what topic is selected for examination, the chances are great that someone else has been interested in some facet of that same question. This is not, and should not be, discouraging since science is a cumulative venture. Scientists cannot effectively design research without making full use of prior investigations, including both the failures and successes of previous attempts. A comprehensive review of literature provides one means of placing on-going studies within the context of the general stock of scientific knowledge. This ensures that the researcher is given the full benefit of previous efforts and is not needlessly duplicating that which has already been accomplished. Further, the review of literature in fitting a specific study into a more general research context helps to explain and clarify the theoretical and practical rationale for that study.

Empirical Studies

It is not the purpose of this report to review exhaustively all that has been written concerning organizational goals, junior colleges, or higher education in general. On one hand, the sheer volume of these

writings would doom any such attempt, and on the other, much of what has been written is irrelevant to the objectives of the present research. Therefore, only those studies which are both empirical in design and methodology and which are primarily concerned with educational goal structures are reviewed here.

A formal organizational model was used by Gross and Grambsch (1968; Gross, 1968, 1969) to examine the goal structure of sixty-eight non-denominational universities. The criteria used to select the universities were:

1. The Ph.D. degree must be granted in at least three of four fields (humanities, biological sciences, physical sciences, and social sciences).
2. Ph.D. degrees granted in the two least emphasized fields must come to ten percent or more of the total degrees conferred.
3. There must be a liberal arts undergraduate school or college with three or more professional schools.
4. The institution must have conferred ten or more degrees during the years 1962-1963 (Gross, 1968: 527).

The primary research objective was to determine the extent of consensus on the part of faculty and administrators as to what the goals of higher education were and should be. More specifically, they wished to find out

. . . how much substance there was to the claims that such fundamental differences (between administrators and faculty) existed, how much of it was based on value differences, and positional differences, and how much on differing conceptions of proper role. . . (Gross and Grambsch, 1968: 527).

In order to answer these research questions, Gross and Grambsch devised forty-seven separate goal statements. These statements of goals formed the basis of the questionnaire administered to the selected universities in the fall of 1964. The goal statements were divided into five general categories: (1) output goals were those which involved

the production of some service, skill, or orientation. These included

student-related goals, research and direct service goals; (2) adaptation

goals were those involving the need to attract students, staff, and

adequate financing; (3) management goals centered around the day-to-day

managing of the university; (4) motivation goals involved attempts to

ensure member satisfaction and loyalty; (5) positional goals focused on

the attempts of the university to maintain and enrich its relative

status and prestige.

This listing of goals was sent to 8,828 university administrators

and 6,756 faculty members. Each respondent was asked to evaluate each

goal on a six-point scale ranging from of "absolutely top importance" to

of "no importance." A distinction was drawn between real and ideal con-

ditions, and each individual rated each goal as to what he thought the

goals of that institution were and should be. Response rates of fifty-

one percent and forty percent for administrators and faculty,

respectively, were obtained.

Analysis of the questionnaire data indicated that the seven top-

ranked operational or "is" goals for administrators and faculty combined

were:

1. protect the faculty's right to academic freedom
2. increase the prestige of the university
3. maintain top quality in those programs we feel to be
   especially important
4. ensure the continued confidence and support of those
   who contribute substantially to the finances and
   other material resource needs of the university
5. keep up-to-date and responsive
6. train students in methods of scholarship and/or
   scientific research and/or creative endeavor
7. carry on pure research (Gross, 1968: 530).

At the other extreme, the goals which were seen as being least

important in the actual operation of the university were:

1. emphasize undergraduate instruction even at the expense of the graduate program (ranked 44th)
2. involve students in the government of the university (ranked 45th)
3. keep this place from becoming something different from what it is now (ranked 46th)
4. make a good consumer of the student (ranked 47th)

What is immediately apparent about the list of top ranked goals is that only one of them in any way involves students. Even this goal (ranked 6th) refers to training students for research or other creative endeavors which is part of the general stress on academic research implicit in the other top-ranked goals.

Using Goodman and Kruskal's measure of correlation, gamma, Gross and Grambsch found a very high degree of goal congruence between faculty and administrators. They also found a high degree of correspondence between what was perceived as the actual or operational goals and what the respondents thought the goals of the university should be. For example, the goal ranked highest by both groups in terms of actual and ideal conditions was the protection of the faculty's right to academic freedom. Most of the top goals involved support rather than output processes. In general, goals involving students were ranked at the bottom of the "is" and "should be" lists.

In light of the fact that this study has been widely cited and has formed the basis of other similar goal studies, several important theoretical and methodological weaknesses should be noted (for examples of studies which have relied upon Gross and Grambsch's work see Peterson, 1970, 1971, 1971a; Britell, 1973; Finlayson, 1973; Abbott, 1974). Although providing a valuable contribution by arriving at a comprehensive listing of goals through the use of questionnaires and interviews with university personnel, Gross and Grambsch chose to employ a

functionalist theoretical framework which forced them into reifying both the goal structure and the encompassing organizations. Following the earlier analyses of Max Weber and of Talcott Parsons, the authors held that organizations represent systems of rational action constructed to attain specific goals. As they stated, "Goal attainment is an aspect of all systems which, in order to survive, must attain whatever goals they set for themselves" (Gross and Grambsch, 1968: 4).

The basic theoretical weakness of this type of formulation is that it fails to realize that the relationship of organizational goals to behavior in organizations is multidimensional. While it is true that such behavior is partially shaped by the goals existing at the organizational level, this behavior is also at least equally determined by the individual's orientation toward, and interpretation of, the structural demands represented by such goals (cf. Levinson, 1969 for a parallel discussion of the concept of role). By emphasizing the goals of the organization rather than the ways in which individual members perceive these goals, Gross and Grambsch shifted their theoretical focus from behavior in organizations to one of organizational behavior.

One of the serious limitations of functionalism as a theoretical paradigm is its inability to cope with the social process of conflict (Gouldner, 1970). Although Gross and Grambsch set out to determine the extent of goal consensus (and by implication, the presence of any dissension), their use of a functionalist approach made it virtually impossible for conflict to manifest itself in their findings (Thiessen and Iutcovich, 1970). The method used by the authors to decide what goals to include for analysis illustrates this point.

> Second, we decided that a given goal was of a certain degree
> of importance at a particular university by taking the

average of the perceptions of all the respondents--both
faculty and administrators--at that university. Each person
was asked to check a response indicating his perception of
its importance. The response was scored on a scale from 1
to 5, and the mean for the institution derived. Then the
standard deviation was calculated, and if it exceeded 1--
that is, if consensus on the rank of the goal was low--we
considered the mean to be an untrustworthy indication of
the goal's true position at a given university (Gross and
Grambsch, 1968: 11).

Thus, "We decided to include a goal only if the standard deviation of

the scored perception was less than one" (Gross, 1968: 523).

As Thiessen and Iutcovich (1970) stressed, there would be no diffi-

culty in using such an arbitrary cut-off if the authors had not speci-

fied that they were seeking to determine the degree of consensus

existing among faculty and administrators. However, by computing a

statistical mean as the basis for ranking the various goals, and then by

deleting all goals in which the standard deviation from the mean was

more than one, Gross and Grambsch mathematically eliminated from con-

sideration any goals which reflected any significant degree of conflict.

It would be difficult to improve on Thiessen and Iutcovich's succinct

conclusion regarding this procedure: "To look only at goals on which

there is substantial agreement and then to report that there is a

substantial agreement on goals is, as Immanuel Kant has put it, a

'wretched tautology'" (1970: 253).

One last major criticism which must be made of this study centers

around the populations selected for analysis. By including only

administrators and faculty in the study, Gross and Grambsch failed to

consider the many ways in which students influence the goals of the

university. The authors' conclusion of goal congruence in the univer-

sity may well have had to have been modified significantly if other

relevant groups such as students, parents, and regents been considered.

The goal categorization employed by Gross and Grambsch was also adopted by Finlayson (1973) in a study of secondary school teachers. Finlayson submitted the Gross-Grambsch goal inventory (excluding only the research goals) to a random sample of teachers drawn from ten secondary or comprehensive schools in England. The teachers assigned top priority to output goals centering upon the development student potentialities, interests, and skills. The goals referring to the need for harmonious interaction between members of the staff and the control of social tension were also ranked highly. It is interesting to note that the teachers seemed to feel that it was the responsibility of the administration to ensure staff harmony. The goals given the lowest priority in this sample were concerns with the economic needs of the wider society and with direct service to the community within which the school was set.

A more recent study of university goals by Abbott (1974) has also relied upon the data collected by Gross and Grambsch. Abbott wished to test the hypothesis that the prestige of a university is positively correlated with a strong emphasis on adaptive goals. A goal was defined as being adaptive if it manifestly served to accommodate the university to its social enviornment. The six goals from the Gross-Grambsch study that were seen as meeting this criterion were:

1. keeping costs down
2. satisfying local area needs
3. effectively educating all high school students meeting
   basic entry requirements
4. assisting citizens through extension programs
5. existence of part-time adult education programs
6. preparing students for useful careers

The perceived importance of each of these goals (based upon the

weighted means reported by Gross and Grambsch) was then correlated with the prestige ranking of each institution. University prestige was determined through use of several prestige scales similar to those used in the 1966 Cartter report. Using Pearson's r as the measure of association, prestige was found to be negatively correlated to adaptive goals (the correlations for the six goals, respectively, were -.52, -.69, -.56, -.52, -.49, -.52). Abbott's use of r in this study may be questioned since the Gross-Grambsch study reported out ordinal data while the prestige scales used by Abbott were basically interval level data. In this case the assumptions underlying Pearson's r may not have been met.

The general methods and goal statement format developed by Gross and Grambsch were also used in the series of goal studies carried out by the Educational Testing Service located in Princeton, New Jersey (Uhl, 1971; Peterson, 1970, 1971, 1971a; Britell, 1973). The objectives of these studies were to compile data concerning the beliefs of various groups within higher education as to the proper role of their respective institutions and to test the usefulness of the Delphi technique as a means of obtaining goal consensus (see Helmer, 1966, for a more detailed discussion of this technique).

The first of these studies was started in 1969 under the direction of Norman Uhl (1971). The basic research instrument was a questionnaire containing 105 goal statements. Respondents rated each item on a five-point scale of importance. Each item was scored in terms of what the respondents thought the institution's goals actually were and in terms of what they thought the goals should be.

The questionnaire was administered to a total sample of 1,000

students, faculty, and administrators from five colleges in the southern United States. A return rate of eighty-five percent was obtained. After the first questionnaire had been returned, the same form was sent to the same 1,000 people, with two major differences: the modal responses for each item were indicated on the form and, secondly, individuals who the second time had assigned a rating other than the modal response were asked to indicate the reasons for their rating. The return rate for this questionnaire was 80 percent.

The last step in the research was to return the questionnaire to the same people, with the form now indicating both the modal responses and a summary of the minority opinions for each goal statement. In this step the participants responded knowing both the modal responses from the previous administration of the instrument and the kinds of reasons that were given for not choosing the modal response. The return rate for this wave was seventy-five percent.

Standard deviations were calculated on each goal item for each administration of the questionnaire. Analysis of the results indicated that beliefs about the desirability of the specified goals did generally converge with repeated administrations of the goal inventory in conjunction with feedback on modal responses. Although the Delphi technique in this instance yielded the desired results, i.e., a move toward goal conformity, questions may be raised concerning the theoretical assumptions implicit in this methodology. It seems to have been assumed that goal consensus is an inherently desirable state within educational institutions and also that conformity concerning the particular goals specified by the researchers is a desirable end. The first assumption closely parallels the utopian assumptions concerning the need for order, harmony,

and consensus in society first articulated by Plato and now by Skinner in psychology and Parsons in sociology (cf. Freedman, 1972). The theoretical pitfalls of such assumptions have well been described by Dahrendorf (1968). The author's use of the Delphi technique in this study represents an example of the social intervention techniques recently advocated by behavioral sociologists (cf. Tarter, 1973).

A modified form of the questionnaire described above was used in two subsequent goal studies also conducted by the Educational Testing Service (Peterson, 1971; Britell, 1973). In these studies the questionnaire was given to selected groups of faculty, administrators, students, and trustees of 116 higher education institutions in California. The general findings of these studies indicated there existed substantial homogeneity regarding goals in each constituent group across campuses. However, it was also found that considerable differences in goal emphasis existed among the various groups examined. For example, while administrators, trustees, and students in community colleges ranked goals relating to vocational preparation first, the faculty tended to place more emphasis upon intellectual orientation and creating an atmosphere of open communication, mutual trust, and respect among faculty, students, and administrators. Britell concluded that goal diversity was a primary characteristic of the institutions studied.

In a goal study similar to those conducted by the Educational Testing Service, Bushnell (1973) examined faculty, administrator, and student attitudes concerning the role of community colleges in higher education. The primary purpose of this study, funded by the W. K. Kellogg Foundation, was to determine the extent to which community colleges were actually enrolling a broad cross section of students

through such methods as the open-door policy, occupational education programs, and college transfer programs. As part of this general project, questionnaires containing twelve of the goal statements contained in the goal inventory developed by the Educational Testing Service (cf. Peterson, 1971) were mailed to a stratified sample of public, church-related, and independent junior colleges.

Analysis of the results from these questionnaires indicated that while there was a high degree of congruity in the rank ordering of goals by faculty and administrators (only college presidents were included in the latter category), students tended to march to quite a different drummer. Table II shows the top six goals preferred by administrators and also how the faculty and students ranked these same goals. Table III indicates the top six goals preferred by students. The two goals on which there was the greatest amount of agreement for all groups were, "Helping students respect their own abilities and limitations," and "Serving the educational needs of youth from the local community." Bushnell (1973: 63) concluded that while some degree of consensus existed, many important differences were also present. College presidents tended to emphasize the need to be responsive to the community; faculty generally placed more stress on students' intellectual development; while students were more concerned with open admission, expanded financial aid and more individualized attention and concern.

TABLE II

COMPARISON OF GOAL RANKS ASSIGNED BY FACULTY,
ADMINISTRATORS, AND STUDENTS

Goals	Administrators	Faculty	Students
Serve higher education needs of youths from the local community	1	2	3
Respond to needs of local community	2	4	9
Help students respect own abilities and limitations	3	1	2
Help students adapt to new occupational requirements	4	3	5
Reeducate and retrain those whose vocational capabilities are obsolete	5	6	7
Make financial assistance available to any student who wants to enroll in college	6	9	1

TABLE III

TOP SIX GOALS PREFERRED BY STUDENTS

Goal	Rank
Make financial assistance available to any student who wants to enroll in college	1
Help students respect own abilities and limitations	2
Serve higher education needs of youth from local community	3
Provide some form of education for any student regardless of academic ability	4
Help students adapt to new occupational requirements	5
Help formulate programs in a number of public policy areas, e.g., pollution control	6

Interest in the orientations of various groups in formal education is not a recent phenomenon. Harris (1934) compared student and faculty responses to the Allport-Vernon value scale. He found that faculty ranked higher than students on the theoretical and aesthetic scales, but lower on the political. A revised edition of this scale (The Study of Values by Allport, Vernon, and Lindzey) was used to compare two-year and four-year college students (Glenister, 1969). It was discovered that students at the two-year college tended to be more interested in the practical aspects of education and less in the abstract or theoretical. In a similar fashion, Knode (1943) had students and faculty at sixteen state universities rank ten "life objectives." His analysis indicated that faculty were more concerned with leaving a recorded heritage and living a "good life," while students stressed a good income and having a home and children.

Other studies have focused more directly on educational goal orientations. The research reported in 1958 by Jervis and Congdon found evidence of disagreements over goals between students and faculty at the University of New Hampshire. Approximately 150 faculty members and 1,000 students ranked objectives of higher education. These rankings are shown in Table IV.

TABLE IV

RANKS ASSIGNED BY FACULTY AND STUDENTS

Objectives of Higher Education	Rank of each objective for faculty	Rank of each objective for students
Intellectual growth	1	4
Self-fulfillment	2	2
Self-understanding	3	3
Vocational preparation	4	1
Informal intellectual activity	5	8
Faculty relationships	6	9
Preparation for life	7	7
"The degree"	8	6
Social growth	9	5

It is interesting to note that while the faculty ranked intellectual growth first and vocational preparation fourth, the students ranked these goals in precisely the reverse order.

In 1954, C. R. Pace questioned 690 faculty members and 550 students at Syracuse University as to the relative importance of 18 goals of general education. Although the rank order correlation was fairly high (rho = +.79, p < .01), again the students ranked "preparing for a vocation" much higher than did the faculty, whereas the faculy tended to stress "understanding scientific developments and processes." These findings were duplicated by the research of Goldsen et al. (1960).

Students at eleven colleges and universities were asked to rank order six goals that an ideal college or university ought to emphasize. They consistently gave greatest importance to the need for vocational training, i.e., to develop skills and techniques directly applicable to a career.

Research carried out during the 1960's indicated that student priorities seemed to be changing from those reported earlier. Wilson and Lyons (1961) had a sample of faculty and students in several different curricula at a number of liberal arts colleges rank six goals of higher education in order of importance. Through the use of rank order correlation techniques, a high degree of consensus was found to exist between the students and faculty. For faculty and students in both the liberal arts and business curricula, the highest ranked goal was to "provide a basic general education and appreciation of ideas." The goal of vocational training at the same time had slipped to third place. Using the same list of six goals, Lewis (1967) found that students in the humanities, social sciences, and engineering ranked providing a basic education first, while physical science students ranked this goal third. However, the physical science faculty gave top importance to the basic education goal.

Both Bowers (1964) and studies by Di Renzo (reported in Feldman, 1969) also found that the goal of a basic, general education had become more important to students than the goal of vocational preparation. However, Rose (1964) indicated that students at public and private colleges may differ significantly in how they rank the goals of education. While students at small private colleges ranked the general education goal ahead of one of vocational training, students at state

colleges saw the need for vocational preparation as being greater.

The principal limitation of the studies reviewed to this point is their reliance upon simple research designs in which randomly selected students and faculty are asked to respond to a short list of fixed goal statements. In most cases, the goal list was based on what the authors thought the goals of education would be or were. The respondents themselves were given little opportunity to suggest alternatives to the goals specified by the conceptual scheme of the researchers. As a result, faculty and students are sometimes viewed as two separate cultures (Lewis, 1967) with little or no overlapping orientations toward the objectives of education. While real differences may indeed exist between these groups, studies based upon six forced-choice responses (i.e., goals) and no analysis of the sociological characteristics of the samples involved scarcely provides adequate data for such conclusions (cf. Rose, 1964; Zelan, 1974).

Attitudes of junior college faculty members toward their institutional goal structures have also been examined in a number of studies. Maloney (1969) conducted a study of Missouri junior college faculty orientations toward a number of specific programs offered by junior colleges. These were the occupational, general, transfer, pre-professional, part-time adult, community service, and counseling and guidance programs. Data were collected through a mail-out questionnaire. A sixty percent return rate resulted. Maloney asked respondents to identify themselves as either transfer or occupational faculty. He then compared the two groups in terms of their attitudes toward the seven types of programs. Over seventy percent of all respondents agreed with the need for both occupational and transfer programs. However, Maloney

concluded that:

> Comparing the transfer and technical faculty, one finds that
> only in the general education and community service objec-
> tives was there substantial disagreement, with the transfer
> faculty having a more favorable attitude toward these objec-
> tives. It should be noted here that the response of the
> occupational faculty was less favorable (lower percent of
> agreement) on all the objectives except the occupational
> objectives. This finding contradicts Medsker's statement
> that applied faculty are more likely to support the over-all
> program of the comprehensive junior college. Perhaps junior
> college administrators, in an attempt to orient the transfer
> faculty to the comprehensiveness of the junior college, have
> over-indulged the occupational faculty. As an example, 30.6%
> of the occupational faculty are undecided or disagree with
> the counseling objective. This study suggests that junior
> college faculty, though generally supporting the multiple
> functions of the community, contains some members that are
> not in agreement with these multiple functions. Because of
> this, it is important for individual institutions to sys-
> tematically assess the attitudes of their members (1969: 5).

Similar questions have also been asked of junior college faculty on

a national level. The research division of the National Education

Association (1971) polled teaching faculty in junior colleges throughout

the country as to their attitudes concerning admission policies,

publicly supported higher education, student unrest, collective action

by the faculty, and academic freedom. In response to the question, "Do

you believe institutions of higher education should de-emphasize the

usual standards of academic aptitude and achievement for entering

students?," 51.4 percent answered "yes." However, the following qualifi-

cations were also given:

> 23.7% - Yes, to the extent that all students desiring
> to do so may be enrolled.
> 13.0 - Yes, to the extent that every institution would
> enroll sufficient 'poorly qualified' persons that they would
> represent at least 10 percent of the total enrollment.
> 14.7 - Yes, but the numbers of 'poorly qualified'
> persons should be less than 10 percent of the total enrollment.
> 37.4 - No.
> 11.2 - Undecided (1971: 67).

More faculty in natural sciences and mathematics (42.5 percent) and in

vocational and occupational areas (45.0 percent) than faculty in

humanities (34.7 percent) and social sciences (29.7 percent) would oppose

such a change. The majority of the respondents supported the extension

of free public education through junior college for all qualified per-

sons (64.3 percent) and the use of either professional negotiation or

collective bargaining in junior colleges (77.1 percent). Only 51.9

percent of the faculty sampled felt that sufficient academic freedom

existed in the junior colleges, while 5.0 percent stated they had little

acadmeic freedom at all in their schools. This study suggests that

there is a considerable division of opinion among faculty members as to

the type of students which should be admitted to public junior colleges.

An analysis of goal structures on the secondary school level was

made by Rabow and Robischon in 1972. They prepared a list of nine goals

and asked 316 junior and senior high school teachers how much emphasis

they placed on each goal. A four-point scale indicating "no stress," to

"very strong stress" was developed. The responses of the teachers were

then factor analyzed, using the standard principal components method,

and a two-factor structure was produced. The first factor centered on

attempts to build good character and citizenship in the students, and at

the same time stress discipline and order. The second factor centered

around the development of the students' intellect.

Teachers were found to stress a wide range of goals which chould be

reduced to two major goal emphases. This finding was viewed by the

authors as supporting the contention that there exists two basic types

of teachers, defined in terms of their goal orientations. One type is

most concerned with providing an orderly environment for socialization,

the other more concerned with student motivation in learning.

The study might have been of wider significance had other groups (principals, superintendents, parents, students) been allowed to respond to the same list of goals. The authors reflect this need in their closing statement:

> This study underscores the importance of obtaining a goal profile from the various members of organizations. Such a profile may reveal as much about people-changing organizations as it does about the members (1972: 35).

Surveys of college and university administrators have examined the goals for higher education held by this group. Sieber (1968) sent a questionnaire containing sixty-four goal statements to the academic dean of every college or university listed in the country. In all, 1,504 schools responded to the form. The deans indicated the extent to which their school emphasized each goal item. The goals stressed by the respondents were of two general types: those relating to the socialization of students and those concerning organizational maintenance and expansion. The socialization goals most frequently indorsed were to improve the quality of instruction, to provide a basic liberal education, and to induce students to develop their full potential. Organizational maintenance goals seen as being important were to increase the institution's resources in general, to develop better community relations, and to add new physical units (Sieber, 1968). The author noted that about the same proportion of administrators emphasized organizational survival as stressed socialization goals. Sieber also reported that the goals given the least emphasis by the deans were those involving academic research and those relating to issues of student participation in the governance of the schools.

An analysis of role perceptions among junior college administrators (Dahl, 1970) also yielded data on the organizational goals this group seeks to attain. Dahl interviewed twenty-four administrators from eight junior colleges in southern California. Based upon these personal interviews, he reported that the administrators found their highest degree of job satisfaction in curricular development (cited by 33 percent of those interviewed), in working with teachers (33 percent), working with students (25 percent), and in administrative detail (10 percent). Dissatisfaction was reported with: lack of finances (25 percent), rules against their doing teaching (25 percent), anti-vocational attitude by teachers (25 percent), too few administrators (10 percent), salary low compared to teachers, timewise (20 percent), student activism (5 percent). Unfortunately, Dahl provided no information as to the criteria used to define an individual as an administrator, nor did he differentiate among administrative roles when he reported the results of the interviews. An intriguing finding of the Dahl study is that only 25 percent of the administrators sampled from public junior colleges found a high degree of satisfaction in working with students. If meeting student needs is an important goal for the junior college, how are such needs to be communicated?

Leonard (1973) suggested that one source of difficulty existing between administrators and students is a lack of congruence between students and administrative definitions of the student role. Using data obtained from a questionnaire given to students and administrators at Illinois State University, Leonard found strong disagreement between the groups in the following areas: the role of students in selecting and retaining faculty, in deciding course offerings, in determining length

of class assignments, and in making decisions affecting student conduct.

Key (1964) has reported on goal differences existing between faculty and administrators in a California public junior college. Major areas of disagreement included the academic environment of the college, faculty participation in policy-making, and the need for greater academic freedom. Many of the faculty at this particular school strongly resented the lack of a "collegiate" atmosphere, or to put it differently, the presence of a "high school" or "grades thirteen and fourteen" atmosphere. The administration felt this resentment resulted from the faculty's over-identification with university and graduate education patterns. This type of identification would seem to carry with it a rejection of the "open door" admissions policy advocated officially by many junior colleges (cf. Garrison, 1968).

One of the few attempts (cf. Bushnell, 1973) to consider the expectations held by college trustees concerning the proper functioning of the junior college was made by Upton (1971). Drawing on a sample of faculty and trustees from twenty public junior colleges located in eight midwestern states, the researcher obtained data indicating the perceptions of these groups as to the ideal role of junior college presidents. The two groups were found to vary significantly as to their expectations of fourteen of thirty-one types of presidential performance. Since both trustees and faculty considered the college president as being instrumental in achieving the goals of the institution, their failure to agree on his proper role is also indicative of conflict over desired organizational ends.

The last empirical study to be reviewed is the investigation carried out by Rice in 1961 in which a list of seventeen goal statements were

presented to junior college personnel and students. A sample of fifteen junior college presidents, thirty junior college faculty members, and sixty junior college students were drawn from schools in California. Each group was asked to respond to the listing of goals as being either "major," "minor," or "not" purposes for the existence of a junior college and then to rank order the goal statements. The author noted that one question which was consistently raised by the respondents was whether the goals were to refer to their "actual schools" or an "ideal school." Since this point was not made clear on the original questionnaire, Rice admits that his findings might have been different had the questionnaire been more specific.

Using standard analysis of variance techniques, Rice reported that obvious and fundamental differences among the groups were found. Teachers deviated markedly from the other groups in terms of how they ranked the aims as to their essentiality; most teachers tended to rank the more abstract aims more highly. Students were more critical of the aims generally, while the administrators tended to rate all goals highly. The administrators ranked the more practical goals as being the most essential. The students also rejected the abstract aims of the teachers, but did so more decisively than did the administrators.

In short, this study found that faculty, administrators, and students differed widely in their acceptance of specific goals for the junior college. A major weakness of this study centered in the author's failure to distinguish between "real" and "ideal" goals in his questionnaire. Since the subjects tended to rate the purposes differently, depending upon whether they understood the ratings to represent a "real" or "ideal" situation, it is highly possible that this resulted in a

confounding, both statistically and substantively, of the study's findings.

Summary

The above studies represent the major empirical attempts which have been made to investigate the part played by members' perceptions of the goals of educational institutions. No effort has been made to include the numerous theoretical treatises dealing with goals in other types of formal organizations. However, the theoretical status of organizational goals is examined closely in Chapter III of this report. It is believed that the studies which have been described in this section are indicative of the potential that an examination of the goals of educational institutions have for an understanding of the activities carried out within the organizational framework.

CHAPTER III

A THEORETICAL FRAME OF REFERENCE

Introduction

One of the major characteristics of sociology today is its theo-
retical diversity. No single theoretical paradigm dominates sociology

to the extent that other perspectives are totally excluded (cf.

Gouldner, 1970). As Wharshey (1971) indicated, this theoretical

diversity is a reflection of the complexity of the social reality which

forms the substantive basis of sociology. Thus, in the process of

deciding how to approach his data, the sociologist has a number of

alternative theoretical frameworks available for research guidance. The

purpose of this chapter is to describe the theoretical frame of reference

selected and developed for use in the present study.

The idea of a theoretical frame of reference has been variously

defined and employed by sociologists. Holzner (1964: 275) used the term

to refer to ". . . a set of basic assumptions necessary to determine the

subject matter to be studied and orientation toward such study." This

use was further elaborated by Larson (1973). As he used the term, a

frame of reference was basically a means of focusing attention on

selected aspects of social reality. Since it is impossible to examine

the unknown from all possible perspectives at once, a decision must be

made as to what is important to observe, where it can be most profitably

observed, and how it is to be observed (Larson, 1973: 17). However, while delineating the phenomena to be studied and the methods of study, a frame of reference should also allow great flexibility in terms of substantive input. A theoretical scheme which has the effect of systematically eliminating either cultural, social, or biological data from any consideration would inevitably distort the interaction process studied by sociologists. Ideally, the frame of reference should be narrow enough to provide for concentrated attention to selected aspects of social reality, but also broad enough so as not to distort or prefigure that reality (Larson, 1973: 17-18).

Other writers have also sought to define the basic outline of a frame of reference, but have preferred to use the term "conceptual frameworks" to refer to the same idea. In Denzin's (1970: 67) approach, a conceptual framework referred to a set of descriptive categories placed within a broad structure of explicit and assumed propositions. These categories, or central concepts, are used in analyzing data and providing a systematic image of the empirical world. Denzin also stated that there must be a continuous interaction between the framework and empirical observations. In this way, his description of a conceptual framework seems to correspond to what Glaser and Strauss (1967) termed "grounded theory."

The clearest and most fruitful attempt to delineate what should be included within a conceptual framework or frame of reference is found in the analyses of Hill and Hansen (1960) and in the exegesis of their work provided by Nye and Berardo in 1966. Hill and Hansen described a conceptual framework as having five major components: type of behavior treated; social space in which it occurs; time dimension with which it

deals; substantive foci of research; and the basic assumptions underlying the framework. Taken together, these components form the ingredients explicitly or implicitly present in any theoretical frame of reference.

Thus, one of the functions of such a framework is to specify the type of behavior sought or analyzed by the researcher. In sociology, social behavior has been located in the acts of single individuals (cf. Burgess and Bushell, 1969), in numbers of individuals fitting their respective lines of action to one another through a process of symbolic interpretation (cf. Blumer, 1969), or finally, social behavior is sometimes lodged in the "actions" of constructs such as society, culture, and roles (cf. Black, 1961).

The frame of reference also specifies the spatiotemporal scope of the research. Meaningful social interaction must occur through both time and space. Therefore, the manner in which these variables enter into a conceptual framework is of major importance. The concept of social space as used here refers to the particular aspects of the social and cultural milieu upon which research attention is focused. It also includes those areas explicitly neglected by the framework (Hill and Hansen, 1960). A convenient way of categorizing such space is through the use of geopolitical units such as neighborhoods, communities, states, and nations. Thus, any given frame of reference may claim to encompass behavior at a specific local level, at a national level, or at a cross-cultural level.

Social time refers to the span of processual time which can be coped with by the framework. This span may vary from single isolated acts or interactions to process and change over broad sweeps of chronological time (Hill and Hansen, 1960). The notion that social reality is

characterized by flux and change has been conspicuously absent in several varieties of theoretical paradigms in sociology (cf. Dahrendorf's 1958 discussion of the synchronic character of sociological theory).

The theoretical framework also determines the kinds of questions which are deemed to be legitimate problems for research (cf. Kuhn, 1970). In adopting a particular framework, the researcher is systematically directed toward certain aspects of social activity and away from others. As an illustration, within structural functionalism the foci of study includes pattern variables, role sets, status and role differentiation, functional needs, prerequisites, equivalents, and alternatives (cf. Demerath and Peterson, 1967). At the same time, little or no attention is given by this approach to the interpretative process occurring in social interaction whereby shared social meanings are derived.

Perhaps the most significant component of any theoretical framework is the assumptions which underlie the core concepts found in that framework and which integrate these concepts into a meaningful pattern. Within sociology, such assumptions center around the nature of social reality and human nature and are often expressed metaphorically. Society, for example, has been likened to various types of mechanized systems or, in a less sterile but eqully misleading fashion, to various forms of animal life (Bruyn, 1966: 140). While the "big-animal" theories have largely waned, the cybernetics/system metaphor has been eagerly embraced by many sociologists (cf. Lasswell, et al., 1974: 110-111). However, it is not meant to suggest that social scientists should, or could, operate without the use of theoretical assumptions expressed

in some form. If examined closely, any social theory must have some

central, guiding imagery which produces a symbolism allowing for the

unification of the separate parts of that theory (Bruyn, 1966: 141).

Therefore, an understanding of the role of theoretical assumptions is

essential to an understanding of the basic relationship between theory

and research.

Blumer's description of symbolic interactionism also illustrates

the fashion in which the sociologist's assumptions concerning social

reality commit him to particular kinds of analytical procedures:

> Symbolic interactionism is grounded on a number of basic
> ideas, or 'root images,' as I prefer to call them. These root
> images refer to and depict the nature of the following matters:
> human groups or societies, social interaction, objects, the
> human being as an actor, human action, and the interconnection
> of the lines of action. Taken together, these root images
> represent the way in which symbolic interactionism views human
> society and conduct. They constitute the framework of study
> and analysis (1969: 6).

Since these assumptions significantly affect both the choice of

research topics and procedures, it is necessary to make such assumptions

as explicit as possible. Otherwise, "If our assumptions are left

implicit, we will inevitably presuppose a view of man that is tailor-

made to our special needs (Wrong, 1969: 131)." Sjoberg and Nett (1968)

have devised a set of cateogiries which provide a valuable means of

explicating the assumptions embedded in any conceptual framework. These

categories specify those types of assumptions which most often recur and

influence sociological investigations.

1. Assumptions About Social Reality. The questions of where social

reality is located and what is its nature have long preoccupied sociol-

ogists (Gross, 1963). Definitions of social reality have ranged from

the phenomenological stance of Schutz (1962) to the "social facts"

position originated by Durkheim. While Schutz anchored reality firmly in the matrix formed by the intersection of personality, society, and culture, other sociologists have followed Durkheim's lead in viewing social reality as a thing-like facticity (Berger and Pullberg, 1965; Bendix and Berger, 1959). In the latter approach, society, or the social system, is set as an entity over and against man, using coercive controls to mold individuals through the socialization process. Rather than viewing social systems as the result of subjectively intended meanings, this perspective takes society as a near ontological reality which human activity must take as given (Berger and Pullberg, 1965: 196). Acceptance of this theoretical stance usually leads to the corollary assumptions that social reality is basically fixed and stable rather than fluid and changing, is characterized by social harmony and integration rather than conflict and tension, and finally, that the basic unit of analysis of this reality is the social system rather than individual reality constructions (Sjoberg and Nett, 1968: 60-62; Gouldner, 1970: 31).

2. Assumptions about the Nature of Man. Numerous sociologists have strongly argued that particular images of human nature undergird all sociological theories (Wrong, 1963, 1969; Zetterberg, 1966; Quinney, 1973; Chapman, 1972, Kunkel and Garrick, 1969; Bendix, 1959; Gouldner, 1970; Chein, 1962; Blumer, 1969). These images help shape the research and theoretical orientations the sociologist brings to his data. Man has been characterized as being basically irrational (as in the Freudian tradition) or as being purely rational (as exemplified by the early works of Parsons and currently by many social exchange theorists) (Sjoberg and Nett, 1968). Few theorists have been willing to incorporate

into their theory a model which allows man to be both rational and irrational (cf. Chapman, 1972; Psathas, 1973). Other divisions among sociologists as to the nature of man have resulted from viewing man either as simply a "billiard ball" who responds to prevailing external forces (cf. Ackerman and Parsons, 1966; Burgess and Bushell, 1969) or as a self-reflexive creature whose actions are based upon the meanings he attaches to various stimuli (Sjoberg and Nett, 1968: 63). In the latter case, man is both subject and object, both "I" and "me," and does not respond to stimuli or messages without some awareness of their meanings for him (Chapman, 1972).

3. Assumptions Concerning the Optimal Level of Theoretical Abstraction. The theoretical level of abstraction refers to the degree of closeness of a theory's concepts to actual empirical observations (Wallace, 1971: 109). Currently among sociologists, several theoretical camps may be disserved based upon their response to the question of the most desirable level of abstraction. Mills (1959) termed the two camps representing polar extremes on this question as "grand theory" and "abstracted empiricism." While the grand theorist is one who has lost touch with empirical reality and has become a slave to the fetish of the concept (Mills, 1959), the abstract empiricist is interested primarily in the acquisition of "raw data." For the sociologist, however, his data are never "raw;" they are necessarily selected, processed, and presented through concepts. As Mathiesen argued:

> The conceptual nature of data is unavoidable and ever present.
> The sociologist - like any other observer - is never able to
> describe 'what is out there;' validity is always filtered
> through the concepts of the researcher and presented in light
> of them (1971: 93-94).

Others, such as Merton (1967), have called for "middle-range theories"

to be the dominant theoretical form in sociology. The essential diffi-
culty with Merton's theories is his failure to, and perhaps the impossi-
bility of, specifying the theoretical boundaries of this "middle range"
(Wallace, 1971: 110-111).

4. Assumptions Concerning the Relationship of the Observer to His
Data. In the same manner that the researcher makes assumptions about
the nature of social reality, he also makes assumptions concerning the
nature of his relationship as observer to that reality (Sjoberg and
Nett, 1968: 63). The major division within sociology regarding this
relationship has been between adherents to a positivistic tradition and
those supporting a verstehen methodology (cf. Truzzi, 1974). Wallace's
description of scientific methods is representative of the positivistic
framework:

> Scientific methods deliberately and systematically seek to
> annihilate the individual scientist's standpoint. We would
> like to be able to say of every statement of scientific in-
> formation (whether observation, empirical generalization,
> theory, hypothesis, or decision to accept or reject an hypoth-
> esis) that it represents an unbiased image of the world--not
> a given scientist's personal image of the world, and ultimately
> not even a human image of the world, but a universal image rep-
> resenting the way the world 'really' is, without regard to time
> or place of the observed events and without regard to any dis-
> tinguishing characteristics of the observer (1971: 14).

Thus, the positivists assume that scientists can attain objective knowl-
edge through the use of a basic methodology shared by the natural and
social sciences (Sjoberg and Nett, 1968; McHugh, 1970).

Those who employ a verstehen methodology assert that the goals of
the positivists are impossible to reach without imposing a priori cate-
gories upon their data (Sjoberg and Nett, 1968; Chapman, 1971). In
their view, the observer, by entering into the reality under study, both

influences and is influenced by the reality (cf. Brown and Taylor, 1973, for an elaboration of this reciprocal relationship).

Theoretical Framework

This section outlines the theoretical framework and perspective developed for use in the present study. The basic assumptions which constitute this perspective are anchored within the theoretical traditions growing out of the sociology of knowledge and symbolic interactionism. Both of these approaches focus upon the problem of understanding the processes by which meanings come to arise and be shared by men through social interaction (for this formulation of the sociology of knowledge, see Scheff, 1968; Berger and Luckman, 1966: for comprehensive reviews of the symbolic interactionist perspective, see Blumer, 1969; Ritzer, 1975). The essential elements in the theoretical framework guiding the current research are:

1. An Image of Man. Since the basic subject matter of sociological inquiry is the nature of man and social reality (Chapman, 1972), attention must be given to those characteristics of man which affect both theory and method.

a. Each individual is a unique entity. Each individual possesses not only a unique genetic inheritance, but in addition has developed his own pattern of thinking and behaving as a result of his own unique experiences. As Williams (1956) indicated, a recognition of the uniqueness of the individual is essential to human understanding. This emphasis on the unique qualities of each person does not imply a negation of the existence or importance of regularities in social behavior, but rather is meant only to illustrate the need for a consideration of

the individual as a factor in any equation explaining human behavior.

b. Each human being represents an indivisible unity. Action can be understood only through reference to the total person (cf. Chapman, 1972: 29-32). In Maslow's (1970: 3) terms, it is impossible to validly dichotomize man's reason and animality, to treat man as either solely a rational or biological entity. According to Maslow, both rationality and impulse are synergic and both aspects of the individual must be considered in any study of social behavior.

c. Although man as organism is determinate and specifiable, an object (it) for science, man as a social being is both a subject to himself (I) and a subject (thou) for others (Matson, 1972: 115). There exists a fundamental ontological discontinuity between human beings and it-beings. Man is a being who is conscious of himself and is able to reflect upon himself, i.e., at once be both subject and object of his thought. Since man is characterized by this self-consciousness and because he has the ability to form a concept of self, he in turn bases his actions in part upon this created image (Laing, 1967: 53).

> The 'self-object' is viewed as emerging from the process of social interaction in which other people act to define a person to himself. Each individual thus possesses a 'social self' which allows the organism to interact with himself and with external others through a process of making indications to himself and responding to such indications (Blumer, 1969: 10).

d. Man acts and reacts primarily upon a symbolic level. People live in a symbolic as well as physical environment and are stimulated in social situations to act by symbolic as well as physical stimuli (Nye and Berardo, 1966: 109; Rose, 1962). In the same way that the individual reacts to the symbolic signaling of others, he has the capacity to initiate such symbolic communication. This position implies that the

meanings with which people operate are formed, learned, and transmitted through a process of symboling and that human interaction is essentially a process of symbolic interaction (Blumer, 1969: 11-12).

e. Through the possession of a shared symbolic universe (language), man has the capacity to represent his environment, not merely to respond to it (Kelly, 1963: 8). In fact, individuals live in a world made meaningful through socially constructed meanings. Meanings, values, norms are not given, but are the result of the negotiated and ever-changing actions of individuals in society (Silverman, 1971: 129-130; Speier, 1973: 12-13).

From the perspective of this paper, man is thus viewed as Homo Laborans, the active creator of himself and society through action which is autonomous, yet also constrained by the need to fit his lines of action to that of others (Horton, 1966: 705; Farberman, 1970).

2. The Nature of Social Reality. Any theory attempting to explain human behavior to any extent must take into account the nature of the world man lives in. Yet this world or society cannot be separated from the individual. Man has already been characterized above as living in a symbolic, meaningful world in which the meanings, values and norms which guide behavior are not inherent in the structures of that world, but are created by individuals through their definitions of their life situations. It is through such definitions that one endows selected aspects of "reality" with significance (Staude, 1972: 263).

Alfred Schutz described the reality with which sociologists are concerned in these terms:

> The primary goal of the social sciences is to obtain organized
> knowledge of social reality, i.e., the sum total of objects
> and occurrences within the social cultural world as experienced

by the commonsense thinking of men living their daily lives
among their fellowmen, connected with them in manifold rela-
tions of interaction. It is the world of cultural objects
and social institutions into which we are all born, within
which we have to find our bearings and with which we have to
come to terms. From the outset we, the actors on the social
scene, experienced the world we live in as a world both of
nature and of culture, not as a private but as an intersub-
jective one, that is as a world common to all of us, either
actually given or potentially accessible to everyone; and
this involves intercommunication and language (Schutz, 1962:
53).

The work of Schutz suggested not only the nature of social reality, but

the substantive bases of sociology. The proper subject matter of

sociology became the cognitive orientations of individuals involved with

one another in their daily activities; it consisted of the attached

meanings, interpretations, and definitions of social situations, and it

was comprised of collective interests, motivations, and purposes

(Wagner, 1969; for an early statement of this approach, see Mead, 1962;

Cooley, 1964). The manner in which the everyday world is socially con-

structed yet nevertheless perceived as real and given becomes the major

focus of sociological research. It is these characteristics of social

reality which distinguish it from the subject matter of the "natural

sciences" (cf. Krishna, 1971).

From this point of view, social structures are founded in the

interpretive procedures of the interacting members of society. The

study of social organization becomes the study of the manner in which

the natural elements of a situation are organized, interpreted, and

transformed into the basis of action. Even features such as physical

space and chronological time must be transformed into social space and

social time if meaningful interaction is to occur (Dreitzel, 1970, xii).

Related to the general question of the nature of social reality is

the epistemological status of such structures within society as complex organizations. Organizations have usually been defined through referencing a particular set of formally stated goals. The concept "organizational goal" provides an excellent example of Korzbsky's proposition that words never have the same meaning on two different occasions, even when used by the same person (Rhenman, 1967). What have been designated as goals by sociologists, as well as what has been used as evidence for the existence of such goals, has varied with the immediate purposes and theoretical perspectives employed. While organizations have often been defined in terms of the systematic arrangement of a hierarchy of goals, at the same time goals have been viewed as being "possessed" by organizations (some of the major attempts to arrive at a definition of organizational goals are: Gross, 1969; Hodgkins, 1970; Perrow, 1961; Thompson and McEwen, 1958; Cartwright et al., 1960; Rhenman, 1967; Vroom, 1960; Scott, 1970; Loomis, 1964; Simon, 1964; Warriner, 1965; Zald, 1963).

Although such conceptualizations have the advantage of simplifying analysis by providing a convenient referent with which to assess the "health" of any organization, they also force the researcher into a reification of his constructs. In this fashion orgranizations are granted an ontological status and are empowered with thought and action (cf. Haworth, 1959; Hall, R. H., 1972: 10-12; for criticism of this misplaced concreteness see Silverman, 1971: 8-14).

If organizational goals are not "out there," in what sense do they exist? It is assumed in this paper that such goals do not exist apart from the actor's definitions of the situation and that the organization never totally subsumes the individual (Weick, 1969: 30;

3. The Relationship of the Observer to His Data. The theoretical
orientation expressed above strongly implies that the analytical focus
of this research will be on life situations as defined by the actors in
them. However, this position does not suggest a psychological
"reductionism" since sociology, unlike psychology, does not end with the
study of individual meanings. Sociology is concerned with the acquisi-
tion and legitimation of shared meanings. As Coser and Rosenberg (1969:
214) remarked:

> If the scientific observer is able to penetrate to the typical
> definitions of the situation prevailing in particular groups,
> strata, or societies, he is able to make predictions as to the
> probable response of members of these groups in future
> situations.

It is further possible for the observer to examine how the structural
characteristics of the situation enhance or restrict individuals' per-
ceived opportunities to advance their interests in given systems of
relationships at given times (Simpson, 1973: 379).

Although the sociologist must, as an observer, develop various
abstractions (or second-order constructs) from the empirical phenomenon
studied, these abstractions must remain as faithful as possible to that
empirical reality. This means that reliance upon only "spectator-
knowledge" or uninvolved knowledge will fail to adequately consider all
of the basic components of observed social interaction (cf. Chapman,
1972: 109-110). In the present approach then, it is assumed that the
observer can never entirely separate himself from his data since his
primary data consists of human relationships of which he is necessarily
a part (cf. Blumer, 1969: 24-26).

Definition of Concepts

In order for any theory to be usable in a scientific sense, its assumptions and concepts should bear directly on the empirical events with which the theory is concerned. The sociology of knowledge provides the nexus between the theoretical assumptions which have been stated and the research to be carried out. The sociology of knowledge begins with the question: from what point of view (or system of knowledge) are events observed (Willer, 1971: 7; Boskoff, 1969: 308-309)? Mannheim elaborated on this basic purpose in these terms:

> The principal thesis of the sociology of knowledge is that there are modes of thought which cannot be adequately understood as long as their social origins are obscured . . . the second factor characterizing the method of the sociology of knowledge is that it does not sever the concretely existing modes of thought from the context of collective action through which we first discover the world in an intellectual sense . . . . In accordance with the particular context of collective activity in which they participate, men always tend to see the world which surrounds them differently (1936: 2-3).

Louis Wirth, in his introduction to Mannheim's classic study of ideology and utopia, saw the primary obligation of the sociology of knowledge to consist of the systematic analysis of the institutional organization which provides the framework for intellectual activity (1936: xxx). The central role that the school plays within this context is obvious and leads the researcher to a consideration of the ways in which those involved in formal education construe and legitimate their activities (cf. Holzner, 1968: 90-91; Corwin, 1974: 12-13). The concepts and assumptions in the current study are intended to provide the framework for such an analysis.

Nominal Definitions

Complex Organization — an open system in which the behaviors of the members of the system are interrelated and interdependent with the personalities of other individuals, the formal structure of the organization, the informal components of the organizational structure, and forces external to the organization (cf. Lawrence and Lorsch, 1967).

Organizational Goals — legitimating symbols developed by individuals within a specific organizational context to justify their actions to other members and to themselves.

Social Perspective — ... the manner in which one views an object, what one perceives in it, and how one construes it in his thinking (Mannheim, 1936: 256).

Community/Junior College — a two-year collegiate institution, conferring no higher than the associate degree, offering lower division transfer programs, and/or terminal-vocational programs of varying length (Kelly and Wilbur, 1969).

Full-time Faculty — those holding rank of instructor or equivalent and higher rank in full-time employment for the academic year who give at least half their time to instruction and are not on leave of absence (Parker, 1974).

Adjunct (Part-time) Faculty — those engaged on a non-continuing basis for a specific purpose, i.e., teaching a specific course; is not considered to be in a tenure earning position.

Administrators — the classes of individuals falling in this category are given in Appendix B.

Research and Statistical (Null) Hypotheses

The phrasing of hypotheses to be tested represent the research objectives of the present study. The traditional form of the null hypothesis (i.e., no association) will be used for all tests of statistical significance. For example, in those cases in which rho is the test statistic, the null hypothesis used will be rho = 0.0, with an alternative hypothesis of rho being unequal to zero. The following hypotheses will be empirically tested:

RH_1: Within faculty, perceived ("is" goals will not coincide with preferred ("should be") goals.

NH_1: There is a significant difference between the ranks assigned to perceived and preferred goals by the faculty.

RH_2: Within administrators, perceived goals will not coincide with preferred goals.

NH_2: There is a significant difference between the ranks assigned to perceived and preferred goals by administrators.

RH_3: Within regents and trustees, perceived goals will not coincide with preferred goals.

NH_3: There is a significant difference between the ranks assigned to perceived and preferred goals by regents and trustees.

RH_4: Within students, perceived goals will not coincide with preferred goals.

NH_4: There is a significant difference between the ranks assigned to perceived and preferred goals by students.

RH_5: Faculty and administrators will differ in the ranks assigned to perceived goals and in the ranks assigned to preferred goals.

NH_5: There is a significant difference between the ranks assigned perceived and preferred goals by faculty and administrators.

RH_6:   Faculty and students will differ in the ranks assigned to perceived goals and in the ranks assigned to preferred goals.

NH_6:   There is a significant difference between the ranks assigned perceived and preferred goals by faculty and students.

RH_7:   Faculty and regents will differ in the ranks assigned to perceived goals and in the ranks assigned to preferred goals.

NH_7:   There is a significant difference between the ranks assigned perceived and preferred goals by faculty and regents.

RH_8:   Administrators and students will differ in the ranks assigned to perceived goals and in the ranks assigned to preferred goals.

NH_8:   There is a significant difference between the ranks assigned perceived and preferred goals by administrators and students.

RH_9:   Administrators and regents will differ in the ranks assigned to perceived goals and in the ranks assigned to preferred goals.

NH_9:   There is a significant difference between the ranks assigned perceived and preferred goals by administrators and regents.

RH_{10}:   Students and regents will differ in the ranks assigned to perceived goals and in the ranks assigned to preferred goals.

NH_{10}:   There is a significant difference between the ranks assigned perceived and preferred goals by students and regents.

Summary

This chapter has presented the theoretical framework used to direct the research conducted in the present study. The utilization of a conceptual framework is a sine qua non of social research; data can never be presented in their "raw" form. Any description, however true to the phenomena under study, is necessarily guided by the concepts of the

observer and is, therefore, selective. It, thus, becomes the duty of
the researcher to explicitly indicate the nature of the conceptual
schemes used to filter the data. In doing so exists the possibility of
avoiding the Scylla of unordered data and the Charybdis of unsubstan-
tiated conjecture.

CHAPTER IV

METHODOLOGY AND RESEARCH DESIGN

Introduction

The research design for the present study is a cross-sectional
sample survey. The basic steps in this design are the identification of
the population relevant to the purposes of the study, the selection of a
sample of respondents from this population, and the collection and analy-
sis of data acquired from the sample group (Babbie, 1973: 68). While
it is realized that this type of design places limitations upon the
researcher's access to the full range of data present in the actions and
action schemes of individuals, this also holds true for any of the
methodological techniques presently available to social scientists.

Population and Sampling Frame

Babbie (1973: 80) has defined a survey population as ". . . that
aggregation of elements from which the survey sample is selected."
Since the major objective of this investigation is to develop accurate
information concerning the goal perceptions of participants in junior
colleges in the United States, the ideal design would be one in which
the more than 1,000 public, private, and specialized two-year colleges
were randomly sampled. However, due to the limitations imposed by
financial exigencies, technical facilities, and general research

assistance, such a design could not be utilized. Due to these constraints, the original research population was defined as consisting of the major participants in the fourteen public, two-year, junior and community colleges in the State of Oklahoma. A listing of these schools is given in Appendix K.

After initial contacts with the presidents of these colleges, permission to conduct the necessary research was obtained through telephone contacts from thirteen of the schools.

Only one school refused to participate in the study. Despite several appeals by the investigator, permission for the study continued to be denied. The reasons cited by the president for refusal were that the junior college had been over-researched and that his staff had no time to respond to questionnaires (personal communication with the author). Therefore, the final research population consisted of the remaining thirteen public two-year colleges.

Also excluded from the survey population were private junior colleges, technical institutes, extension centers, and branch colleges. The objectives of such schools tend to be more limited and restricted to the immediate goals of the individuals or groups which founded or continue to support them (Blocker et al., 1965: 41-43).

The sampling frame consisted of the faculty, administrators, regents or trustees, and students of the selected colleges. Since the study sought to explore as fully as possible the goal perceptions of these groups, it was decided to administer the questionnaire to all the faculty, administrators, and regents who could be identified. Due to the large number of students attending the thirteen colleges, a stratified sample ($N = 99$) was taken from this category. The financial and

time limitations encountered in the present research made it impossible

to draw a simple random sample of students from all of the schools con-

sidered in the study. Therefore, the comparisons between the students

and other groups may reflect some degree of sample bias. Follow-up

research is anticipated which would allow a more complete sampling of

student perspectives. These four groups were selected for study since

they represent the major categories of functionaries within the institu-

tion of the junior college (cf. Britell, 1973; Katz, 1964).

Inferences From the Sample

The primary focus of survey research usually is not upon a sample,

but the population which the sample represents. This is also true of

the current study. Although it is Oklahoma junior colleges which are

being studied, a major purpose of the research is to increase the stock

of knowledge concerning junior colleges in general.

While the junior colleges in Oklahoma form the basis for this

study, the degree of isomorphism between these schools and other col-

leges remains to be demonstrated. For example, various studies have

indicated that regional location is an important variable affecting the

structure and operation of the junior college (Carnegie Commission on

Higher Education, 1970; Richards, Rand, and Rand, 1969). This factor

alone makes it impossible to make valid generalizations about all

American junior colleges based on only a sampling of Oklahoma junior

colleges.

However, such a limitation does not mean that the results obtained

by this investigation need be limited only to Oklahoma colleges. A 1969

study by Richards, Rand, and Rand identified thirty-six different

characteristics of the junior college environment. These characteristics were then factor analyzed and six principal factors were obtained. These factors were given the following names which seemed to reflect their general meaning: (1) cultural affluence, (2) technological specialization, (3) size, (4) transfer emphasis, (5) age, (6) business orientation (high cost).

The authors then grouped all junior colleges into seven separate regional categories. For example, the Plains region included the states of Iowa, Kansas, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North and South Dakota, while the Southwest and Rocky Mountains contained Oklahoma, Texas, Utah, New Mexico, Montana, Idaho, Colorado, Arizona, and Wyoming.

Means and standard deviations were computed on each factor for each region. This allowed the use of the Newman-Keuls method of comparing all possible pairs of means. Partial results of these tests of significance are summarized in Table V.

The authors' findings indicate that the only significant difference between the junior colleges in the Southwest and Rocky Mountain region and those in the Plains region centers in the factor of size. The elements of this factor are shown in Table VI.

Based upon the above information, it is contended that the results of this study will be valid for more than just those junior colleges in Oklahoma and, in fact, should be meaningful for junior colleges in a seventeen state area.

TABLE V

STATISTICAL SUMMARY OF REGIONAL DIFFERENCES
IN JUNIOR COLLEGE CHARACTERISTICS

Comparison: Southwest & Rocky Mountains College To:	Cultural Affluence	Techno- logical Special- ization	Size	Age	Transfer Emphasis	Busi- ness Orien- tation
N. England Colleges	n.s.d.[1]	higher	higher	n.s.d.	higher	lower
Midwest Colleges	n.s.d.	n.s.d.	higher	higher	higher	lower
Great Lakes Colleges	higher	n.s.d.	n.s.d.	higher	n.s.d.	lower
Southeast Colleges	n.s.d.	higher	higher	n.s.d.	n.s.d.	n.s.d.
Plains Colleges	n.s.d.	n.s.d.	higher	n.s.d.	n.s.d.	n.s.d.
Far West Colleges	higher	n.s.d.	lower	higher	higher	n.s.d.

[1] n.s.d. - no significant difference

TABLE VI

SIZE FACTOR LOADINGS AND BETA WEIGHTS

	Factor Loading	Beta
Size (R = .89)		
1. Total Enrollment	.83	.5149
2. Variety of Curriculum	.66	.2931
3. Library Size	.67	.2614

Data Collection Procedures

Data for this study have been gathered through use of several different methods in accordance with what Webb (1966) and Denzin (1970) have called the technique of triangulation. As Denzin (1970: 26) stated: ". . . because each method reveals different aspects of social reality, multiple methods of observation must be employed." On a theoretical level, the point being made is that in any situation in which multiple meanings are possible, the researcher must resort to the actor's views of what is going on in as many ways as are feasible. In order to meet this requirement, data have been collected through the use of a mailed questionnaire, personal interviews, and the personal observations and experiences of the researcher.

The Questionnaire

The primary data collection instrument was an anonymous, self-administered, mailed questionnaire. As can be seen in Table VII, the basic questionnaire was composed of four major sections. The complete questionnaire is presented in Appendixes D through H.

The personal data section of the questionnaire was designed with the aim of gathering information which might be significantly related to the goal perceptions of the respondents. This information constitutes the structural variables used in the analysis.

The fifty goal statements were derived from junior college catalogues and the general literature pertaining to junior college objectives, goals, and philosophy. Examples of the latter category include Raines and Myran, 1972; Scott, 1969; Lahti, 1967; Reimer, 1971; Bunnell, 1969; Thornton, 1966; Reynolds, 1965; and Brumbaugh, 1970. A major

concern in the selection of the goal statements was that they reflect problems which were meaningful to the respondents. The individuals reacting to the questionnaire were also given the opportunity to add goals to those listed and to write in comments concerning any aspect of the questionnaire. This was necessary in order to at least partially ensure that the structure of the questionnaire did not determine or pre-figure the responses (cf. Cicourel, 1963). Goals were also presented randomly to reduce any possible response set.

TABLE VII

ORGANIZATION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

SECTION A	Introduction
	Cover Letter Examples of Questions
SECTION B	Background Data
	Personal characteristics including: school, age, sex, teaching area, teaching load, teaching or administrative experience, degrees held, associational memberships, future occupational objectives
SECTION C	Goal Statements
	Open-ended questions concerning goals
SECTION D	Coded Response Sheet

Following the format developed by Gross and Grambsch (1968), respondents were asked to rate each goal statement on a five-point "importance" scale. Each statement was rated in terms of both perceptions of the existing goal structure (i.e., "is" responses) and perceptions of what they felt the institution's goals ought to be (i.e., "should be" responses). A total of fifty goals were rated in this way by faculty, administrators, students, and regents or trustees.

Validity and Pretesting of the Questionnaire

Kerlinger (1973: 457-8) has noted that there are at least three different types of validity, i.e., criterion-related (predictive), content, and construct. Only the latter two directly bear on the instrument used in this research.

Construct validity refers to attempts to validate the general theory implicit in the construction of the research instrument. Kerlinger, following Cronbach and Meehl (1955), pointed to the three steps in the process of construct validation: (1) indicating what constructs possibly account for test performance, (2) deriving hypotheses from the theory involving the construct, and (3) testing these hypotheses empirically (1973: 461). Construct-validation procedures, thus, are basically similar to the general process of testing and modifying any theory. In this approach the validity of the measuring instrument is ultimately determined by the validity of the underlying theoretical framework (Kerlinger, 1973: 462; cf. also Phillips, 1971: 199-200).

Content validity, on the other hand, is ". . . the representativeness or sampling adequacy of the content - the substance, the matter, the topics - of a measuring instrument" (Kerlinger, 1973: 458). In this

case the researcher is concerned with determining whether the proper-
ties or dimensions actually being assessed by the instrument are those
which he thinks are being measured. This is perhaps the most often used
definition of validity. Such a process of content validation essentially
consists of a series of judgments made by the researcher alone, or in
conjunction with others as to the representativeness of any given item.

In the present research, the primary instrument to be validated was
the questionnaire previously described. As already indicated, there is
no method of determining construct validity independently of the
validity of the theoretical framework being used. The strengths and
limitations of the guiding theory utilized in this report have been
discussed in Chapter III. However, Forcese and Richer (1973: 166-167)
have suggested that content validity may be greatly improved through
pretesting questionnaires. In this way invalid and unreliable questions
may be detected. Therefore, it was decided to pretest the questionnaire
prior to actually using it with the designated populations.

The instrument was administered during the summer of 1972 to
faculty and administrators at a small (approximately 300 students)
public junior college located in a nearby state. It was felt that these
respondents would reasonably approximate the subjects included in the
main study.

After the respondents had completed the questionnaire, they were
asked in informal interviews to criticize any of the items that they
felt were ambiguous or non-applicable to junior colleges. As a result
of these interviews, several goal statements were modified or dropped
altogether. Based upon the responses just described and the author's
own experiences as a junior college faculty member, it is believed that

the items in the questionnaire will operate as valid indicators of the various perspectives to be found in the junior college (cf. Lentner, 1964; McClosky, 1964; and Babbie, 1973 for further discussions of the validation procedure used here). However, it is also realized that the complex social beings which respond to the instrument may find meanings and make interpretations which were not considered by the author. Clearly, in order to discover such meanings, multiple techniques of investigation are called for. Even so, when considering social data, complete verification of the instrument is never possible. But, as Phillips put it, "The scientist, however, learns to live with this lack of definitive verification and settles, instead, for evidence that is not definitive but is nevertheless valuable" (1971: 200).

Mailing Procedure and Response Rate

Low response rates and refusal to participate are problems which are being increasingly encountered by survey researchers. A recent study conducted by the American Statistical Association reported that the completion rate of surveys is significantly declining and that it is becoming more difficult to obtain a satisfactory response rate (American Sociological Association, 1974). According to the report, ". . . there are an increasing number who now feel that it is an invasion of their privacy or an imposition on their time [to participate in a survey]" (1974: 2).

While there is little agreement in research literature (Babbie, 1973: 165) as to a precise specification of what a "high" or a "low" response rate for a mail-out questionnaire is, any departure from a one-hundred percent return rate may result in data which are biased in

unknown ways (Simon, 1969: 117). If non-respondents and respondents are known to differ, a low response rate becomes a problem of validity (Martin and McConnell, 1970; Donald, 1960). In such cases, the researcher must attempt to test whether or not the respondents form a random sample of the original sampling population (Babbie, 1973: 165).

Table VIII gives the number and proportion of returns for both mailings of the questionnaire. As shown in this table, the overall response rates were: faculty 35.9 percent, administration 76.1 percent, and regents 37.8 percent. Several authors have suggested techniques which might aid in maximizing return rates. These include: (1) "altrusitic appeals," such as emphasizing the social utility of the study, and personal appeals (Martin and McConnell, 1970; Goode and Hatt, 1952), (2) association of the research with legitimating symbols (Roeher, 1963), (3) the use of an appeal emphasizing the importance of the respondent (Slocum et al., 1956), (4) providing for the anonymity of respondents (Kerlinger, 1973), (5) use of follow-up mailings (Kerlinger, 1973; Boek and Jade, 1963), and (6) keeping the questionnaire as brief as possible (Kerlinger, 1973; Babbie, 1973).

Although these suggestions were utilized in this research, the return rates obtained for faculty and regents/trustees were lower than had been hoped for. It, therefore, becomes necessary to attempt to estimate the extent of any bias induced by non-response.

One method of estimating this type of bias is to compare respondent characteristics with known corresponding population parameters (Mayer and Pratt, 1966). Through the utilization of information provided by college bulletins and related documents and other studies of community colleges, it is possible to make this type of comparison for faculty

members. Table IX shows the relative percentages for selected charac-

teristics of faculty respondents and the total faculty population.

TABLE VIII

QUESTIONNAIRE RETURN RATE

Respondent Group	Number Sent	Response Wave	Number Returned	Proportion Returned
Faculty	563	First	181	32.2%
		Second	21	3.7%
TOTAL:			202	35.9%
Administration	71	First	46	64.8%
		Second	8	11.3%
TOTAL:			54	76.1%
Regents/Trustees	90[a]	First	27	30.0%
		Second	7	7.8%
TOTAL:			34	37.8%

[a]Questionnaires were sent to the local boards of regents/trustees, the Board of Regents for Oklahoma A & M Colleges, and the ten members of the Oklahoma State Regents for Higher Education. The latter group act as a coordinating board of control for all colleges and universities in the State of Oklahoma (Oklahoma State Regents for Higher Education, 1972).

TABLE IX

COMPARISON OF FACULTY RESPONDENTS TO
TOTAL FACULTY FOR ALL SCHOOLS

Faculty Characteristics	Respondents (Percent)[a]	Total Population (Percent)[b]	Z Value
Sex:			
Male	69.8	68.2	.356
Female	30.2	31.8	
Faculty Size: Percentage total of faculty in schools of:			
70 or fewer members	61.3	56.3	1.111
75 or more members	38.7	43.7	
Major Teaching Area:			
Vocational	24.8	25.0	.063
Academic	75.2	75.0	
Social Science	14.4	15.3	
Physical Science	20.8	19.4	
Humanities	24.7	25.2	
Physical Education	5.4	5.9	
Business	9.9	9.2	

[a]Based on N = 202.

[b]Percents drawn from Appendix A.

In order to test if the observed differences in percentates were statistically significant, the Difference of Proportions Test described by Ferguson (1966: 176-178) was calculated. The Z value obtained may be interpreted as a deviate of the standard unit curve. Since a two-tailed test must be used, Z values of 1.96 and 2.58 are required for significance at the .05 and 01 levels, respectively (Ferguson, 1966: 177).

As indicated in Table IX, no significant differences were found to exist between any of the proportions tested. The conclusion which may be drawn from these comparisons is that the faculty respondents are representative of the total faculty in the junior colleges in terms of the characteristics considered. There was no non-response problem in the student group since the questionnaire was personally administered by the researcher at three selected junior colleges.

Ideally the above procedures should also have been applied to the regents/trustees since a "low" response rate also resulted for this group. However, published data on which to base such comparisons were not available and would require a separate study to obtain. Therefore, the inferences drawn on the basis of this set of replies must be treated with caution since the extent of possible non-response distortion cannot be estimated.

Follow-Up Mailings

Much of the methodological literature on survey research suggests that one means of increasing response rates to mail-out questionnaires is to use several follow-up mailings (cf. Forcese and Richer, 1973; Kerlinger, 1973; Franklin and Osborne, 1971; Simon, 1969). Babbie (1973) recommends two follow-ups spaced two to three weeks apart as being the most effective procedure.

Approximately two weeks after the first mail-out should have been received by the target groups, a second mailing was made. A copy of the cover letter for the second mailing is located in Appendix J and response rates for both mailings are given in Table VIII. Since it had been felt that the respondents would be more likely to react honestly to

the questions if the questionnaires were entirely anonymous, it was nec-
essary to send the follow-up to all initial members of the population.
This also provided respondents with a copy of the questionnaire for
their files.

The costs involved in duplicating and mailing the questionnaires
prohibited a complete third mailing. Further, it was felt that since
the response to the second mailing was so low, a third mailing could not
be justified.

Other Sources of Data

As a supplement to and a means of checking the validity of the
paper and pencil responses, personal semi-structured interviews were
conducted at three selected colleges. Faculty and administrators were
asked to state their beliefs concerning the role of the junior college
as an institution of higher education. Following Dahrendorf's (1968)
suggestion, these interviews were used as "experiments in definition,"
in an attempt to understand the personal constructs used by the respon-
dents in relationship to their organizational milieu. The analysis of
interview data will be presented in Chapter V.

An additional source of data for the present study comes from the
past experiences of the author as a member of a junior college faculty.
This knowledge cannot be considered direct evidence relative to the
present hypotheses since it was not obtained within a research context.
In addition, as Mathiesen (1971: 30) pointed out, one cannot directly
observe a point of view, a perspective, or a subjective meaning. Only
the behavior, including response to paper and pencil questionnaires and
oral interview questions, can be observed. However, prior experience

with the phenomena to be studied can form a framework in which subjec-
tive meanings may be partially understood.   Such experiences gives the
researcher a basis for asking intelligent (i.e., those that make "sense"
to the respondents) questions and as a basis for imagining what a given
answer is intended to convey within a specific context.

Summary

The target of the present research is the perceptions of the goals
of the junior college held by significant groups within this type of
educational institution.   These groups consist of junior college faculty,
administrators, students, and regents.   Information as to the perspec-
tives found within such groups was assembled through the use of ques-
tionnaires and personal interviews.   In Chapter V of this study, the
data generated from these instruments will be examined through multi-
variate analysis techniques.

CHAPTER V

STRATEGIES OF ANALYSIS

Introduction

This chapter presents the results of the data analyses related to
the exploratory research questions presented in Chapter I and to the
research hypotheses listed in Chapter III. Because of the large amount
of data collected during the present study, it was necessary to develop
research strategies which allowed for the examination of a number of
substantive questions simultaneously. Based upon the theoretical and
research approaches previously described, three major themes of analysis
emerged: descriptive, cross-classifications, and the testing of speci-
fic hypotheses.

Often the clearest picture of research data is given by simple
frequency and percentage descriptions of the data. This is particularly
true when the research variables are classificatory in that they are
measured in terms of a limited number of discrete categories or values.
The number of cases or individuals falling into each category provides a
ready means of examining the distribution of the sample in terms of the
major dependent and independent variables (Nie et al., 1970: 97). After
the overall distributions of the research variables have been estab-
lished, relationships among variable sets may then be examined through
the use of bivariate joint frequency distributions with varying levels
of control variables (Nie et al., 1970: 115).

In this chapter distributions and descriptive statistics are provided for the responses of all groups to the goal statements contained in the questionnaire. The personal and organizational characteristics of all respondents are also tabulated and described. As part of the general description of the sample, a brief account of the development and current status of the junior college in the State of Oklahoma is provided.

Although descriptive information is valuable, a primary purpose of the present study is to discover relationships among sets of variables. One method which has been employed toward this end is cross-classification analysis. This technique, also termed "the elaboration model," provides the researcher with a means of arriving at what Carter (1971) termed epistemic correlations. Such correlations refer to assumed relationships between an unobserved or unobservable construct and an observed variable. The observed variable is taken as a measure or indicator of the construct. In this study the major construct is taken to be the perceptions or perspectives of the individuals within an organization toward the purposes of that organization. Their responses to the questions posed by the researcher become the observed variables.

Relationships between the observed variables and the underlying constructs may be explicated through the use of cross-classification analysis. In this approach the relationship between two variables is elaborated through the simultaneous introduction of additional variables (Babbie, 1973: 281). This technique has been utilized in the current study to determine the patterns of association existing

between the personal background characteristics of respondents and evaluations of particular goals.

The hypotheses stated in Chapter III are tested through a variety of correlational and inferential statistical procedures. The use of a number of such tests is necessary since when dealing with social data the correspondence between measures and constructs must always be open to examination. Further, as Ravetz (1971: 78) noted, quantitative readings taken from our measuring devices cannot be considered independently of the interpretations placed upon them. However, should several alternative modes of interpretation yield much the same results, then the likelihood of correspondence between our findings and the reality represented by our constructs is high (Carter, 1971). The primary statistics used within this context are Student's "t," analysis of variance ("F"), Scheffe's test for the multiple comparison of means, Spearman's Rho, Kendall's Coefficient of Concordance ("W"), and Cramer's "V."

Descriptive Analyses

The sample in the present research consists of selected respondents at thirteen public junior colleges in Oklahoma. Junior colleges have traditionally been an important part of Oklahoma higher education. The first two-year college in Oklahoma was opened prior to 1900 and the number of public junior colleges has continued to increase steadily during this century (Dunlap, 1969; Kelly and Wilburn, 1970). Enrollment in these colleges is expected to increase from over 10,000 students currently to more than 16,000 by 1980 (Medsker and Tillery, 1971).

As indicated in Chapter IV, data were collected from Oklahoma

junior college faculty, administrators, students, and regents through mail-out questionnaires and personal interviews. In order to take advantage of the full range of data which were obtained in this way and yet not be overwhelmed by the magnitude of the information, it was decided to convert the data to a machine-readable form. This allowed the use of available computer and computer-related resources for examining several variables simultaneously and for the statistical calculations. The information provided by each respondent was encoded on standard IBM Fortran cards which were used for computer assisted analysis. While the advantages of such a procedure in terms of handling large quantities of data are obvious, it should be noted that the final responsibility for interpreting the meaning present in the data rests with the researcher and cannot be assigned to a machine.

The primary programs used in data analysis were drawn from the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (Nie et al., 1970). The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences is an integrated system of computer programs which have been designed for the analysis of social science data. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences provides the researcher with easy access to a wide range of computer programs without requiring a high degree of programmer expertise. The programs are written in Fortran IV and are compatible with the IBM 360 series. Each sub-program is subjected to a period of testing for accuracy before being included in the system (Nie et al., 1970).

Description of Sample Characteristics

Questionnaire data used in this study were prepared at two main levels of aggregation. At the individual level, there are measures on

389 faculty, administrators, students, and regents/trustees who com-

pleted the questionnaire. Each member of the sample has a score on the

measures described in Appendix D, Section B (the goal statements). Each

person's response was weighted equally in all analyses performed at the

individual level.

Analysis of response data was also carried out at the group levels

previously specified. Although all subjects received the same sets of

goal statements, questions concerning personal and professional charac-

teristics varied with each group.

Faculty

A relatively small number of studies have been concerned with the

characteristics, attitudes, and aspirations of junior college faculty

(cf. Cohen et al., 1971; Bushnell, 1973; Godfrey and Holmstrom, 1970).

As Cohen (1971) noted, this is in part a function of the general lack of

institutional research in the junior college. Further, while students

are readily accessible as a source of data, college faculty are much

less so. The purpose of this section is to present a detailed portrait

of the faculty encountered in the present research.

Table X presents percentage distributions describing educational,

sex, and age characteristics of the faculty. From this table, it is

evident that females constitute a minority within the faculty. This

tends to be true of higher education in general and is not a feature

unique to junior colleges. Few of the respondents were under age

twenty-five; none were less than twenty years of age. Almost one-half

of the sample (43 percent) were between the ages of twenty-six and

thirty-five, suggesting that a number of career paths were still open

TABLE X

DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF FACULTY

Age	
20 to 25	8.4[a]
26 to 30	25.7
31 to 35	17.3
36 to 40	13.4
41 to 50	21.3
51 to 60	9.4
Over 60	4.5
TOTAL	100.00

Education	
Baccalaureate or less	7.9
Master's	76.2
Completion of Graduate Degree Requirements above Master's[b]	15.9
TOTAL	100.00

Sex	
Male	69.8
Female	30.2
TOTAL	100.00

[a]All figures given in percents; N = 202.

[b]Includes specialist degrees, doctorates, and all requirements for the doctorate but dissertation.

to these individuals. A master's is the most commonly held degree among the faculty (76.2 percent) and is still generally considered to be the degree most appropriate for junior college teaching (Medsker and Tillery, 1971). However, sixteen percent of the respondents did hold degrees above the master's level.

TABLE XI

MAJOR TEACHING AREA BY DEGREE

	Baccalaureate or Less	Master's	Specialist	ABD[b]	Doctorate
Vocational	75.0[a]	21.4	38.4	0.0	0.0
Social Science	0.0	14.9	15.4	33.3	18.8
Physical Science	0.0	18.3	23.1	0.0	68.8
Humanities	18.8	27.9	0.0	66.7	12.4
Physical Education	0.0	5.8	15.4	0.0	0.0
Business	6.2	11.7	7.7	0.0	0.0
TOTAL	100.0 (N=16)	100.0 (N=154)	100.0 (N=13)	100.0 (N=3)	100.0 (N=16)

[a]All figures given in percentages.

[b]All requirements for degree met except dissertation.

As Table XI reveals, most of those holding advanced degrees teach in academic subject areas and ten percent of the academic faculty (eight percent for all faculty) have completed a doctorate. These findings correspond closely to the figures reported by Bushnell (1971),

Medsker and Tillery (1971), Cohen (1971), and Reynolds (1969).

A further description of the faculty, based upon organizational attributes, is presented in Table XII. This table contains information regarding the distribution of respondents across teaching areas and loads, professional memberships, occupational objectives, and educational backgrounds. These data indicate that approximately one-fourth of the faculty are teaching in vocational or occupational programs while seventy-five percent are involved in the traditional academic areas. The latter group has often been characterized as "transfer" faculty since the preparation of students for transfer to a four-year college has been a major purpose of the academic program (Maloney, 1969). The greatest number of faculty are found teaching in the humanities (24 percent) and physical sciences (21 percent), and the least in physical education (five percent).

The average teaching load is approximately fifteen semester hours, although twenty-five percent are teaching at least one to three hours more. Seven percent of the respondents indicated a teaching load of more than eighteen hours. This suggests that these individuals may have been counting total contact hours (including such things as student laboratories) rather than semester credit hours.

Nearly 70 percent of the faculty held memberships in both professional (discipline-related) and educational organizations. Local or community educational associations seem to be strong with an enrollment of one-half of the respondents. By contrast, only six percent of the sample did not belong to either a professional or educational association.

TABLE XII

ORGANIZATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS OF FACULTY

Major Teaching Area		
Occupational	24.8[a]	
Acadmeic	75.2	
Social Science		14.4
Physical Science		20.8
Humanities		24.7
Physical Education		5.4
Business		9.9
TOTAL	100.0	

Number of Hours Taught	
2 to 6	8.4
7 to 9	5.5
10 to 12	9.4
13 to 15	45.1
16 to 18	24.3
Over 18	7.3
TOTAL	100.0

Professional Memberships	
Regional Professional Association	74.8 (N=151)
National Professional Association	56.9 (N=115)
National Educational Association	29.2 (N=29)
State Educational Association	66.8 (N=135)
Local or Community Educational Association	51.5 (N=104)

Professional Memberships	
Professional (in discipline) Only	13.9
Educational Only	10.4
Professional and Educational	69.3
No Memberships Held	6.4
TOTAL	100.0

TABLE XII (Continued)

Future Occupational Goals	
Remain in Junior College Teaching	50.5
Enter 4-year College or University Teaching	11.9
Enter Junior College Administration	17.3
Enter Administration at 4-year College or University Level	3.5
Combination of Teaching and Research at College or University Level	0.0
Combination of Teaching and Research in the Junior College	4.0
Non-Academic	7.8
Administration at Either Junior or Senior College Level	3.5
Retirement	1.5
TOTAL	100.0

Number of Years in Current Position	
First	13.4
1 to 3	49.0
4 to 6	16.3
7 to 10	8.9
11 or More	12.4
TOTAL	100.0

Number of Hours Earned Above Highest Degree Held	
None	29.7
1 to 15	30.2
16 to 30	16.3
31 or More	12.4
No Response	11.4
TOTAL	100.0

TABLE XII (Continued)

Last Year as Full-Time Student	
1968 to 1973	59.5
1960 to 1967	27.7
Prior to 1960	6.9
No Response	5.9
TOTAL	100.0

Last Year as Part-Time Student	
1968 to 1973	48.5
1960 to 1967	8.9
Prior to 1960	2.0
No Response	40.6
TOTAL	100.0

Years of Prior Teaching Experience at Primary or Secondary Levels		
None	42.6	
Experienced	57.4	
1 to 3		16.2
4 to 6		13.9
7 to 10		12.4
11 or More		14.9
TOTAL	100.0	

Years of Prior Teaching Experience in the Junior College		
None	11.4	
Experienced	88.6	
1 to 3		44.1
4 to 6		23.7
7 to 10		6.4
11 or More		14.4
TOTAL	100.0	

TABLE XII (Continued)

Years of Prior Teaching Experience in 4-Year College or University		
None	76.7	
Experienced	23.3	
1 to 3		17.8
4 to 6		4.0
7 to 10		1.0
11 or More		.5
TOTAL	100.0	

[a] All figures given in percentages; N = 202.

The majority of the respondents had recent contact with graduate study either as full- or part-time students. Sixty percent had been a full-time student within the past five years and almost fifty percent were part-time students in the same period. Further, sixty percent of the faculty had some graduate course work above the highest degree held.

Fifty-seven percent of those responding had prior teaching experience at the primary or secondary levels. Twenty-seven percent had taught at those levels for more than six years. Only one-fourth of the sample had ever taught in a four-year college or university and 18 percent of those individuals had taught for less than three years. This experience may have been acquired through graduate teaching assistantships. Fifty-five percent of the sample had taught in the junior college for less than three years. As shown in Table XIII, the above figures are similar to those reported in other studies.

TABLE XIII

TEACHING BACKGROUND OF JUNIOR COLLEGE FACULTY

Study	Primary	Secondary	4-Year College	University	Sample Size
Kelly and Wilburn 1970	1%	46%	18%	10%	131
Bushnell 1973	11%	38%	27%	combined figure	2,491
Reynolds 1969	--	30%	17%	combined figure	--

A high percentage (50.5) of the faculty planned to remain in classroom teaching in the junior college. Twelve percent desired to move to teaching at senior college or university level. Almost no interest in research was indicated; of the total faculty, only four percent of the sample mentioned research as a future goal. Administration was perceived as a desirable objective by almost one-fourth of the total group. Seventeen percent preferred administration in the junior college; four percent wished to enter administration at either the junior college or senior college level; and another four percent sought to enter administration specifically at the snior college or university level.

TABLE XIV

SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS BY ACADEMIC-
OCCUPATIONAL AREAS

	Academic (N=152)	Occupational (N=50)
Sex		
Male	72.1[a]	61.5
Female	27.9	37.5
TOTAL	100.0	100.0
Age		
20 to 25	7.8	10.4
26 to 30	23.4	33.3
31 to 35	17.5	16.7
36 to 40	16.2	4.2
41 to 50	22.1	18.7
51 to 60	7.8	14.6
Over 60	5.2	2.1
TOTAL	100.0	100.0
Organizational Membership		
Professional only	13.0	16.6
Educational only	13.6	0.0
Professional and Educational	69.5	68.8
Neither	3.9	14.6
TOTAL	100.0	100.0
Degree		
Baccalaureate or lower	3.9	20.9
Master's	78.6	68.7
Above Master's	17.5	10.4
TOTAL	100.0	100.0

TABLE XIV (Continued)

	Academic (N=152)	Occupational (N=50)
Contract Status		
Part-time	17.5	12.5
Full-time	82.5	87.5
TOTAL	100.0	100.0
Future Occupational Objectives		
Junior College Teaching	56.5	31.1
Senior College or University Teaching	9.7	18.8
Junior College Administration	16.9	18.8
Senior College or University Administration	1.9	8.3
Teaching and Research at Junior College	4.5	2.1
Non-Academic	5.8	14.6
Administration at Junior College or University	3.9	2.1
Retirement	.8	4.2
TOTAL	100.0	100.0

[a]All figures reported as percents.

When the faculty are dichotomized into those teaching in academic subject areas and those in vocational or occupationally oriented subjects, differences in career goals appear. While fifty-seven percent of the academic faculty plan to remain in junior college teaching, only 31.1 percent of the occupational faculty do so. Table XIV also indicates that more of the occupational faculty plan to enter non-academic employment (14.6 percent) than do the academic faculty (5.8 percent). A surprisingly high percentage of the occupational faculty wish to enter

junior college administration (18.8 percent). In fact, there is little difference between the two groups in terms of this career goal.

More females are reported in the occupational faculty than in the academic group. This may reflect the larger number of females in nursing and other technological specialities. Age and organizational membership distributions between the two groups tend to be very similar. However, the occupational faculty are more likely (14.6 percent as opposed to 3.9 percent) not to belong to either a professional or educational association. The occupational faculty also constitutes the majority of those teaching without a master's degree (20.9 percent as compared to 3.9 percent for the academic faculty).

Information concerning the characteristics of part-time or adjunct faculty is generally lacking in junior college literature (Bender and Hammons, 1972). Reynolds (1969) estimated that there is about one part-time staff member for every two full-time teachers in the junior college. In the present sample, 16.3 percent of the faculty were on a part-time or supply basis.

As shown in Table XV, the age and sex distributions of the full and part-time faculty are very similar. However, this table also reveals that the full-time faculty are more likely not to belong to any professional or educational association than are the part-time faculty (0.0 percent as compared to 7.7 percent for the full-time group). Fewer of the part-time respondents had completed a master's degree (51.5 percent) than full-time faculty (81.1 percent) but, a larger percentage of the part-time faculty had completed advanced degrees. This may be due to the fact that the junior colleges attempt to hire well qualified people, such as attorneys, from the local community on a part-time basis.

TABLE XV

SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS BY CONTRACT STATUS

	Part-Time (N=33)	Full-Time (N=169)
Sex		
Male	66.7[a]	70.4
Female	33.3	29.6
TOTAL	100.0	100.0
Age		
20 to 25	12.1	7.7
16 to 30	30.3	24.9
31 to 35	15.2	17.8
36 to 40	9.1	14.2
41 to 50	21.2	21.3
51 to 60	9.1	9.5
Over 61	3.0	4.6
TOTAL	100.0	100.0
Organizational Membership		
Professional only	18.2	13.0
Educational only	18.2	8.9
Professional and Educational	63.6	70.4
Neither	0.0	7.7
TOTAL	100.0	100.0
Degree		
Baccalaureate or less	9.1	7.7
Master's	51.5	81.1
Above Master's	39.4	11.2
TOTAL	100.0	100.0

TABLE XV (Continued)

	Part-Time (N=33)		Full-Time (N=169)	
Major Teaching Area				
Vocational	21.2		25.4	
Academic	78.8		74.6	
Social Science		18.2		13.5
Physical Science		15.2		21.9
Humanities		18.2		25.5
Physical Education		21.2		2.4
Business		6.0		11.3
TOTAL	100.0		100.0	
Years in Current Position				
First	15.1		13.0	
1 to 3	54.5		47.9	
4 to 6	15.2		16.6	
7 to 10	9.1		8.9	
Over 11	6.1		13.6	
TOTAL	100.0		100.0	
Future Occupational Objectives				
Junior College Teaching	33.3		53.8	
Senior College or University Teaching	15.2		11.2	
Junior College Administration	39.4		13.0	
Senior College or University Administration	0.0		4.3	
Teaching and Research at Junior College	3.0		4.1	
Non-Academic	9.1		7.7	
Administration at Junior College or University	0.0		4.1	
Retirement	0.0		1.8	
TOTAL	100.0		100.0	

[a]All figures reported as percentages.

The cross-classification of future occupational objectives by contract status indicates that the part-time faculty are less interested in staying in junior college teaching than are the full-time group (33.3 percent as compared to 53.8 percent). Another major difference in career goals between the two groups is related to the goal of moving to junior college administration. Thirty-nine percent of the part-time faculty hoped to make this move, while only thirteen percent of the full-time faculty wished to do so.

Numerous studies have attempted to describe junior college faculty through the creation of various typologies based upon career orientations. Friedman (1967a, 1967b, 1969) classified junior college faculty in terms of their prior institutional affiliations; "professors," "graduate students," and "high schoolers." "High schoolers" were described as those who had formerly taught in secondary school, were over thirty-five when they began teaching in junior college, emphasized subject matter, and had a master's degree in education or academic area of specialization. "Graduate students" regarded the junior college as an interim position until they could return to graduate school for advanced degrees and move to a university teaching or research position. "Professors" were those who had previously taught at a university and vi viewed teaching at the junior college as a definite step downward or demotion.

Friedman's theoretical typology is basically similar to others which have been developed to characterize college faculty (cf. Cohen et al., 1971; Gusfield and Riesman, 1964; Cohen and Brawer, 1968; and Kelly and Connolly, 1970) in terms of career patterns. Any typology, however, has only heuristic value in that it should serve to alert the

research to new possible orientations to his data. Applying Friedman's typology in this fashion to the characteristics shown in Table XVI, several differences within the faculty become apparent. For example, those who aspire to teaching positions at the senior college or university level tend to be young (54 percent under age thirty), discipline rather than institutional oriented (20.8 percent belong only to a professional association; none only to an educational association), and to have not had any teaching experience in the primary or secondary levels (62.5 percent).

The data reported in Table XVII describes the degree of association between prior experience in teaching at the primary and secondary levels and future career goals. The majority of those with such experience plan to remain in the junior college either in teaching or administration (73.3 percent) while only eight percent (as compared to 17.0 percent for the non-experienced group) hope to become senior college or university teachers. While these data do not confirm the validity of Friedman's typology, they do suggest that the career patterns he described are present within junior college faculty. The author's personal observations of the career plans of faculty in the junior college also are in accord with the general typology utilized by Friedman.

Administrators

As with the case with junior college faculty, little research attention has been devoted to the characteristics and backgrounds of junior college administrators. Smith (1972) reported on the functions and salaries of academic deans in the junior college; O'Grady (1971)

TABLE XVI

FUTURE OCCUPATIONAL GOALS BY SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS

	Junior College Teaching (N=102)	Senior College or University Teaching (N=24)	Junior College Administration (N=35)	Senior College or University Administration (N=7)
Sex				
Male	67.6[a]	62.5	80.0	71.4
Female	32.4	37.5	20.0	28.6
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Age				
20 to 25	4.9	12.5	8.6	0.0
26 to 30	18.6	41.7	37.1	28.6
31 to 35	18.7	8.3	14.3	57.1
36 to 40	14.7	12.5	5.7	14.3
41 to 50	23.5	16.7	25.7	0.0
51 to 60	12.7	8.3	8.6	0.0
Over 60	6.9	0.0	0.0	0.0
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

TABLE XVI (Continued)

	Junior College Teaching (N=102)	Senior College or University Teaching (N=24)	Junior College Administration (N=35)	Senior College or University Administration (N=7)
Organizational Membership				
Professional only	10.8	20.8	17.1	14.3
Educational only	15.7	0.0	8.6	0.0
Professional or Educational	64.7	75.0	74.3	57.1
Neither	8.8	4.2	0.0	28.6
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Degree				
Baccalaureate or less	5.9	12.5	2.9	14.3
Master's	81.4	50.0	82.9	85.7
Above Master's	12.7	37.5	14.2	0.0
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

TABLE XVI (Continued)

	Junior College Teaching (N=102)		Senior College or University Teaching (N=24)		Junior College Administration (N=35)		Senior College or University Administration (N=7)	
Major Teaching Area								
Vocational	15.7		37.5		25.7		57.1	
Academic	84.3		62.5		74.3		42.9	
Social Science		14.7		12.5		20.0		0.0
Physical Science		29.4		12.5		5.7		0.0
Humanities		30.4		25.0		14.3		0.0
Physical Education		2.0		8.3		17.2		0.0
Business		7.8		4.2		17.1		42.9
TOTAL	100.0		100.0		100.0		100.0	
Prior Teaching Experience at Primary or Secondary Levels								
No Experience	34.3		62.5		48.6		42.9	
Experienced	65.7		37.5		51.4		57.1	
TOTAL	100.0		100.0		100.0		100.0	

TABLE XVI (Continued)

	Junior College Teaching (N=102)	Senior College or University Teaching (N=24)	Junior College Administration (N=35)	Senior College or University Administration (N=7)
	Prior Teaching Experience at Senior College or University Level			
No Experience	80.4	75.0	80.0	28.6
Experienced	19.6	25.0	20.0	71.4
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

	Teaching and Research at Junior College (N=8)	Non-Academic (N=16)	Administration at Junior College or University (N=7)	Retirement (N=3)
	Sex			
Male	75.0	75.0	71.4	33.3
Female	25.0	25.0	28.6	66.7
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

TABLE XVI (Continued)

	Teaching and Research at Junior College (N=8)	Non-Academic (N=16)	Administration at Junior College or University (N=7)	Retirement (N=3)
	Age			
20 to 25	0.0	12.4	57.1	0.0
26 to 30	25.0	25.0	14.3	0.0
31 to 35	0.0	31.3	0.0	0.0
36 to 40	25.0	12.5	28.6	0.0
41 to 50	37.5	18.8	0.0	0.0
51 to 60	12.5	0.0	0.0	0.0
Over 60	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
	Organizational Membership			
Professional only	25.0	18.8	0.0	0.0
Educational only	12.5	6.3	0.0	0.0
Professional or Educational	62.5	68.8	100.0	100.0
Neither	0.0	6.1	0.0	0.0
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

TABLE XVI (Continued)

	Teaching and Research at Junior College (N=8)	Non-Academic (N=16)	Administration at Junior College or University (N=7)	Retirement (N=3)
Degree				
Baccalaureate or less	0.0	12.5	28.6	33.3
Master's	62.5	75.0	71.4	66.7
Above Master's	37.5	12.5	0.0	0.0
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Major Teaching Area				
Vocational	12.5	50.0	14.3	66.7
Academic	87.5	50.0	85.7	33.3
Social Science	0.0	6.3	28.6	33.3
Physical Science	50.0	18.8	0.0	0.0
Humanities	37.5	6.2	57.1	0.0
Physical Education	0.0	6.2	0.0	0.0
Business	0.0	12.5	0.0	0.0
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

TABLE XVI (Continued)

	Teaching and Research at Junior College (N=8)	Non-Academic (N=16)	Administration at Junior College or University (N=7)	Retirement (N=3)
	Prior Teaching Experience at Primary or Secondary Levels			
No Experience	25.0	68.8	28.6	33.3
Experienced	75.0	31.2	71.4	66.7
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
	Prior Teaching Experience at Senior College or University Level			
No Experience	75.0	75.0	71.4	100.0
Experienced	25.0	25.0	28.6	0.0
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

[a]All figures reported as percentages.

described the administrative duties of departmental chairman (cf. also Johnson, 1964; Richardson, 1970; White, 1970). In the present study, information was obtained on both personal and organizational characteristics of junior college administrators. Table XVIII gives a breakdown of the age, sex, and educational backgrounds of this group. Most administrators were between the ages of thirty-six and fifty (62.9 percent) and were males (79.6 percent). Forty-six of the administrators held a master's degree, while an equal number held or were working toward more advanced degrees.

TABLE XVII

FUTURE OCCUPATIONAL GOALS BY PRIOR PRIMARY
AND SECONDARY TEACHING EXPERIENCE

	Prior Experience	
	None	Experienced
Junior College Teaching	40.7	57.8[a]
Senior College or University Teaching	17.4	7.8
Junior College Administration	19.8	15.5
Senior College or University Administration	3.5	3.5
Teaching or Research at Junior College	2.3	5.2
Non-Academic	12.8	4.3
Administration at Junior College or University	2.3	4.3
Retirement	1.2	1.6
TOTAL	100.0 (N=86)	100.0 (N-116)

[a]All figures reported as percentages.

TABLE XVIII

DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF ADMINISTRATORS

Age	
20 to 25	5.6[a]
26 to 30	3.7
31 to 35	7.4
36 to 40	29.6
41 to 50	33.3
51 to 60	16.7
Over 60	3.7
TOTAL	100.0

Education	
Baccalaureate or less	14.8
Master's	42.6
Completion of Graduate Degree Requirements Above Master's[b]	42.6
TOTAL	100.0

Sex	
Male	79.6
Female	20.4
TOTAL	100.0

[a]All figures given in percents; N=54.

[b]Includes specialist degrees, doctorates, and all requirements for the doctorate except dissertation.

As indicated in Table XIX, most of those responding to the questionnaire were junior college deans. Seven of the junior college presidents completed the instrument. The majority of the respondents had held their current positions less than six years (83.3 percent) and had taught at the primary or secondary level (68.5 percent). Forty-eight percent had also held administrative positions at the primary or secondary level. One-half of this group had taught for seven to ten years at a four-year college or university, whereas only nineteen percent had prior administrative experience at this level.

In Table XX it can be seen that while one-half of the junior college deans held master's degrees, approximately one-half were also working toward, or held, advanced degrees. Most of the deans were male (87.1 percent), ranged from thirty-six to fifty in age (77.4 percent) and had previous teaching experience at the primary or secondary level (64.5 percent). The junior college presidents held advanced degrees (six of the seven), were from forty-one to sixty years of age and were all male. Six of this group had also taught at the primary or secondary level.

Students and Regents/Trustees

Characteristics of the students in the sample are given in Table XXI. This group consists of mostly male, single, first-year students with little military experience. The majority of these students (86.9 percent) plan to eventually transfer to a four-year college or university. Table XXII presents a breakdown of the characteristics of the students based upon future orientations. A high percentage of those planning to transfer are male (62.8 percent) and have had previous military experience (20.9 percent).

TABLE XIX

ORGANIZATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS OF ADMINISTRATORS

Administrative Position	
President	13.0[a]
Dean	57.4
Registrar	9.3
Other	20.3
TOTAL	100.0

Number of Years in Current Position	
First	13.0
1 to 3	37.0
4 to 6	33.3
7 to 10	13.0
11 or more	3.7
TOTAL	100.0

	Years of Prior Teaching Experience					
	Primary or Secondary		Junior College		4-Year College or University	
None	31.5		38.9		16.7	
Experienced	68.5		61.1		83.3	
1 to 3		22.1		18.5		1.9
4 to 6		16.7		11.1		24.1
7 to 10		13.0		9.3		50.0
11 or more		16.7		22.2		7.3
TOTAL	100.0		100.0		100.0	

TABLE XIX (Continued)

| | Years of Prior Administrative Experience | | |
	Primary or Secondary	Junior College	4-Year College or University
None	51.9	7.4	81.5
Experienced	48.1	92.6	18.5
1 to 3	18.5	29.6	11.0
4 to 6	11.1	46.3	5.5
7 to 10	9.2	11.1	2.0
11 or more	9.3	5.6	0.0
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0

[a]All figures reported as percents; N=54.

TABLE XX

ADMINISTRATIVE POSITION BY SELECTED
CHARACTERISTICS

	Dean (N=31)	President (N=7)	Registrar (N=5)	Other (N=11)
Degree				
Baccalaureate or less	3.2[a]	0.0	0.0	63.6
Master's	54.9	14.3	60.0	18.2
Above Master's	41.9	85.7	40.0	18.2
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Sex				
Male	87.1	100.0	40.0	63.6
Female	12.9	0.0	60.0	36.4
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Age				
20 to 25	0.0	0.0	0.0	27.2
26 to 30	6.5	0.0	0.0	0.0
31 to 35	3.2	0.0	0.0	27.3
36 to 40	51.6	0.0	0.0	0.0
41 to 50	25.8	42.9	40.0	45.5
51 to 60	9.7	57.1	40.0	0.0
Over 60	3.2	0.0	20.0	0.0
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

TABLE XX (Continued)

	Dean (N=31)	President (N=7)	Registrar (N=5)	Other (N=11)
Years of Prior Teaching Experience at Primary or Secondary Level				
None	35.5	14.3	20.0	36.4
1 to 3	16.1	14.3	0.0	54.5
4 to 6	22.6	28.6	0.0	0.0
7 to 10	19.4	0.0	0.0	9.1
Over 10	6.4	42.8	80.0	0.0
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

[a]All figures reported as percents.

TABLE XXI

STUDENT CHARACTERISTICS

Academic Classification	
Freshman	59.6[a]
Sophomore	38.4
Other	2.0
TOTAL	100.0

Marital Status	
Single	70.7
Married	29.3
TOTAL	100.0

Military Experience	
Veteran	19.2
Non-Veteran	80.8
TOTAL	100.0

Sex	
Male	61.6
Female	38.4
TOTAL	100.0

Transfer Plans	
Plan to transfer	86.9
Will not transfer	13.1
TOTAL	100.0

[a]All figures reported as percents; N=99.

TABLE XXII

TRANSFER PLANS BY SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS

Plan to Transfer	Yes (N=86)	No (N=13)
Marital Status		
Married	27.9[a]	38.5
Single	72.1	61.5
TOTAL	100.0	100.0
Sex		
Male	62.8	53.8
Female	37.2	46.2
TOTAL	100.0	100.0
Academic Classification		
Freshman	59.3	61.5
Sophomore	39.5	30.8
Other	1.2	7.7
TOTAL	100.0	100.0
Military Experience		
Veteran	20.9	7.7
Non-Veteran	79.1	92.3
TOTAL	100.0	100.0

[a]All figures given as percentages.

The amount of information concerning the background characteristics
of the regents and trustees in the sample is very limited. It was felt
that this group would be least likely to respond to a mail-out ques-
tionnaire; therefore, the number of questions on the instrument sent to
this group was kept to a minimum. Only information on educational back-
grounds and occupations was solicited. Seventy-one percent of this
group had completed a baccalaureate degree and had also had further
graduate study. Only six percent of the sample did not hold a baccalau-
reate degree. The occupational backgrounds in the sample ranged from
the professions (i.e., medicine, law, and education; 21.5 percent) to
self-employed business men (i.e., real estate, insurance, ranching,
farming, and other types of business owners; 72 percent). Thus, higher
status occupations and a high level of education is characteristic of
this group. These findings correspond to other studies of junior
college trustees and regents (cf. Gilliland and Nunnery, 1970).

Tests of Hypotheses

This section is concerned with testing the predictions made in
Chapter III. Each hypothesis is tested through the application of a
number of data analysis techniques. The first series of analyses con-
sists of the computation of basically descriptive statistics, i.e.,
means, percentages, ranks, standard deviation, and the setting up of
frequency distributions to study the nature of the distributions
obtained for the major variables in the study. This analysis is made
both for the overall group of all respondents, as well as the four sets
of sub-groups formed by dividing the overall group on the basis of
administrative, faculty, student, or regency position. The second set

of data analyses consists of applying various tests of significance to the research hypotheses.

Although the weaknesses and dangers inherent in such an approach are recognized, the conventional .05 level of significance is used throughout all statistical analysis of data (Skipper et al., 1967; Gold, 1969). Since such a level can be set only when the cost of a wrong decision about a null hypothesis can be calculated, and since this is typically an impossible task, the only rationale for the selection of the .05 level rests in the high degree of conventionality and communicability among scientists that this level possesses. This does not imply that data must meet the .05 criterion in order not to be discarded or be considered substantively significant. Such a type of decision-making is antithetical to the information accumulation process of science and is not followed in this research effort (Morrison and Henkel, 1970; Taylor and Frideres, 1972).

Research Hypotheses One through Four are concerned with comparisons of perceived (is) and preferred (should be) goals within each of the major groups studied. These research hypotheses and associated statistical (null) hypotheses are tested through the use of Spearman's rank order correlation coefficient (Rho) and Student's "t" statistic. Rho measures the degree of association between two sets of ranked data. Rho is commonly viewed as a strong test of association and is used extensively in the social sciences. It is also appropriate when ties in ranks occur (Champion, 1970: 216). Tho also has the advantage of being suitable for ordinal level data and may be tested for statistical significance through the computation of a standard Z score.

While rho is used to compare the rankings on all goal statements

taken together, t-tests have been computed on the differences between
perceived and preferred goals within each group. T-tests are based upon
a comparison of mean differences and as Boneau (1960) and Baker et al.
(1966) have demonstrated, the "t" statistic is a highly robust test and
may be used when conditions for meeting all the related statistical
assumptions are lacking. A statistical summary for each of the pre-
ferred and perceived goals including means, standard deviations, and
standard errors is presented in Appendix M. This appendix also con-
tains the t-test of significance between each perceived and preferred
goal within each group. Appendix L gives a complete listing of ranks
for all goals for each group.

In order to provide a ready index to the fifty goal statements, an
abbreviated listing of the goals is provided in Table XXIII. Table
XXIV presents the rank order correlations between the ranking of "is"
responses and the ranking of "should be" responses by each group.
Tables XXV through XXXII indicate the ten highest and lowest ranked
goals for each group and compare the "is" and "should be" rankings for
each of these goals.

Research Hypothesis One focused on the differences of perceptions
of "is" and "should be" goals by the faculty. The associated null
hypothesis stated that there would be a significant difference between
the ranks assigned to the two sets of goals by this group (i.e.,
rho = 0). As Table XXIV indicates, a rho of .72 was found for this
comparison. This rho value yields a Z score of 4.8. In order to reject
the null hypothesis, a Z of 1.96 or greater is required (Champion, 1960:
216). In the present case the null hypothesis must be rejected. This

TABLE XXIII

ABBREVIATED FORMS OF GOAL STATEMENTS

Goal Number[a]	Abbreviated Form
1	Training for scholarship/research
2	Develop consumer skills
3	Citizenship training
4	Carry on applied research
5	Provide special adult training
6	Provide community cultural leadership
7	Disseminate new ideas
8	Ensure confidence of contributors
9	Ensure favor of validating bodies
10	Educate to utmost all students
11	Satisfy local area needs
12	Keep costs down
13	Hold faculty and staff
14	Reward for contribution to profession
15	Involve faculty in college government
16	Involve students in college government
17	Run college democratically
18	Keep harmony among faculty and staff
19	Reward for contribution to institution
20	Encourage transfer function
21	Ensure efficient goal attainment
22	Let will of faculty prevail
23	Protect academic freedom
24	Give faculty maximum opportunity to pursue careers
25	Provide student activities
26	Protect students' right of inquiry
27	Protect students' right of action
28	Develop faculty loyalty to institution

TABLE XXIII (Continued)

Goal Number	Abbreviated Form
29	Develop pride in the college
30	Maintain top quality in all programs
31	Maintain balanced quality in all programs
32	Provide community programs
33	Help to preserve cultural heritage
34	Accomodate only the best students
35	All programs share equally in college resources
36	Concentrate on top quality transfer program
37	Imitate senior college teaching structure
38	Maintain wide range of community services
39	Preserve institutional character
40	Prepare students for vocational careers
41	Develop moral character in students
42	Help students to develop a critical perspective
43	Maintian comprehensive athletic program
44	Provide quality vocational guidance
45	Allow students to choose courses freely
46	Provide programs for students from any background
47	Provide remedial courses
48	Concentrate on intellectual pursuits
49	Produce well-rounded student
50	Develop innovative teaching techniques

[a]Goal numbers correspond to goal statement numbers in Appendix D, Section B.

TABLE XXIV

INTERCORRELATION MATRIX OF PERCEIVED (IS) AND
PREFERRED (SHOULD BE) GROUP RESPONSES

Group	Faculty	Administrators	Students	Regents
Faculty	.72[a]*	.81*	.46*	.69*
Administrators	.74*	.84*	.41*	.67*
Students	.17	.16	.42*	.01
Regents	.69*	.72*	.46*	.82*

[a]Spearman rank order (Rho) correlations.

*Statistically significant.

TABLE XXV

COMPARISON OF PERCEIVED (IS) GOALS WITH
CORRESPONDING PREFERRED (SHOULD BE)
GOALS FOR FACULTY

Goal Number	Top "Is" Ranks	"Should Be" Rank	Goal Number	Bottom "Is" Ranks	"Should Be" Rank
9	1	20.5	34	50	50
10	2	2.5	4	49	48
12	3	11	7	48	39
30	4	22.5	37	47	46
11	5	5.5	22	46	37
40	6	18.5	36	45	49
5	7	13	27	43.5	44
31	8	9.5	14	43.5	18.5
3	9	9.5	35	42	40.5
50	10	1	13	41	32

TABLE XXVI

COMPARISON OF PREFERRED (SHOULD BE) GOALS
WITH CORRESPONDING PERCEIVED (IS)
GOALS FOR FACULTY

Goal Number	Top "Should Be" Ranks	"Is" Rank	Goal Number	Bottom "Should Be" Ranks	"Is" Rank
50	1	21.5	34	50	50
10	2.5	2	36	49	45
21	2.5	13	4	48	49
29	4	13	39	47	31.5
11	5.5	5	37	46	47
44	5.5	19	43	45	33
49	7	16	27	44	43.5
19	8	40	20	43	16
3	9.5	9	33	42	35
31	9.5	8	35	40.5	42
			48	40.5	13

TABLE XXVII

COMPARISON OF PERCEIVED (IS) GOALS WITH
CORRESPONDING PREFERRED (SHOULD BE)
GOALS FOR ADMINISTRATORS

Goal Number	Top "Is" Ranks	"Should Be" Rank	Goal Number	Bottom "Is" Ranks	"Should Be" Rank
9	1	21.5	34	50	50
12	2	15.5	4	49	49
10	3	6	37	48	47
31	4	9.5	36	47	48
30	5	13	22	46	45
21	6	6	7	45	39
3	7.5	18	27	44	42
23	7.5	25	39	43	46
11	9	3	35	42	43
28	11	11.5	43	41	44
29	11	4			
32	11	11.5			

TABLE XXVIII

COMPARISON OF PREFERRED (SHOULD BE) GOALS WITH
CORRESPONDING PERCEIVED (IS) GOALS FOR
ADMINISTRATORS

Goal Number	Top "Should Be" Ranks	"Is" Rank	Goal Number	Bottom "Should Be" Ranks	"Is" Rank
50	1.5	21.5	34	50	50
47	1.5	13.5	4	49	49
11	3	9	36	48	47
29	4	11	37	47	48
10	6	3	39	46	42.5
21	6	6	22	45	46
44	6	13.5	43	44	41
49	8	16	35	43	42.5
5	9.5	19	27	42	44
31	9.5	4	20	41	23.5

TABLE XXIX

COMPARISON OF PERCEIVED (IS) GOALS WITH
CORRESPONDING PREFERRED (SHOULD BE)
GOALS FOR STUDENTS

Goal Number	Top "Is" Ranks	"Should Be" Rank	Goal Number	Bottom "Is" Ranks	"Should Be" Rank
45	1	18	34	50	50
10	2	5	2	49	44
5	3	13	27	48	42
40	4	12	4	47	35
30	5	15.5	11	46	47
8	6	39.5	7	45	34
21	7	2	33	44	48
9	8	33	16	43	9.5
31	9	6	38	42	46
47	10	7.5	36	40.5	14
			42	40.5	19

TABLE XXX

COMPARISON OF PREFERRED (SHOULD BE) GOALS WITH
CORRESPONDING PERCEIVED (IS) GOALS FOR
STUDENTS

Goal Number	Top "Should Be" Ranks	"Is" Rank	Goal Number	Bottom "Should Be" Ranks	"Is" Rank
26	1	14.5	34	50	50
21	2	7	39	49	18
17	3	18	33	48	44
44	4	12.5	11	47	46
10	5	2	38	46	42
31	6	8.5	22	45	16
47	7.5	10	2	44	49
1	7.5	14.5	13	43	37
49	9.5	22	27	42	48
16	9.5	43	28	41	31

TABLE XXXI

COMPARISON OF PERCEIVED (IS) GOALS WITH
CORRESPONDING PREFERRED (SHOULD BE)
GOALS FOR REGENTS

Goal Number	Top "Is" Ranks	"Should Be" Rank	Goal Number	Bottom "Is" Ranks	"Should Be" Rank
11	1	17	34	50	50
40	2	2.5	4	49	47
25	4.5	21.5	16	48	37
18	4.5	1	43	46	45.5
21	4.5	9	7	46	39.5
10	4.5	4	27	46	48
12	8	12.5	24	44	45.5
31	8	12.5	39	42	49
32	8	6	15	42	28.5
5	12	19	16	42	24
9	12	35.5			
19	12	6			
28	12	6			
30	12	9			

TABLE XXXII

COMPARISON OF PREFERRED (SHOULD BE) GOALS WITH
CORRESPONDING PERCEIVED (IS) GOALS FOR
REGENTS

Goal Number	Top "Should Be" Ranks	"Is" Rank	Number	Bottom "Should Be" Ranks	"Is" Rank
10	1	4.5	34	50	50
40	2.5	2	39	49	42
49	2.5	15.5	27	48	46
21	4	4.5	4	47	49
32	6	8	43	45.5	46
28	6	12	24	45.5	44
19	6	12	36	44	37
50	9	21	33	42	37
30	9	12	22	42	30
18	9	4.5	23	42.	37

suggests that there is a high degree of congruence among the faculty as to perceived and preferred goals.

The close correspondence between what the faculty see as the actual goals of the organization and what they think the goals should be is also shown in Tablex XXV and XXVI. Little support is therefore found for Hypothesis One.

Research Hypothesis Two is concerned with the perceptions of the administrators. It was hypothesized that within this group perceived goals would not coincide with preferred goals. However, for this rank comparison a rho of .84 (Z = 5.6) was found. Again the null hypothesis (rho = 0) must be rejected and the research hypothesis cannot be maintained. As Table XXIV shows, the degree of goal congruence between "is" and "should be" goals is highest for the administrative group. Tables XXVII and XXVIII also confirm the closeness of the "is" and "should be" profiles for this group.

The perceptions of the regents and trustees are considered in the third research hypothesis. It was predicted that this group would differ in the ranks assigned to the "is" and "should be" goals. A rho of .82 (Z = 5.5) was found for this comparison. Contrary to the research hypothesis, administrators appear to be satisfied with the existing goal structure of the junior college. Tables XXXI and XXXII further indicate this degree of correspondence.

Research Hypothesis Four suggested that the student perceptions of the "is" and "should be" goal structures would diverge. For this group a rho of .42 (Z = 2.8) was found. While this value is statistically significant, thus leading to a rejection of the null hypothesis, it does strongly suggest that the students are the least sanguine about

the correspondence between the two goal sets. The differences in the ranks assigned to the "is" and "should be" goals shown in Tables XXIX and XXX also indicate less agreement than found in the other groups. Moderate support is, thus, found for Hypothesis Four.

Research Hypotheses Five through Ten are concerned with the ranking of "is" and "should be" responses across groups. These hypotheses are examined through the use of Kendall's "W" and Spearman's Rho. In addition, Appendixes N and O contains a percentage distribution of goal responses for all groups.

Kendall's coefficient of concordance (W) is a correlation technique used to measure the degree of similarity among two or more sets of ranks of levels for a quantitative variable measure at the ordinal level. Kendall's "W" may take on values ranging from zero, i.e., no association, to one, i.e., identical rankings for all sets. As with Spearman's Rho, "W" may be tested for significance through the computation of a critical chi-square value (Mendenhall et al., 1974: 378-379).

Table XXXIII indicates the values of rho's based on the comparison of the rankings of "is" responses by each group and rho's based on the rankings of "should be" responses by each group. This table also gives the values of Kendall's coefficient of concordance computed for the overall correspondence between "is" ranks for all groups and for the correspondence between "should be" ranks for all groups. The "W" of .74 (significant at the .05 alpha level) indicates that there is strong agreement among the four groups as to the relative actual importance of the fifty goals. The "W" value of .63 (significant at the .05 alpha level) indicates that there is also strong agreement as to the relative importance of the goals along the preferred or "should be" dimension.

TABLE XXXIII

INTERCORRELATION MATRICES OF PERCEIVED (IS) RESPONSES WITH PERCEIVED (IS)
RESPONSES AND PREFERRED (SHOULD BE) WITH PREFERRED (SHOULD BE)
BY FACULTY (F), ADMINISTRATORS (A), STUDENTS (S), AND REGENTS (R)

| | | "IS" Responses | | | | | | "SHOULD BE" Responses | | | |
	Group	F	A	S	R		Group	F	A	S	R
	F	1.00[a]	.86*	.60*	.72*		F	1.00	.93*	.13	.84*
	A	.86*	1.00	.52*	.70*		A	.93*	1.00	.01	.84*
"Is" Responses	S	.60*	.52*	1.00	.50*	"Should Be" Responses	S	.13	.01	1.00	.17
	R	.72*	.70*	.50*	1.00		R	.84*	.84*	.17	1.00
		W = .74*						W = .63*			

[a]All correlations reported are Spearman's rank order (Rho). "W" values are for Kendall's Coefficient of Concordance.

*Statistically significant at the .05 alpha level.

Tables XXXIV through XXXVII also are indicative of the degree of overall correspondence existing among the four groups.

Research Hypothesis Five centers in the differences existing between faculty and administrators as to the relative importance of the perceived and preferred goals. From Table XXXIII it may be seen that a comparison of the ranks assigned by faculty and administrators in terms of the perceived goals yields a rho value of .86 ($Z = 5.73$, significant at the .05 alpha level). Since the null hypothesis must be rejected, little support for the original research hypothesis is found. At the same time it may be noted that the ranks given by these groups to the preferred goals results in a rho of .93 ($Z = 6.2$). Thus, there also exists strong agreement between faculty and administrators as to what should be the goals of the junior college.

Research Hypothesis Six suggested that there would be little correspondence between faculty and students as to the relative importance of the "is" and "should be" goals. A rho of .60 ($Z = 4.0$) was obtained when the "is" ranks for these groups was compared. However, when the two groups were compared in terms of what they thought the goals of the junior college should be, a rho of .13 ($Z = .86$) was obtained. In this case the null hypothesis cannot be rejected and strong support for the research hypothesis is indicated. From this it appears that there is indeed little agreement between faculty and students as to what the proper goals should be for the junior college.

In Research Hypothesis Seven it was asserted that faculty and regents would differ significantly in the ranks assigned to perceived and preferred goals. The rho values from Table XXXIII indicate that this hypothesis cannot be confirmed. Faculty and regents agree on what

TABLE XXXIV

COMPARISON OF TOP RANKED PERCEIVED (IS) GOALS
BY FACULTY, ADMINISTRATORS, STUDENTS, AND
REGENTS

Goal Ranks	Faculty	Administrators
1	Ensure favor of validating bodies	Ensure favor of validating bodies
2	Educate to utmost all students	Keep costs down
3	Keep costs down	Educate to utmost all students
4	Maintain top quality in all programs	Maintain balanced quality in all programs
5	Satisfy local area needs	Maintain top quality in all programs
6	Prepare students for vocational careers	Ensure efficient goal attainment
7	Provide special adult training	Citizenship training [a]
8	Maintain balanced quality in all programs	Protect academic freedom[a]
9	Citizenship training	Satisfy local area needs
10	Develop innovative teaching techniques	Develop faculty loyalty to college[a]
		Develop pride in the college[b]
		Provide community programs[b]

TABLE XXXIV (Continued)

Goal Ranks	Students	Regents
1	Allow students to choose courses freely	Satisfy local area needs
2	Educate to utmost all students	Prepare students for vocational careers
3	Provide special adult training	Provide student activities[d]
4	Prepare students for vocational careers	Ensure efficient goal attainment[d]
5	Maintain top quality in all programs	Educate to utmost all students[d]
6	Ensure confidence of contributors	Keep harmony among faculty and staff[d]
7	Ensure efficient goal attainment	Keep costs down
8	Ensure favor of validating bodies[c]	Maintain balanced quality in all programs
9	Maintain balanced quality in all programs[c]	Provide community programs
10	Provide remedial courses	Provide special adult training[e]
		Ensure favor of validating bodies[e]
		Reward for contribution to institution[e]
		Develop faculty loyalty to institution[e]
		Maintain top quality in all programs[e]

[a]Tied for ranks 7 and 8.　　[d]Tied for ranks 3, 4, 5, and 6.

[b]Tied for rank 10.　　[e]Tied for rank 10.

[c]Tied for ranks 8 and 9.

TABLE XXXV

COMPARISON OF BOTTOM RANKED PERCEIVED (IS)
GOALS BY FACULTY, ADMINISTRATORS,
STUDENTS, AND REGENTS

Goal Ranks	Faculty	Administrators
50	Accommodate only the best students	Accomodate only the best students
49	Carry on applied research	Carry on applied research
48	Disseminate new ideas	Imitate senior college teaching structure
47	Imitate senior college teaching structure	Concentrate on top quality transfer program
46	Let will of faculty prevail	Let will of faculty prevail
45	Concentrate on top quality transfer program	Disseminate new ideas
44	Protect students' right of action	Protect students' right of action
43	Reward for contribution to profession	Preserve institutional character
42	All programs share equally in college resources	All programs share equally in college resources
41	Hold faculty and staff	Maintain comprehensive athletic program

TABLE XXXV (Continued)

Goal Ranks	Students	Regents
50	Accommodate only the best students	Accommodate only the best students
49	Develop consumer skills	Carry on applied research
48	Protect students' right of action	Involve students in college government
47	Carry on applied research	Maintain comprehensive athletic program[b]
46	Satisfy local area needs	Disseminate new ideas[b]
45	Disseminate new ideas	Protect students' right of action[b]
44	Help to preserve cultural heritage	Give faculty maximum opportunity to pursue careers
43	Involve students in college government	Preserve institutional character[c]
42	Maintain wide range of community services	Involve faculty in college government[c]
41	Concentrate on top quality transfer program[a] Help students to develop a critical perspective[a]	Protect students' right of inquiry[c]

[a]Tied for ranks 40 and 41.

[b]Tied for ranks 45, 46, and 47.

[c]Tied for ranks 41, 42, and 43.

TABLE XXXVI

COMPARISON OF TOP RANKED PREFERRED (SHOULD BE)
GOALS BY FACULTY, ADMINISTRATORS,
STUDENTS, AND REGENTS

Goal Ranks	Faculty	Administrators
1	Develop innovative teaching techniques	Develop innovative teaching techniques[d]
2	Educate to utmost all needs[a]	Provide remedial courses[d]
3	Ensure efficient goal attainment[a]	Satisfy local area needs
4	Develop pride in the college	Develop pride in the college
5	Satisfy local area needs[b]	Educate to utmost all students[e]
6	Provide quality vocational guidance[b]	Ensure efficient goal attainment[e]
7	Produce a well-rounded student	Provide quality vocational programs[e]
8	Reward for contribution to institution	Produce well-rounded student
9	Citizenship training[c]	Provide special adult training[f]
10	Maintain balanced quality in all programs[c]	Maintain balanced quality in all programs[f]

TABLE XXXVI (Continued)

Goal Ranks	Students	Regents
1	Protect stduents' rights of inquiry	Educate to utmost all students
2	Ensure efficient goal attainment	Prepare students for vocational careers[i]
3	Run college democratically	Produce well-rounded students[i]
4	Provide quality vocational guidance	Ensure efficient goal attainment
5	Educate to utmost all students	Provide community programs[j]
6	Maintain balanced quality in all programs	Develop faculty loyalty to institution[j]
7	Provide remedial courses[g]	Reward for contribution to institution[j]
8	Training for scholarship research[g]	Develop innovative teaching techniques[k]
9	Produce well-rounded student[h]	Maintain top quality in all programs[k]
10	Involve students in college government[h]	Keep harmony among faculty and staff[k]

[a] Tied for ranks 2 and 3.

[b] Tied for ranks 5 and 6.

[c] Tied for ranks 9 and 10.

[d] Tied for ranks 1 and 2.

[e] Tied for ranks 5, 6, and 7.

[f] Tied for ranks 9 and 10.

[g] Tied for ranks 7 and 8.

[h] Tied for ranks 9 and 10.

[i] Tied for ranks 2 and 3.

[j] Tied for anks 5, 6, and 7.

[k] Tied for ranks 8, 9, and 10.

TABLE XXXVII

COMPARISON OF BOTTOM RANKED PREFERRED (SHOULD BE) GOALS
BY FACULTY, ADMINISTRATORS, STUDENTS, AND REGENTS

Goal Ranks	Faculty	Administrators
50	Accommodate only the best students	Accommodate only the best students
49	Concentrate on top quality transfer program	Carry on applied research
48	Carry on applied research	Concentrate on top quality transfer programs
47	Preserve institutional character	Imitate senior college teaching structure
46	Imitate senior college teaching structure	Preserve institutional character
45	Maintain comprehensive athletic program	Let will of faculty prevail
44	Protect students' right of action	Maintain comprehensive athletic program
43	Encourage transfer function	All programs share equally in college resources
42	Help to preserve cultural heritage	Protect students' right of action
41	All programs share equally in college resources[a] Concentrate on intellectual pursuits[a]	Encourage transfer function

TABLE XXXVII (Continued)

Goal Ranks	Students	Regents
50	Accommodate only the best students	Accommodate only the best students
49	Preserve institutional characteristics	Preserve institutional characteristics
48	Help to preserve cultural heritage	Protect students' right of action
47	Satisfy local area needs	Carry on applied research
46	Maintain wide range of community services	Maintain comprehensive athletic program[b]
45	Ensure efficient goal attainment	Give faculty maximum opportunity to pursue careers[b]
44	Develop consumer skills	Concentrate on top quality transfer program
43	Hold faculty and staff	Help to preserve cultural heritage[c]
42	Protect students' right of action	Let will of faculty prevail[c]
41	Develop faculty loyalty to the institution	Protect academic freedom[c]

[a]Tied for ranks 40 and 41.

[b]Tied for ranks 45 and 46.

[c]Tied for ranks 41, 42, and 43.

the goals of the junior college actually are (rho = .72, Z = 4.8) and what the goals of the junior college should be (rho = .84, Z = 5.6). Thus, there is a strong degree of association between the rankings assigned by both of these groups.

Hypothesis Eight considers the relationship between student and administrative evaluations of the importance of the various goals. Again, significant disagreement was expected. From Table XXXIII the rho values for this comparison are .52 (Z = 3.46) for the "is" ranks and .01 (Z = .06) for the "should be" ranks. The original research hypothesis is supported in terms of the should be perceptions, but not in regard to the evaluations of the actual goals. In fact, the lowest degree of correspondence found in the study was between the students' and administrators' evaluations of what the goals of the junior college should be.

Research Hypothesis Nine suggested that administrators and regents would differ significantly in their goal assessments. A rho value of .70 (Z = 4.66) was found for the "is" ranks and a rho of .84 (Z = 5.6) was found for the "should be" ranks. Again, the research hypothesis cannot be sustained since significant correspondence was seen to exist between the goal evaluations of these two groups.

It was also hypothesized (Research Hypothesis Ten) that students and regents would differ in the ranks assigned to perceived and preferred goals. From Table XXXIII the rho values for these comparisons are .50 (Z = 3.33) for the "is" ranks and .17 (Z = 1.13) for the "should be" ranks. While the students do seem to agree largely with the regents on the actual goals of the college, they at the same time seem to disagree strongly with the regents as to what the goals should be.

Summary

The discussion in this chapter has attempted to explicate the over-all methodological strategies of analysis developed in order to test the various research hypotheses. The basic strategy utilized was one of structured exploration. The research has been structured by the investigator's choice of the origianl problem, the choice of variables, and the type of data collection employed. At the same time, however, during the research process an attempt was made to be responsive to the intransigencies present in the data. Although the subjects in the study were forced to respond to a series of fixed categories in the main questionnaire, those items were at least partially derived from responses to a series of open-ended questions and personal contacts with individuals in the groups studied. Further, respondents were encouraged to comment freely on any of the items or on the research itself. Some of these comments are incorporated in the conclusions presented in the next chapter.

As has been shown in the present chapter, many of the original research hypotheses were not substantiated in terms of the statistical tests of significance used. However, the objectives of this study were not confined to the testing of specific predictions, but also included the exploration of the various organizational perspectives found in the junior college setting. Considered in this light, the rejection of several of the hypotheses becomes a significant finding. The final chapter of this study sets forth some of the tentative conclusions and implications resulting from this study.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSIONS

Summary of Findings

The previous chapters of this report have described the conceptual

framework, research problem, design, measures, and the techniques of

analysis developed to explore the relationships existing among the

variables. The basic research problem was one of determining how the

diverse constituent groups, both on and off campus, perceived the actual

or operating goals (termed the "is" goals) and the ideal or preferred

goals (termed the "should be" goals) of the junior college.

The need for empirical research into this question was forcefully

articulated by Thiessen and Iutcovich (1970: 253) in their trenchant

critique of Gross' (1968) goal studies:

> A more appropriate focus would be to look at the range of
> goals that are emphasized and the degree of consensus and
> conflict surrounding each goal. A fruitful analysis would
> be one that contrasts goals that are consensual with those
> that portray conflicting opinions, or one that contrasts
> groups in consensus over certain goals with groups in con-
> flict over certain goals. In other words, it is imperative
> that three questions be kept separate in dealing with the
> concept of goals: (1) who or which subgroups emphasized a
> certain type of goal, (2) what are the different goals that
> each group emphasizes, and (3) how much conflict or con-
> sensus is there regarding each of these goals.

In order to meet the research objectives of this report, a number

of specific hypotheses were generated and tested through the application

of common statistical tests of significance. These hypotheses were

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developed from viewing the organizational structure of the junior

college in terms of the conceptual framework specified in Chapter II.

Each hypothesis was intended to offer clues, suggestions, or some

insight into the properties of the interaction system which occurs

within the organizational framework of the public junior college.

Research Hypotheses One through Four were concerned with the

degree of disparity which existed between what the faculty, administra-

tors, students, and regents saw as the actual goals of the junior

college and what they felt should be the proper goals. The calculation

of rho coefficients indicated that the rankings of the fifty goals on

the perceived and preferred dimensions did not differ significantly.

As Table XXIV indicates, a high degree of congruence was found among

the administrators (rho = .84), regents (rho = .82), and faculty

(rho = .72), while the students expressed much more moderate agreement

(rho = .42). The degree of agreement expressed via the questionnaire by

the administrators is consistent with their general attitudes as

expressed in personal interviews with this investigator. However, the

congruence among the faculty is more surprising in light of interviews

with this group and the author's own personal experiences as a junior

college faculty member. From both of these sources, a more general

tone of dissatisfaction had been noted. A basic theme which emerged

from the interview sessions centered upon the question of who should

be served by the college. Many of the faculty reported experiencing

a sense of being caught between the need to produce the kind of aca-

demic training acceptable to the four-year colleges and universities

and the need to provide for the growth of the individual in dimensions

other than the strictly academic.

Although rank-order correlation techniques indicate the degree of similarity is assigned ranks, such techniques do not give any information as to the absolute values of the items upon which the ranks were based. In Appendix M is given a comparison of the mean values and "t" scores based on these means for each of the perceived and preferred goals by each group. For the faculty, administrators, and students, it is at once apparent that most of the mean differences between what is and what should be are statistically significant. When individual goals are compared, a greater lack of congruence between the "is" and "should be" goals is discovered. These "t" values suggest that while the various goals are being similarly ranked in terms of their relative importance, many of the goals are seen as needing to be emphasized much more than they currently are. In particular, for the faculty the goals having the largest mean differences are given in Table XXXVIII. It is these goals that the faculty feel are inadequatly emphasized in the junior college. Tables XXXIX through XLI indicate in a similar fashion the goals which the administrators, students, and regents feel need more stress in the junior college.

The second major group of hypotheses (Five through Eleven) focused upon the degree of congruence existing across the principal groups as to the perceived relative importance of the "is" and "should be" goals. In order to obtain an overall summary measure of the extent of agreement existing among the groups, Kendall's Coefficient of Concordance was computed for the perceived and preferred goals. The resulting W's of .74 and 63, respectively, were both significant at the .05 alpha level. These values indicated a significant degree of agreement existing across the four groups. In order to test the degree of goal congruence

TABLE XXXVIII

GOALS REFLECTING THE GREATEST DEGREE OF
DISCREPANCY BETWEEN IS AND SHOULD BE
PERCEPTIONS BY FACULTY

Goals	"t" Values
Reward for contribution to institution	14.12
Reward for contribution to profession	12.26
Help students to develop a critical perspective	10.06
Develop pride in the college	9.78
Provide quality vocational guidance	9.78
Involve faculty in college government	9.75
Disseminate new ideas	9.34
Develop innovative teaching techniques	9.27
Protect students' right of inquiry	9.01
Ensure efficient goal attainment	8.80
Develop faculty loyalty to institution	8.16

TABLE XXXIX

GOALS REFLECTING THE GREATEST DEGREE OF
DISCREPANCY BETWEEN IS AND SHOULD BE
PERCEPTIONS BY ADMINISTRATORS

Goals	"t" Values
Reward for contribution to profession	6.37
Develop innovative teaching techniques	6.32
Provide remedial courses	5.92
Develop consumer skills	5.82
Reward for contribution to institution	5.65
Help students to develop a critical perspective	5.52
Develop pride in the college	5.50
Produce well-rounded students	5.32
Provide quality vocational guidance	5.05

TABLE XL

GOALS REFLECTING THE GREATEST DEGREE OF
DISCREPANCY BETWEEN IS AND SHOULD BE
PERCEPTIONS BY STUDENTS

Goals	"t" Values
Protect students' right of inquiry	8.06
Involve students in college government	7.40
Ensure efficient goal attainment	7.15
Run college democratically	7.12
Provide quality vocational guidance	6.78
Concentrate on top quality transfer program	6.44
Help students to develop a critical perspective	6.26
Training for scholarship/research	5.65
Maintain balanced quality in all programs	5.46
Disseminate new ideas	5.10
Produce well-rounded student	5.10
Develop innovative teaching techniques	5.10

TABLE XLI

GOALS REFLECTING THE GREATEST DEGREE OF
DISCREPANCY BETWEEN IS AND SHOULD BE
PERCEPTIONS OF REGENTS

Goals	"t" Values
Produce well-rounded student	4.69
Provide remedial courses	4.10
Develop innovative teaching techniques	3.62
Citizenship training	3.39
Help students to develop a critical perspective	3.33
Educate to utmost all students	3.28
Protect students' right of inquiry	3.27
Develop faculty loyalty to institution	3.19

existing between each possible pairing of the groups, a series of Spearman's rho's were computed. Using these rank-order correlations as a measure of concordance, the only significant areas of disagreement as to the ranks assigned were between the students and the other three groups in regard to what should be the proper goals of the junior college. These rho values are shown in Table XXXIII.

Another method of assessing the extent of general agreement is to examine the mean differences across all groups for each of the various "is" and "should be" goals. Appendix O presents "F" values for each goal. The "F" scores are based upon a simple analysis of variance. This procedure provides a test of the hypothesis of equal means and is mathematically equivalent to the "t" test in a two-sample situation (Roscoe, 1969: 229).

As the data in this Appendix indicate, the overall differences in the means produced by the responses of each group are statistically significant for approximately one-half of the goals. However, when a paired comparison of means is made following the procedure suggested by Scheffe (cf. Roscoe, 1969: 238-241), it becomes apparent that the significant "F" values are largely generated by the magnitude of the differences between the student means and the means of the other groups. Thus, while some differences in goal evaluations among faculty, administrators, and regents exist, at the same time a high degree of overall goal congruency was found to be present.

<div align="center">Conclusions</div>

I have long made it a rule not to commence the study of
any collective enterprise or institution by careful perusal
of all the rule books, constitutions and by-laws, but rather

> by looking at some of the stresses and strains in the ongoing
> life of the enterprise (Hughes, 1961: 2).

Hughes' dictum suggests that a study of the official goal state-
ments issued by a formal organization cannot in itself lead to a socio-
logical understanding of the activities found within that organization.
It has been this perspective which has guided the present research
effort.   The discussion and conclusions presented in this chapter are
intended to be heuristic in nature and to suggest rather than restrict
further research.

The present study grew out of the author's own experiences as a
member of an ongoing public junior college.   These experiences suggested
that members of the junior college often seemed to be operating in terms
of quite different constructions of the organization.   It was also clear
that in most cases the official institutional goals, couched in catalog
prose, had little to do with either the actaul, operating goals or the
ideal goals of the members of the organization.   Therefore, this study
sought to determine the extent to which the latter categories of goals
corresponded or differed among the most significant groups within the
junior college.

The theoretical framework developed in the study was one in which
organizational members are viewed as behaving within a system of rela-
tionships, but the "system" exists only subjectively within individuals
as shared perceptions.   This theoretical perspective would strongly sug-
gest that a consensual model of organizations, developed in the work of
functionalists such as Talcott Parsons, are in many cases inappropriate
(cf. Simpson, 1973).   Instead of assuming consensus, the current per-
spective leads to an empirical examination of the nature and extent of

consensus, if any, among actors within an organization. Following this model, the research hypotheses stated in Chapter III were constructed.

In general, most of the research hypotheses were not confirmed by the examination of the empirical data obtained in the study. There was widespread agreement among the various groups as to what the operating goals of the junior college actually were and there was a close correspondence between what the faculty, administrators, and regents thought the goals were and what they thought they should be. The students alone seemed to strongly disagree with what the other groups thought should be the goals of the junior college.

The goal which the students felt should be most emphasized was that of protecting the student's right of inquiry. This was also the goal in which the students' perceived the greatest disparity between actual conditions and what should be done (see Table XL). On the other hand, the faculty, administrators, and regents assigned this goal ranks of twenty-four, twenty-three, and twenty-four, respectively, in terms of how strongly it should be stressed. However, it should also be noted that all four groups agreed on the goal that should be accorded the least importance. This was the goal of accommodating only the best students. All of the groups, thus, seem to endorse a major traditional goal of the junior college, i.e., being a truly "open-door" institution.

The result of this study seems to indicate that while goal consensus within the junior college is not complete, faculty, administrators, and regents are in general accord as to what the college should be trying to accomplish. Complete accord would be neither theoretically or practically desirable; individuals, including faculty and administrators, must retain some degree of freedom to construe and develop meanings

within the organization. Theoretically, when the organization succeeds in totally replacing individual goals with system goals, then the essential feature of meaningful interaction is also eliminated.

But what of the students? The findings of this study indicates that their interest in protecting their right to question and to enter actively into the governance of the college is either largely unrecognized or not considered by the faculty, administrators, or regents. However, this lack of consensus on these goals does not necessarily imply conflict, but rather a need for a cotninuing dialogue among all groups as to the purposes and priorities they have set for the junior college. The extent of the diversity and consensus found in this study would seem to argue well for the future of the junior college as a viable institution of higher education.

Limitations of the Present Study and Suggestions for Further Research

Research Design. The data reported in the present study are drawn from a cross-sectional survey. Thus, the data were collected at a single point in time and it would be specious to imply that conditions and individuals within the sampling frame would not change over time. In future research on goal perceptions in the junior college, the collection of longitudinal data would act to check the validity of the present findings.

The original target population for this study included all of the public junior colleges in the State of Oklahoma. Only one college refused to participate in the study, yet the possible ways in which this refusal affected the overall distribution of the data collected cannot

be determined. Further research is needed to examine the perspectives present at this school as an addition check on the conclusions of the current report.

Measurement. The primary means of data collection was the administration of a mail-out questionnaire. Although this instrument was pre-tested for validity, it is recognized that all the factors affecting responses to this type of instrument cannot be fully assessed (cf. Blumer, 1969).

Data Analysis. Many other lines of data analysis besides those used in the present study are possible. In the future, the author plans to use a PA1 factor analysis of the response items in order to isolate commonalities present in the responses. These factors will then be used to create several new response scales which may be cross-tabulated with the data on the personal and organizational characteristics of the respondents. A second planned approach is to conduct a cluster analysis by respondent for each goal item in order to construct a series of typical patterns of response to each item. These patterns may then be used to test the validity of the various faculty typologies found in the junior college literature.

Replication. Chapter IV discussed the extent to the findings reported in this study could be generalized to other junior colleges. While some generalization is possible, Oklahoma is not the United States, and higher education in this state undoubtedly differs from the higher education process carried out elsewhere. In order to determine the extent to which the findings of this study can be extended, replication

on a wider, national basis is needed. This problem and need is not unique to the present study; it is characteristic of much research in the social sciences (cf. Wilson et al., 1973). However, each individual study contributes partially to the total stock of knowledge; hopefully this study also falls into this category.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

POPULATION CHARACTERISTICS

PERCENTAGE OF MALE AND FEMALE

FACULTY BY SCHOOL[a]

School	Male	Female
A	78.1 (25)[b]	21.9 (7)
B	59.7 (40)	40.3 (27)
C	71.8 (28)	28.2 (11)
D	63.4 (64)	36.6 (37)
E	76.5 (39)	23.5 (12)
F	75.0 (33)	25.0 (11)
G	59.1 (13)	40.9 (9)
H	81.3 (13)	18.7 (3)
I	61.5 (48)	38.5 (30)
J	71.4 (15)	28.6 (6)
K	75.0 (12)	25.0 (4)
L	78.9 (15)	21.1 (4)
M	68.4 (39)	31.6 (18)
All schools combined	68.2 (384)	31.8 (179)

[a]All data compiled from college bulletins for school years 1971-72, 1972-73.

[b]Entries in parentheses indicate number of faculty.

PERCENTAGE OF FULL AND PART-TIME

FACULTY BY SCHOOL[a]

School	Full-Time	Part-Time	Total Faculty
A	94.1 (32)[b]	5.9 (2)	34
B	90.8 (59)	9.2 (6)	65
C	97.2 (35)	2.8 (1)	36
D	88.9 (88)	11.1 (11)	99
E	--	--	--
F	--	--	--
G	--	--	--
H	52.2 (12)	47.8 (11)	23
I	53.5 (99)	46.5 (86)	185
J	47.6 (10)	52.4 (11)	21
K	78.6 (11)	21.4 (3)	14
L	--	--	--
M	70.2 (40)	29.8 (17)	57
All schools combined[c]	72.3 (386)	27.7 (148)	534

[a]Data reported are from Parker, 1974.

[b]Entries in parentheses indicate number of faculty.

[c]Information as to part-time faculty was not available for schools E, F, G, and L and thus is not included in the combined figures.

PERCENTAGE OF FACULTY BY TEACHING AREA BY SCHOOL[a]

School	Social Science	Physical Science	Vocational	Humanities	Physical Education	Business
A	12.5 (4)[b]	18.8 (6)	18.8 (6)	28.1 (9)	9.4 (3)	12.5 (4)
B	6.0 (4)	19.4 (13)	41.8 (28)	22.4 (15)	4.5 (3)	6.0 (4)
C	10.3 (4)	23.1 (9)	20.5 (8)	30.8 (12)	7.7 (3)	7.7 (3)
D	14.9 (15)	11.9 (12)	34.7 (35)	22.8 (23)	5.9 (6)	9.9 (10)
E	15.7 (8)	23.5 (12)	21.6 (11)	29.4 (15)	5.9 (3)	3.9 (2)
F	15.9 (7)	18.2 (8)	18.2 (8)	27.3 (12)	11.4 (5)	9.1 (4)
G	18.2 (4)	18.2 (4)	13.6 (3)	31.8 (7)	4.5 (1)	13.6 (3)
H	43.8 (7)	37.5 (6)	0.0 (0)	18.8 (3)	0.0 (0)	0.0 (0)
I	19.2 (15)	15.4 (12)	26.9 (21)	20.5 (16)	6.4 (5)	11.5 (9)
J	19.0 (4)	19.0 (4)	0.0 (0)	33.3 (7)	0.0 (0)	28.6 (6)
K	12.5 (2)	25.0 (4)	25.0 (4)	25.0 (4)	0.0 (0)	12.5 (2)
L	15.8 (3)	26.3 (5)	21.2 (4)	21.1 (4)	5.3 (1)	10.5 (2)
M	15.8 (9)	24.6 (14)	22.8 (13)	26.3 (15)	5.3 (3)	5.3 (3)
All schools combined	15.3 (86)	19.4 (109)	25.0 (141)	25.2 (142)	5.9 (33)	9.2 (52)

[a]Data compiled from college bulletins for school years 1971-1972, 1972-1973.

[b]Entries in parentheses indicate number of faculty.

PERCENTAGE OF FACULTY BY HIGHEST DEGREE HELD BY SCHOOL[a]

School	Degree	Baccalaureate	Master's	Ed.D	J.D.	Ph.D	Total Faculty
A	0.0 (0)[b]	15.6 (5)	78.1 (25)	3.1 (1)	0.0 (0)	3.1 (1)	32
B	1.5 (1)	23.9 (16)	74.6 (50)	0.0 (0)	0.0 (0)	0.0 (0)	67
C	0.0 (0)	12.8 (5)	82.1 (32)	2.6 (1)	0.0 (0)	2.6 (1)	39
D	5.9 (6)	10.9 (11)	82.2 (83)	0.0 (0)	0.0 (0)	1.0 (1)	101
E	0.0 (0)	13.7 (7)	74.5 (38)	9.8 (5)	0.0 (0)	2.0 (1)	51
F	6.8 (3)	13.6 (6)	75.0 (33)	2.3 (1)	2.3 (1)	0.0 (0)	44
G	0.0 (0)	18.2 (4)	81.8 (18)	0.0 (0)	0.0 (0)	0.0 (0)	22
H	0.0 (0)	6.3 (1)	87.5 (14)	0.0 (0)	0.0 (0)	6.3 (1)	16
I	5.1 (4)	7.7 (6)	79.5 (62)	0.0 (0)	0.0 (0)	7.7 (6)	78
J	0.0 (0)	28.6 (6)	66.7 (14)	0.0 (0)	4.8 (1)	0.0 (0)	21
K	6.3 (1)	31.3 (5)	62.5 (10)	0.0 (0)	0.0 (0)	0.0 (0)	16
L	0.0 (0)	15.8 (3)	78.9 (15)	0.0 (0)	5.3 (1)	0.0 (0)	19
M	3.5 (2)	17.5 (10)	80.0 (45)	0.0 (0)	0.0 (0)	0.0 (0)	57
All schools combined	3.0 (17)	15.1 (85)	78.0 (439)	1.4 (8)	0.5 (3)	2.0 (11)	563

[a] Data compiled from college bulletins for school years 1971-1972, 1972-1973.

[b] Entries in parentheses indicate number of faculty.

NUMBER OF ADMINISTRATORS AND REGENTS/TRUSTEES BY SCHOOL

School	Administrators	Controlling Board	Regents	Trustees
A	6[a]	Board of Regents, Oklahoma A&M Colleges[b]	10	--
B	7	Local Board of Regents	7	--
C	6	Local Board of Regents	7	--
D	8	Board of Regents, Oklahoma A&M Colleges	--	--
E	7	Local Board of Regents	5	--
F	4	Local Board of Regents	5	--
G	6	Local Board of Regents	6	--
H	3	Local Board of Trustees	--	7
I	6	Local Board of Trustees	--	7
J	4	Local Board of Trustees	--	7
K	3	Local Board of Trustees	--	5
L	5	Local Board of Trustees	--	7
M	6	Local Board of Trustees	--	7
TOTAL	71		40	40

[a]Data in this category (administrators) are compiled from college bulletins.

[b]The information on controlling boards is drawn from Oklahoma State Regents for Higher Education, 1972.

PERCENTAGE OF FULL AND PART-TIME

STUDENTS BY SCHOOL[a]

School	Full-Time	Part-Time	Total Number of Students
A	71.2 (664)[b]	28.8 (268)	932
B	77.3 (1256)	22.7 (368)	1624
C	70.5 (484)	29.5 (203)	687
D	77.1 (1742)	22.9 (517)	2259
E	--	--	--
F	65.8 (710)	34.2 (369)	1079
G	--	--	--
H	65.9 (317)	34.1 (164)	481
I	46.4 (2431)	53.6 (2812)	5243
J	57.4 (359)	42.6 (266)	625
K	71.3 (189)	28.7 (76)	265
L	--	--	--
M	21.5 (398)	78.5 (1454)	1852
All schools combined[c]	56.8 (8550)	43.2 (6497)	15047

[a]All data are reported from Parker, 1974.

[b]Entries in parentheses indicate number of students.

[c]Information as to part-time students was not available for schools , G, and L and thus their enrollments are not reflected in the combined totals.

APPENDIX B

POSITIONS INCLUDED IN THE

ADMINISTRATIVE CATEGORY

1. President
2. Vice-President
3. Vice-President for Academic Affairs
4. Academic Dean
5. Dean of Academic Affairs
6. Dean of Instruction
7. Dean of the College
8. Dean of Students
9. Dean of Student Affairs and Services
10. Dean of Women
11. Dean of Men
12. Dean of Technical and Adult Education
13. Dean of Information and Development
14. Director of Occupational Education and Community Service
15. Director of Continuing Education and Community Service
16. Director of Public Information
17. Director of Student Services
18. Director of Financial Aids
19. Director of Student Personnel Services
20. Director of Guidance
21. Director of Admissions and Records
22. Director of Student Aid
23. Cooperative Education Director
24. Director of Admissions
25. Associate Dean of Student Affairs and Services
26. Assistant Dean of Men
27. Assistant Dean of Students
28. Registrar
29. Assistant Registrar
30. Counseling Coordinator

APPENDIX C

SPECIFIC SUBJECTS INCLUDED IN

GENERAL TEACHING AREAS

TEACHING AREAS

SOCIAL SCIENCES	PHYSICAL SCIENCES	HUMANITIES	PHYSICAL EDUCATION	BUSINESS
Social Studies	Physics	Art	Health and Physical Education	Business Administration
History	Biology	Language Arts		
Sociology	Geography	Foreign Language	Coaching	Business Law
Psychology	Chemistry	Journalism		Secretarial Administration
Behavioral Science	Mathematics	Library Science		
Government	Botany	English		
Political Science	Zoology	Music		
Law	Engineering	Modern Language		
Economics	Natural Sciences	Child Card		
		Speech		
		Drama		
		Reading		
		Fine Arts		
		Philosophy		
		Religious Studies		
		Piano		

VOCATIONAL

Computer Science

Home Economics

Family Relations

Law Enforcement

Electronics

Health Careers

Police Science

Aviation

Construction and
  Building Technology

Charm and Personality

Industrial Arts

Drafting

Agri-Business

Health Occupations

Nursing

Design

Welding

Auto Mechanics

Practical Nursing

Counseling

Agriculture

Animal Husbandry

Animal Science

EM Technology

Mid-Management

Forestry

Data Processing

Dental Hygiene

Dietetic Technolgoy

Radiologic Technology

Medical Laboratory Technology

Architectural Drafting

Respiratory Therapy

Criminal Justice

Farm and Ranch Manager

Secretarial Science

APPENDIX D

QUESTIONNAIRE: SECTION A, INTRODUCTION

SECTION B, GOAL STATEMENTS

SECTION C, ANSWER SHEET

SECTION A, INTRODUCTION

PERCEPTIONS OF GOALS IN THE JUNIOR COLLEGE

The Questionnaire

Dear Colleague:

This questionnaire is part of a research project which is attempting to assess the institutional goals of junior colleges in Oklahoma. It is hoped that this research will aid in our understanding of the functioning of the junior college as an integral part of American higher education.

Your name has been selected from among *_____ of Oklahoma junior colleges. Since any conclusions drawn from this research can only be as valid as the sampling technique employed, it is essential to the project that as many points of view as possible be represented. Thus, your cooperation in completing this questionnaire is of major importance. In order to conserve your time, the questionnaire may be answered by simply checking the appropriate response to each item.

The personal data section (on the reverse side of the answer sheet) has been designed to provide sufficient information for data analysis, but has also been constructed so as not to invade upon your privacy. All responses will be kept completely confidential.

It will be further appreciated if you will complete the questionnaire and return the detached Answer Sheet in the stamped envelope which has been provided. Other phases of this research cannot be carried out until we complete the analysis of the questionnaire data. Any comments you may have on any aspect of this study will be welcomed.

Thank you for your valuable time and cooperation.

*Either "faculty members" or "administrative officers" was inserted here.

QUESTIONNAIRE FORMAT

Here is a list of fifty goals, aims, or intentions of a junior college.
We would like for you to respond to each of these in two different ways:

1. How important is each goal at your junior college?

2. How important do you feel the goal should be at your junior
    college?

Each goal may be evaluated in terms of five degrees of importance or
stress:

of absolutely top importance	of great importance	of medium importance	of little importance	of no importance
(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)

An Answer Sheet (last page of this questionnaire) has been provided for
your convenience.

EXAMPLE

		of absolutely top importance	of great importance	of medium importance	of little importance	of no importance
GOAL STATEMENT:	IS	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
To serve as substitute parents:	SHOULD BE	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)

A person who had checked the alternative in the manner shown above
would be expressing his perception that the aim, intention or goal,
"to serve as substitute parents," is of medium importance at his
college, but that he believes it should be of no importance as an aim,
intention, or goal of his school.

NOTE: "of absolutely top importance" should only be checked if the aim
is so important that, if it were to be removed, the college would
be shaken to its very roots and its character changed in a
fundamental way.

In spite of the large number of goals provided in this questionnaire, it is entirely possible that after responding to the list you may find that we have omitted orbadly stated an important goal or aim; if so use the spaces below to list any such goals or make any comments on the questionnaire. Please return this page along with the response sheet.

GOALS:		of absolutely top importance	of great importance	of medium importance	of little importance	of no importance
1. _____	IS	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
_____	SHOULD BE	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
2. _____	IS	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
_____	SHOULD BE	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
3. _____	IS	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
_____	SHOULD BE	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)

COMMENTS:

SECTION B, GOAL STATEMENTS

GOAL STATEMENTS

1. Train students in methods of scholarship and/or scientific research and/or creative endeavor.

2. Make a good consumer of the student - a person who is elevated culturally, has good taste, and can make good consumer choices.

3. Produce a student who is able to perform his citizenship responsibilities effectively.

4. Carry on applied research.

5. Provide special training for part-time adult students through extension courses, special short courses, correspondence courses, etc.

6. Provide cultural leadership for the community through college sponsored programs in the arts, public lectures by distinguished persons, athletic events, and other performances, displays, or celebrations which present the best of culture, popular or not.

7. Serve as a center for the dissemination of new ideas that will change the society, whether those ideas are in science, literature, the arts, or politics.

8. Ensure the continued confidence and hence support of those who contribute substantially (other than students and recipients of services) to the finances and other material resource needs of the college.

9. Ensure the favorable appraisal of those who validate the quality of the programs we offer (validating groups include accrediting bodies, professional societies, and respected persons in intellectual or artistic circles).

10. Educate to his utmost capacities every high school graduate who meets basic legal requirements for admission.

11. Orient ourselves to the satisfaction of the special needs and problems of the immediate geographical region.

12. Keep costs down as low as possible through more efficient utilization of time and space, reduction of course duplication, etc.

13. Hold our staff in the face of inducements offered by other colleges and universities.

14. Make sure that salaries, teaching assignments, prerequisites, and privileges always reflect the contribution that the person involved is making to his own profession or discipline.

15. Involve faculty in the government of the college.

16. Involve students in the government of the college.

17. Make sure the college is run democratically insofar as that is feasible.

18. Keep harmony between departments or divisions of the college when such departments or divisions do not see eye to eye on important matters.

19. Make sure that salaries, teaching assignments, prerequisites, and privileges always reflect the contribution that the person involved is making to the functioning of this college.

20. Encourage students to go on to a four-year college.

21. Make sure the college is run by those selected according to their ability to attain the goals of the college in the most efficient manner possible.

22. Make sure that on all important issues (not only curriculum), the will of the full time faculty shall prevail.

23. Protect the faculty's right to academic freedom.

24. Make this a place in which faculty have maximum opportunity to pursue their careers in a manner satisfactory to them by their own criteria.

25. Provide a full round of student activities.

26. Protect and facilitate the students' right to inquire into, investigate, and examine critically any idea or program that they might get interested in.

27. Protect and facilitate the students' right to advocate direct action of a political or social kind and any attempts on their part to organize efforts to attain political or social goals.

28. Develop loyalty on the part of the faculty and staff to the college, rather than only to their own jobs or professional concerns.

29. Develop greater pride on the part of faculty, staff, and students in their college and the things it stands for.

30. Maintain top quality in those programs we feel to be especially important (other programs being, of course, up to acceptable standards).

31. Maintain a balanced level of quality across the whole range of programs engaged in.

32. Assist the community directly through extension programs, advice, consultation, and the provision of useful or needed facilities and services other than teaching.

33. Serve as a center for the preservation of the cultural heritage.

34. Accommodate only students of high potential in terms of the specific strengths and emphasis of this college.

35. Provide for an equal distribution of resources among all the programs of the institution.

36. Develop a top quality transfer program, even at the expense of career-oriented programs.

37. Develop junior college teaching positions which are identical in scope and emphasis with those at senior colleges and universities.

38. Maintain a wide range of community services.

39. Keep this place from becoming something different from what it is now; that is, preserve its peculiar emphasis and point of view, its "character."

40. Prepare students specifically for useful careers.

41. Develop the inntercharacter of students so that they can make sound moral choices.

42. Assist students to develop objectivity about themselves and their beliefs and hence examine those beliefs critically.

43. Maintain a comprehensive (football, basketball, track) inter-collegiate athletic program.

44. Provide quality vocational guidance through having professionally trained counselors on the staff.

45. Allow students to have the basic responsibility for their course selection.

46. Provide realistic programs for a variety of social and economic levels.

47. Provide remedial courses for students which have deficiencies in various academic areas.

48. Produce a student who, whatever else may be done to him, has had his intellect cultivated to the maximum.

49. Produce a well-rounded student, that is, one whose physical, social, moral, intellectual, and esthetic potentialities have all been cultivated.

50. Provide for the implementation of innovative techniques in instruction and administration.

SECTION C, ANSWER SHEET

RESPONSE SHEET

Darken Appropriate Choice

		of absolutely top importance	of great importance	of medium importance	of little importance	of no importance		of absolutely top importance	of great importance	of medium importance	of little importance	of no importance
1.	IS	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)	26.	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
	SHOULD BE	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)		(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
2.	IS	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)	27.	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
	SHOULD BE	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)		(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
3.	IS	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)	28.	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
	SHOULD BE	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)		(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
4.	IS	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)	29.	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
	SHOULD BE	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)		(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
..	IS	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)	..	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
	SHOULD BE	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)		(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
..	IS	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)	..	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
	SHOULD BE	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)		(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
25.	IS	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)	50.	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
	SHOULD BE	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)		(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)

APPENDIX E

PERSONAL DATA SECTION, FACULTY QUESTIONNAIRE

PERSONAL DATA

SCHOOL: _____ AGE: _____ SEX: M_____ F_____

PRIMARY SUBJECT(S) CURRENTLY TAUGHT: _____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

NUMBER HOURS PER SEMESTER YOU CURRENTLY TEACH: _____

NUMBER YEARS YOU HAVE HELD YOUR CURRENT POSITION: _____

YEARS TEACHING EXPERIENCE: EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND: Please check
                                                             highest degree
                                                             held.
  Primary   _____

  Secondary   _____   Associate   _____

  Junior College   _____   Baccalaureate _____

  4 or 5 Year College _____   Master   _____

  University   _____   Specialist   _____

                                     Doctorate   _____

                                     Other (Specify) _____

NUMBER HOURS ABOVE DEGREE CURRENTLY HELD: _____

DATE (YEAR) OF LAST ENROLLMENT IN COLLEGE AS FULL-TIME STUDENT _____;

   AS PART-TIME STUDENT _____

IS THE TEACHING POSITION YOU HOLD CLASSIFIED AS A FULL-TIME OR PART-TIME

   (ADJUNCT, SUPPLY, ETC.) POSITION? Check one.

   FULL-TIME _____   PART-TIME _____

PROFESSIONAL ASSOCIATIONS: Please check those you hold membership in:

A National Association in your area of academic specialization:_____

A Regional Association in your area of academic specialization:_____

A State Association in your area of academic specialization: _____

A National Education Association: _____

A State Education Association: _____

A Community Education Association: _____

AS YOU PERCEIVE THE FUTURE NOW, WHAT ARE YOUR TENTATIVE OCCUPATIONAL

GOALS?   (Please check the appropriate spaces)

Junior College classroom teaching: _____

Senior College or University classroom teaching: _____

Junior College Administration: _____

Senior College or University Administration: _____

Combination of Teaching and Research at Senior College
or University: _____

Combination of Teaching and Research at Junior College
level: _____

Retirement in Near Future: _____

Non-Academic Occupation: _____

Other (Specify): _____

APPENDIX F

PERSONAL DATA SECTION, ADMINISTRATOR

QUESTIONNAIRE

PERSONAL DATA

SCHOOL:_____ AGE:_____ M_____ F_____

POSITION HELD:_____NUMBER YEARS IN CURRENT POSITION:____

PROFESSIONAL BACKGROUND:

Teaching Experience:	Number Years	Administrative Experience:	Number Years
Primary	_____	Primary	_____
Secondary	_____	Secondary	_____
Junior College	_____	Junior College	_____
Senior College	_____	Senior College	_____
University	_____	University	_____

EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND:

Degrees Held (Please Check)

Associate	_____
Baccalaureate	_____
Master	_____
Specialist	_____
Doctorate	_____
Other (Specify)	_____

APPENDIX G

PERSONAL DATA SECTION, STUDENT

QUESTIONNAIRE

PERSONAL DATA

SCHOOL:_____MARITAL STATUS:_____ M_____ F_____

ACADEMIC CLASSIFICATION (Please check)

    Freshman   _____

    Sophomore   _____

    Special   _____

    Other (Specify)   _____

Are you eligible for financial assistance under the GI Bill? Yes___No___

At this time do you plan to transfer to a 4-year college or a university?

    Yes   _____

    No   _____

    Uncertain   _____

APPENDIX H

PERSONAL DATA SECTION, REGENTS/TRUSTEES

QUESTIONNAIRE

PERSONAL DATA

OCCUPATION:_____

DO YOU HOLD A DEGREE OR CERTIFICATE FROM: (Please check appropriate

spaces)

    (a) A Junior College   _____

    (b) 4-Year College or University   _____

    (c) Graduate School   _____

APPENDIX I

LETTER TO REGENTS/TRUSTEES

SOUTHWEST MISSOURI STATE UNIVERSITY

SPRINGFIELD, MISSOURI 65802

Dear Sir:

I am currently completing an attitudinal survey of Oklahoma junior college personnel. This survey, conducted under the direction of the Oklahoma State University and Southwest Missouri State University sociology departments, represents an attempt to further our knowledge of the functioning and goal structures of junior colleges in our state. It is hoped that such data will aid these institutions in effectively fulfilling their role as a viable and significant part of higher education in Oklahoma.

The survey instrument consists of a list of fifty goal statements which apply directly or indirectly to the junior college. I have already collected responses to this questionnaire from faculty members, administrators, and students from the various junior colleges in the state. I feel, however, that the opinions of the individuals who constitute the various governing boards of these institutions also represent a significant factor in understanding the goal structure of the junior college. Therefore, I would like to ask you, as a member of such a board, to complete the questionnaire I have enclosed.

The personal data section (on the reverse side of the response sheet) has been designed to provide sufficient information for data analysis, but has also been constructed so as not to invade upon your privacy. All responses will be kept <u>completely</u> confidential.

It will be further appreciated if after you have completed the questionnaire you would <u>return the detached Response Sheet</u> in the stamped, addressed envelope which has been provided. Other phases of this research cannot be carried out until we complete the analysis of the questionnaire data. Any comments you may have on any aspect of this study will be welcomed.

Thank you for your valuable time and cooperation.

<div align="right">

Larry W. Reed
Professor, Sociology Department
Southwest Missouri State University

</div>

APPENDIX J

COVER LETTER FOR FOLLOW-UP MAILINGS

SOUTHWEST MISSOURI STATE UNIVERSITY

SPRINGFIELD, MISSOURI 65802

Dear _____*

    Two weeks ago you received a questionnaire and a request for your participation in an ongoing research project. If you have already returned the questionnaire I would like to thank you for your cooperation. If you have not yet found the time to complete the questionnaire, I again would like to encourage you to do so.

    While many of the questionnaires have been returned, it is essential to the purpose of this research that as many perspectives as possible be represented. For your convenience, another questionnaire has been provided. I hope that you find it possible to take a few minutes out of your schedule to complete this questionnaire. Thank you.

                    Sincerely,

                    Larry W. Reed
                    Professor, Sociology Department
                    Southwest Missouri State University

*Alternate headings were used for each group of respondents.

APPENDIX K

PUBLIC TWO-YEAR COLLEGES IN THE STATE

OF OKLAHOMA

STATE-OWNED JUNIOR COLLEGES

Conners State College of Agriculture and Applied Science	Warner, Oklahoma
Eastern Oklahoma State College of Agriculture and Applied Science	Wilburton, Oklahoma
Murray State College of Agriculture and Applied Science	Tishomingo, Oklahoma
Northeastern Oklahoma A&M College	Miami, Oklahoma
Northern Oklahoma College	Tonkawa, Oklahoma
Claremore Junior College	Claremore, Oklahoma
Tulsa Junior College	Tulsa, Oklahoma
Altus Junior College	Altus, Oklahoma

COMMUNITY JUNIOR COLLEGES

El Reno Junior College	El Reno, Oklahoma
Oscar Rose Junior College	Midwest City, Oklahoma
Poteau Community College	Poteau, Oklahoma
Sayre Junior College	Sayre, Oklahoma
Seminole Junior College	Seminole, Oklahoma
South Oklahoma City Junior College	Oklahoma City, Oklahoma

APPENDIX L

GOAL RANKS BY ALL RESPONDENTS

GOAL RANKS ASSIGNED BY FACULTY (F),

ADMINISTRATORS (A), STUDENTS (S),

AND REGENTS (R)

Goal Statement	"Is" Ranks				"Should Be" Ranks			
	F	A	S	R	F	A	S	R
1	25	27	14.5	4.5	27	37.5	7.5	21.5
2	37	39	49	39.5	36	31.5	44	32.5
3	9	7.5	39	21	9.5	18	36	12.5
4	49	49	47	49	48	49	35	47
5	7	19	3	12	13	9.5	13	19
6	27	35	36	25.5	28	28	29.5	28.5
7	48	45	45	46	39	39	34	39.5
8	16	28.5	6	30	29	33	39.5	28.5
9	1	1	8.5	12	20.5	21.5	33	35.5
10	2	3	2	4.5	2.5	6	5	1
11	5	9	46	1	5.5	3	47	17
12	3	2	11	8	11	15.5	11	12.5
13	41	37	37	21	38	36	43	38
14	43.5	30.5	29	17.5	18.5	14	31	19
15	31.5	28.5	20	42	14	26	38	28.5
16	35	36	43	48	33	34	9.5	37
17	28.5	30.5	18	30	25	27	3	19
18	26	19	12.5	4.5	22.5	21.5	24.5	9
19	40	25	26	12	8	17	22	6
20	16	23.5	28	21	43	41	26	32.5
21	13	6	7	4.5	2.5	6	2	4
22	46	36	16	30	37	45	45	42
23	22.5	7.5	27	37	16	25	20.5	42
24	38	38	24	44	34	40	37	45.5
25	22.5	32.5	34	17.5	30	31.5	24.5	26
26	30	21.5	14.5	42	24	23	1	24
27	43.5	44	48	46	44	42	42	48
28	18	11	31	12	12	11.5	41	6

Goal Statement	"Is" Ranks				"Should Be" Ranks			
	F	A	S	R	F	A	S	R
29	13	11	21	15.5	4	4	29.5	15.5
30	4	5	5	12	22.5	13	15.5	9
31	8	4	8.5	8	9.5	9.5	6	12.5
32	11	11	24	8	20.5	11.5	27.5	6
33	35	40	44	37	42	37.5	48	32.5
34	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50
35	42	42.5	24	34	40.5	43	20.5	39.5
36	45	47	40.5	37	49	48	14	44
37	47	48	34	39.5	46	47	15.5	42
38	24	15	42	25.5	31	19	46	28.5
39	31.5	42.5	18	42	47	46	49	49
40	6	32.5	4	2	18.5	24	12	2.5
41	28.5	19	38	25.5	32	29.5	32	21.5
42	33	23.5	40.5	34	17	15.5	19	24
43	35	41	32	46	45	44	39.5	45.5
44	19	13.5	12.5	21	5.5	6	4	12.5
45	20	17	1	30	35	29.5	18	35.5
46	21	26	18	34	26	20	23	32.5
47	13	13.5	10	30	15	1.5	7.5	15.5
48	39	34	34	25.5	40.5	35	27.5	24
49	16	16	22	15.5	7	8	9.5	2.5
50	10	21.5	30	21	1	1.5	17	9

APPENDIX M

STATISTICAL SUMMARY OF RESPONSES

TO GOAL STATEMENTS

STATISTICAL SUMMARY OF FACULTY RESPONSES TO GOAL STATEMENTS

(*Indicates Statistical Significance)

Goal Statement	"Is" Responses			"Should Be" Responses			"t" Value
	Mean	S.D.[a]	S.E.	Mean	S.D.	S.E.	
1	3.06	.847	.060	3.66	.776	.055	7.41*
2	2.82	.817	.057	3.37	.855	.060	6.60*
3	3.26	.878	.062	3.86	.805	.057	7.15*
4	2.06	.841	.059	2.54	.942	.066	5.35*
5	3.32	.946	.067	3.82	.668	.047	6.20*
6	3.01	.875	.062	3.59	.701	.049	7.34*
7	2.49	.854	.060	3.29	.862	.061	9.34*
8	3.19	.981	.069	3.58	.901	.063	4.17*
9	3.63	.837	.059	3.72	.837	.059	1.01
10	3.52	.926	.065	3.99	.889	.063	5.15*
11	3.39	.869	.061	3.96	.704	.050	7.30*
12	3.42	.918	.065	3.85	.745	.052	5.18*
13	2.71	.897	.063	3.30	.952	.067	6.40*
14	2.67	.848	.060	3.73	.881	.062	12.26*
15	2.95	1.006	.071	3.80	.726	.051	9.75*
16	2.86	.993	.070	3.44	.840	.059	6.28*
17	2.98	.967	.068	3.68	.792	.056	7.94*
18	3.02	.881	.062	3.71	.803	.057	8.20*
19	2.74	.878	.062	3.88	.744	.052	14.12*
20	3.19	.827	.058	3.23	.851	.060	0.42
21	3.21	.977	.069	3.99	.776	.055	8.80*
22	2.58	.923	.065	3.34	.980	.069	8.00*
23	3.09	.944	.066	3.76	.775	.054	7.78*
24	2.81	.929	.065	3.43	.833	.059	7.10*
25	3.09	.890	.063	3.56	.772	.054	5.61*
26	2.96	.908	.064	3.70	.716	.050	9.01*
27	2.67	.893	.063	3.03	.849	.060	4.17*
28	3.15	.940	.066	3.83	.716	.050	8.16*
29	3.21	.875	.062	3.98	.680	.048	9.78*

Goal Statement	"Is" Responses			"Should Be" Responses			"t" Value
	Mean	S.D.[a]	S.E.	Mean	S.D.	S.E.	
30	3.40	.793	.056	3.71	.846	.060	3.76*
31	3.28	.837	.059	3.86	.762	.054	7.21*
32	3.22	.926	.065	3.72	.806	.057	5.85*
33	2.86	.883	.062	3.27	.891	.063	4.65*
34	1.97	.927	.065	1.99	.964	.068	.21
35	2.69	.900	.063	3.28	.949	.067	6.40*
36	2.64	1.009	.071	2.53	1.107	.078	1.03
37	2.56	.945	.067	2.58	1.144	.080	.19
38	3.08	.874	.062	3.52	.859	.060	5.11*
39	2.95	1.001	.070	2.56	1.119	.079	3.66*
40	3.38	.827	.058	3.73	.817	.057	5.35*
41	2.98	.872	.061	3.45	.914	.064	5.35*
42	2.94	.832	.059	3.75	.779	.055	10.06*
43	2.86	1.067	.075	2.83	1.029	.072	0.28
44	3.12	1.018	.072	3.96	.690	.049	9.78*
45	3.11	.908	.064	3.42	.757	.053	3.75*
46	3.10	.875	.062	3.67	.782	.055	6.90*
47	3.21	.996	.070	3.77	.792	.056	6.25*
48	2.77	.891	.063	3.28	.984	.069	5.41*
49	3.19	.895	.063	3.90	.849	.060	8.16*
50	3.23	.966	.068	4.00	.684	.048	9.27*

*Standard Deviation Abbreviated as S.D.; Standard Error as S.E.

STATISTICAL SUMMARY OF ADMINISTRATIVE

RESPONSES TO GOAL STATEMENTS

Goal Statement	"Is" Responses			"Should Be" Responses			"t" Value
	Mean	S.D.	S.E.	Mean	S.D.	S.E.	
1	3.22	.883	.120	3.41	1.091	.148	.97
2	2.87	.728	.099	3.63	.623	.085	5.82*
3	3.57	.662	.090	4.02	.687	.093	3.43*
4	1.93	.998	.134	2.24	1.148	.156	1.53
5	3.35	1.119	.152	4.17	.771	.105	4.41*
6	3.06	.787	.107	3.70	.717	.098	4.47*
7	2.61	.811	.110	3.33	.824	.112	4.59*
8	3.20	1.035	.141	3.59	.922	.125	2.06*
9	3.80	.737	.100	3.91	.759	.103	.77
10	3.72	.960	.131	4.22	.945	.129	2.73*
11	3.56	.861	.117	4.26	.589	.080	4.96*
12	3.74	.851	.116	4.06	.763	.104	2.02*
13	2.96	.931	.127	3.43	.924	.126	2.59*
14	3.19	.826	.112	4.07	.610	.083	6.36*
15	3.20	.898	.122	3.76	.671	.091	2.64*
16	2.98	.901	.123	3.54	.818	.111	3.36*
17	3.19	1.011	.138	3.72	.834	.113	3.01*
18	3.35	.872	.119	3.91	.708	.096	3.64*
19	3.26	.757	.103	4.04	.672	.091	5.65*
20	3.30	.717	.098	3.22	.691	.094	.55
21	3.60	.790	.107	4.22	.538	.073	4.84*
22	2.59	.858	.117	2.93	1.007	.137	1.85
23	3.57	.690	.094	3.80	.683	.093	1.68
24	2.93	.887	.121	3.28	.856	.116	2.10*
25	3.17	.885	.120	3.63	.784	.107	2.88*
26	3.31	.820	.112	3.87	.728	.099	3.72*
27	2.72	.834	.113	3.13	.912	.124	2.42*
28	3.52	.906	.123	4.11	.691	.094	3.82*
29	3.52	.693	.094	4.24	.671	.091	5.50*

Goal Statement	"Is" Responses			"Should Be" Responses			"t" Value
	Mean	S.D.	S.E.	Mean	S.D.	S.E.	
30	3.62	.784	.107	4.09	.759	.103	3.12*
31	3.66	.673	.092	4.17	.720	.098	3.73*
32	3.52	.947	.129	4.11	.634	.086	3.82*
33	2.85	.684	.093	3.41	.765	.104	3.98*
34	1.89	1.022	.139	1.78	1.058	.144	.56
35	2.78	.965	.131	2.98	1.124	.153	1.01
36	2.52	1.128	.154	2.33	.952	.130	.92
37	2.46	.926	.126	2.36	1.152	.157	.55
38	3.44	.984	.134	3.98	.714	.097	3.25*
39	2.78	1.040	.142	2.44	1.341	.183	1.44
40	3.17	.841	.114	3.85	.711	.097	4.57*
41	3.35	.588	.080	3.69	.843	.115	2.38*
42	3.30	.792	.108	4.06	.627	.085	5.52*
43	2.80	.919	.125	2.94	.878	.119	0.86
44	3.46	.966	.131	4.22	.538	.073	5.05*
45	3.39	.787	.107	3.69	.748	.102	2.01
46	3.24	.930	.127	3.96	.726	.099	4.50*
47	3.46	.840	.114	4.28	.564	.077	5.92*
48	3.07	.669	.091	3.48	.885	.120	2.70*
49	3.41	.813	.11	4.19	.702	.096	5.32*
50	3.31	.907	.123	4.28	.656	.089	6.32*

STATISTICAL SUMMARY OF STUDENT RESPONSES

TO GOAL STATEMENTS

Goal Statement	"Is" Responses			"Should Be" Responses			"t" Value
	Mean	S.D.	S.E.	Mean	S.D.	S.E.	
1	3.21	.746	.075	3.92	.997	.100	5.65*
2	2.66	.731	.073	3.03	1.156	.116	2.72*
3	2.93	.836	.084	.36	1.165	.117	3.01*
4	2.75	.930	.093	3.40	.999	.100	4.79*
5	3.54	.951	.096	3.82	.837	.084	2.22*
6	2.97	.984	.099	3.55	.961	.097	4.16*
7	2.77	.819	.082	3.43	1.012	.102	5.10*
8	3.36	.952	.096	3.29	1.033	.104	.50
9	3.29	.918	.092	3.45	1.003	.101	1.18
10	3.59	.990	.099	3.98	1.010	.102	2.77*
11	2.76	.916	.092	2.85	1.119	.112	.63
12	3.27	.932	.094	3.85	1.034	.104	4.19*
13	2.95	.800	.080	3.15	1.034	.104	1.54
14	3.07	.906	.091	3.48	1.044	.105	2.98*
15	3.16	.842	.085	3.32	1.077	.108	1.18
16	2.88	.961	.097	3.87	.922	.093	7.40*
17	3.17	.990	.100	4.10	.839	.084	7.12*
18	3.22	.736	.074	3.62	.804	.081	3.59*
19	3.12	.732	.074	3.66	.847	.085	4.76*
20	3.08	.965	.097	3.61	1.067	.107	3.63*
21	3.33	.926	.093	4.21	.799	.080	7.15*
22	3.19	.900	.090	3.02	1.169	.118	1.16
23	3.11	.807	.081	3.68	.978	.098	4.44*
24	3.13	.804	.081	3.34	1.061	.107	1.59
25	3.01	1.064	.107	3.62	1.122	.113	3.90*
26	3.21	1.013	.102	4.24	.771	.077	8.06*
27	2.74	.764	.077	3.27	1.048	.105	4.11*
28	3.08	.844	.85	3.28	1.116	.112	1.72
29	3.15	.896	.090	3.55	1.062	.107	2.82*

Goal Statement	"Is" Responses			"Should Be" Responses			"t" Value
	Mean	S.D.	S.E.	Mean	S.D.	S.E.	
30	3.38	.765	.077	3.76	1.011	.102	2.93*
31	3.29	.860	.086	3.94	.806	.081	5.46*
32	3.13	1.037	.104	3.59	1.060	.106	3.05*
33	2.82	.850	.085	2.84	1.122	.113	.14
34	2.37	.876	.088	2.03	1.005	.101	2.56*
35	3.13	.816	.082	3.68	.924	.093	4.40*
36	2.92	.888	.089	3.81	1.047	.105	6.44*
37	3.01	.863	.087	3.76	1.126	.113	5.24*
38	2.90	.920	.092	2.88	1.100	.111	.14
39	3.17	.893	.090	2.78	1.352	.136	2.42*
40	3.40	.768	.077	3.83	1.116	.112	3.12*
41	2.94	.879	.088	3.47	1.288	.129	3.42*
42	2.92	.778	.078	3.72	1.000	.101	6.26*
43	3.03	.886	.089	3.29	1.197	.120	1.75
44	3.22	1.045	.105	4.09	.730	.073	6.78*
45	3.60	.925	.093	3.73	1.018	.102	.95
46	3.17	.846	.085	3.63	.921	.093	3.62*
47	3.28	.959	.096	3.92	1.027	.103	4.51*
48	3.01	.814	.082	3.59	1.079	.108	4.24*
49	3.14	.869	.087	3.87	1.122	.113	5.10*
50	3.06	.867	.087	3.74	.996	.100	5.10*

STATISTICAL SUMMARY OF REGENTS' RESPONSES

TO GOAL STATEMENTS

Goal Statement	"Is" Responses			"Should Be" Responses			
	Mean	S.D.	S.E.	Mean	S.D.	S.E.	"t" Value
1	3.71	.760	.130	3.65	.597	.102	.35
2	3.06	.814	.140	3.41	.701	.120	1.91
3	3.35	.597	.102	3.88	.686	.118	3.39*
4	2.47	.992	.170	2.88	1.038	.178	1.67
5	3.53	.861	.148	3.71	.836	.143	.86
6	3.29	.906	.155	3.47	.929	.159	.79
7	2.71	.760	.130	3.12	.913	.157	2.02*
8	3.24	.654	.112	3.47	1.051	.180	1.11
9	3.53	.929	.159	3.35	.691	.119	.89
10	3.71	.676	.116	4.24	.654	.112	3.28*
11	3.88	.929	.159	3.76	.691	.119	.72
12	3.65	.676	.116	3.88	.654	.112	1.33
13	3.35	.686	.118	3.18	.654	.112	1.19
14	3.41	.917	.157	3.71	.478	.082	1.50
15	3.00	.485	.083	3.47	.717	.123	2.36*
16	2.65	.783	.134	3.24	.836	.143	3.04*
17	3.24	.955	.164	3.71	.760	.130	2.25*
18	3.71	.676	.116	3.94	.736	.126	1.37
19	3.53	.788	.135	4.00	.603	.103	2.77*
20	3.35	.917	.157	3.41	.988	.169	.25
21	3.71	.676	.116	4.06	.547	.094	2.37*
22	3.24	.890	.153	3.06	1.013	.174	.76
23	3.12	.913	.157	3.06	1.013	.174	.25
24	2.94	.814	.140	2.94	1.071	.184	.00
25	3.41	.609	.104	3.53	.615	.105	.79
26	3.00	.696	.119	3.59	.783	.134	3.27*
27	2.71	.676	.116	2.76	.741	.127	.34
28	3.53	.706	.121	4.00	.492	.084	3.19*
29	3.47	.507	.087	3.82	.626	.107	2.55*

Goal Statement	"Is" Responses			"Should Be" Responses			"t" Value
	Mean	S.D.	S.E.	Mean	S.D.	S.E.	
30	3.53	.706	.121	3.94	.814	.140	2.23*
31	3.65	.485	.083	3.88	.591	.101	1.79
32	3.65	.597	.102	4.00	.492	.084	2.66*
33	3.12	.769	.132	3.41	.857	.147	1.49
34	2.29	.676	.116	2.12	.686	.118	1.07
35	3.18	.717	.123	3.12	.977	.168	.28
36	3.12	.844	.145	3.00	1.044	.179	.51
37	3.06	.886	.152	3.06	1.179	.202	.00
38	3.29	.676	.116	3.47	.929	.159	.90
39	3.00	.778	.134	2.65	1.098	.188	1.53
40	3.82	.869	.149	4.18	.626	.107	1.92
41	3.29	.760	.130	3.65	.597	.102	2.13*
42	3.18	.387	.066	3.59	.609	.104	3.33*
43	2.71	1.088	.187	2.94	1.071	.184	.90
44	3.35	.849	.146	3.88	.686	.118	2.83*
45	3.24	.819	.140	3.35	.597	.102	.68
46	3.18	.717	.123	3.41	.783	.134	1.29
47	3.24	.554	.095	3.82	.626	.107	4.10*
48	3.29	.676	.116	3.59	.783	.134	1.66
49	3.47	.706	.121	4.18	.521	.089	4.69*
50	3.35	.774	.133	3.94	.547	.094	3.62*

APPENDIX N

RESPONDENT EVALUATIONS OF

PERCEIVED (IS) GOALS

STUDENT (S), REGENT (R), FACULTY (F), AND

ADMINISTRATORS" (A) PERCEPTIONS OF

PRESENT (IS) GOALS OF THE

JUNIOR COLLEGE[a]

Goal Statement	Group	Level of Importance					"F" Value[b]	"V" Value
		None	Little	Medium	Great	Top		
1	S	1.0	11.2	58.6	24.2	5.1	6.09*	.16
	R	0.0	5.9	29.4	52.9	11.8		
	F	4.5	16.3	50.5	25.7	3.0		
	A	0.0	22.2	40.7	29.6	7.4		
2	S	5.1	33.3	53.5	7.1	1.0	2.51	.12
	R	5.9	11.8	52.9	29.4	0.0		
	F	5.0	27.7	49.5	16.3	1.5		
	A	3.7	20.4	63.0	11.1	1.9		
3	S	4.0	23.2	51.5	18.2	3.0	7.98*	.17
	R	0.0	5.9	52.9	41.2	0.0		
	F	3.5	12.9	43.1	35.1	5.4		
	A	0.0	1.9	46.3	44.4	7.4		
4	S	10.1	26.3	44.4	17.2	2.0	16.00*	.22
	R	17.6	35.3	29.4	17.6	0.0		
	F	26.2	46.5	22.3	4.5	0.5		
	A	38.9	40.7	11.1	7.4	1.9		
5	S	3.0	9.1	33.3	40.4	14.1	1.39	.13
	R	5.9	0.0	35.3	52.9	5.9		
	F	3.0	16.3	35.1	37.1	8.4		
	A	9.3	7.4	37.0	31.5	14.8		
6	S	4.0	28.3	43.4	15.2	9.1	1.18	.14
	R	5.9	5.9	47.1	35.3	5.9		
	F	1.0	30.2	40.1	24.3	4.5		
	A	1.9	18.5	55.6	20.4	3.7		
7	S	7.1	25.3	52.5	14.1	1.0	2.71	.15
	R	0.0	47.1	35.3	17.6	0.0		
	F	8.9	45.5	35.6	7.4	2.5		
	A	9.3	29.6	53.7	5.6	1.9		
8	S	0.0	21.2	33.3	33.3	12.1	0.74	.15
	R	0.0	11.8	52.9	35.3	0.0		
	F	3.0	22.8	34.7	31.2	8.4		
	A	9.3	11.1	35.2	38.9	5.6		

Goal Statement	Group	Level of Importance					"F" Value[b]	"V" Value
		None	Little	Medium	Great	Top		
9	S	1.0	19.2	38.4	32.3	9.1	5.13*	.14
	R	0.0	11.8	41.2	29.4	17.6		
	F	1.0	6.9	33.2	45.5	13.4		
	A	0.0	1.9	33.3	48.1	16.7		
10	S	2.0	10.1	35.4	32.3	20.2	0.92	.12
	R	0.0	0.0	41.2	47.1	11.8		
	F	2.5	9.4	35.1	39.6	13.4		
	A	5.6	0.0	29.6	46.3	18.5		
11	S	8.1	28.3	47.5	12.1	4.0	20.28*	.25
	R	0.0	0.0	29.4	52.9	17.6		
	F	2.0	12.9	36.6	41.6	6.9		
	A	0.0	5.6	51.9	24.1	18.5		
12	S	2.0	17.2	43.4	27.3	10.1	3.81	.12
	R	0.0	11.8	29.4	41.2	17.6		
	F	3.5	9.9	37.1	40.1	9.4		
	A	0.0	7.4	29.6	44.4	18.5		
13	S	3.0	21.2	57.6	14.1	4.0	6.60*	.17
	R	0.0	0.0	64.7	35.3	0.0		
	F	10.4	26.7	45.5	16.3	1.0		
	A	7.4	18.5	48.1	22.2	3.7		
14	S	5.1	16.2	51.5	21.2	6.1	12.10*	.19
	R	0.0	11.8	41.2	41.2	5.9		
	F	7.4	34.2	43.1	14.4	1.0		
	A	3.7	13.0	46.3	35.2	1.9		
15	S	2.0	16.2	51.5	24.2	6.1	1.75	.13
	R	0.0	29.4	41.2	29.4	0.0		
	F	9.9	19.3	40.6	26.2	4.0		
	A	3.7	13.0	50.0	25.9	7.4		
16	S	7.1	25.3	46.5	15.2	6.1	.86	.12
	R	5.9	41.2	35.3	17.6	0.0		
	F	9.9	23.8	40.1	22.8	3.5		
	A	3.7	22.2	53.7	13.0	7.4		
17	S	6.1	14.1	45.5	25.3	9.1	1.49	.09
	R	5.9	11.8	41.2	35.3	5.9		
	F	8.4	18.8	42.6	26.7	3.5		
	A	7.4	14.8	35.2	37.0	5.6		
18	S	0.0	12.1	59.6	22.2	6.1	7.94*	.17
	R	0.0	0.0	41.2	47.1	11.8		
	F	5.4	17.8	49.5	23.8	3.5		
	A	3.7	9.3	40.7	40.7	5.6		

Goal Statement	Group	Level of Importance					"F" Value[b]	"V" Value
		None	Little	Medium	Great	Top		
19	S	0.0	18.2	54.5	24.2	3.0	14.06*	.21
	R	0.0	5.9	47.1	35.3	11.8		
	F	7.4	31.2	43.1	16.8	1.5		
	A	3.7	5.6	53.7	35.2	1.9		
20	S	5.1	18.2	49.5	18.2	9.1	1.22	.14
	R	0.0	17.6	41.2	29.4	11.8		
	F	4.0	9.9	53.5	28.2	4.5		
	A	3.7	1.9	57.4	35.2	1.9		
21	S	4.0	10.1	43.4	33.3	9.1	4.46*	.12
	R	0.0	0.0	41.2	47.1	11.8		
	F	6.4	13.9	37.6	36.1	5.9		
	A	0.0	9.3	31.5	50.0	9.3		
22	S	4.0	15.2	43.4	32.3	5.1	13.74*	.21
	R	5.9	11.8	35.3	47.1	0.0		
	F	13.4	31.2	40.6	13.9	1.0		
	A	11.1	29.6	50.0	7.4	1.9		
23	S	3.0	14.1	55.6	23.2	4.0	4.52*	.17
	R	0.0	29.4	35.3	29.4	5.9		
	F	6.9	16.3	40.1	33.7	3.0		
	A	0.0	0.0	53.7	35.2	11.1		
24	S	2.0	15.2	55.6	22.2	5.1	3.00	.11
	R	5.9	17.6	52.9	23.5	0.0		
	F	10.4	21.8	46.0	20.3	1.5		
	A	5.6	22.2	50.0	18.5	3.7		
25	S	6.1	26.3	39.4	17.2	11.1	1.71	.15
	R	0.0	5.9	47.1	47.1	0.0		
	F	3.0	20.3	47.0	23.8	5.9		
	A	0.0	24.1	42.6	25.9	7.4		
26	S	4.0	18.2	42.4	23.2	12.1	3.15	.13
	R	0.0	23.5	52.9	23.5	0.0		
	F	5.0	24.8	43.1	23.8	3.5		
	A	0.0	13.0	51.9	25.9	9.3		
27	S	6.1	26.3	56.6	10.1	1.0	.09	
	R	0.0	41.2	47.1	11.8	0.0		
	F	10.4	28.2	47.0	12.4	2.0		
	A	5.6	33.3	46.3	13.0	1.9		
28	S	3.0	20.2	50.5	22.2	4.0	5.10*	.14
	R	0.0	5.9	41.2	47.1	5.9		
	F	6.4	13.9	42.6	32.7	4.5		
	A	3.7	7.4	31.5	48.1	9.3		

| Goal Statement | Group | Level of Importance | | | | | "F" Value[b] | "V" Value |
		None	Little	Medium	Great	Top		
29	S	2.0	18.2	51.5	19.2	9.1	3.24	.16
	R	0.0	0.0	52.9	47.1	0.0		
	F	1.5	19.8	40.1	33.2	5.4		
	A	0.0	3.7	48.1	40.7	7.4		
30	S	0.0	10.1	48.5	34.3	7.1	1.56	.11
	R	0.0	0.0	58.8	29.4	11.8		
	F	1.5	8.9	43.6	40.1	5.9		
	A	0.0	7.4	33.3	48.1	11.1		
31	S	2.0	10.1	54.5	23.2	10.1	4.98*	.18
	R	0.0	0.0	35.3	64.7	0.0		
	F	1.0	14.4	47.5	29.7	7.4		
	A	0.0	3.7	33.3	55.6	7.4		
32	S	3.0	26.3	37.4	21.2	12.1	4.04*	.16
	R	0.0	0.0	41.2	52.9	5.9		
	F	3.5	16.8	41.1	31.7	6.9		
	A	0.0	16.7	29.6	38.9	14.8		
33	S	6.1	25.3	52.5	13.1	3.0	1.14	14
	R	0.0	23.5	41.2	35.3	0.0		
	F	3.0	33.7	42.6	16.3	4.5		
	A	1.9	24.1	63.0	9.3	1.9		
34	S	12.1	50.5	27.3	8.1	2.0	5.93*	.18
	R	5.9	64.7	23.5	5.9	0.0		
	F	35.1	41.1	17.3	5.0	1.5		
	A	44.4	33.3	13.0	7.4	1.9		
35	S	1.0	19.2	50.5	24.2	5.1	7.27*	.17
	R	5.9	0.0	64.7	29.4	0.0		
	F	11.4	24.8	48.5	13.9	1.5		
	A	14.8	14.8	48.1	22.2	0.0		
36	S	6.1	23.2	45.5	23.2	2.0	4.39*	.15
	R	0.0	23.5	47.1	23.5	5.9		
	F	15.8	24.8	42.1	14.4	3.0		
	A	27.8	14.8	35.2	22.2	0.0		
37	S	4.0	19.2	53.5	18.2	5.1	8.17*	.16
	R	0.0	29.4	41.2	23.5	5.9		
	F	13.4	33.2	39.6	11.4	2.5		
	A	18.5	27.8	42.6	11.1	0.0		
38	S	3.0	32.3	42.4	16.2	6.1	4.97*	.16
	R	0.0	11.8	47.1	31.2	0.0		
	F	3.0	21.3	44.1	27.7	4.0		
	A	3.7	13.0	29.6	42.6	11.1		

Goal Statement	Group	Level of Importance					"F" Value[b]	"V" Value
		None	Little	Medium	Great	Top		
39	S	1.0	22.2	42.2	27.3	7.1	2.16	.12
	R	5.9	11.8	58.8	23.5	0.0		
	F	8.4	21.3	43.1	21.3	5.9		
	A	14.8	18.5	44.4	18.5	3.7		
40	S	0.0	10.1	46.5	36.4	7.1	4.55*	.14
	R	0.0	5.9	29.4	41.2	23.5		
	F	0.5	11.9	46.0	32.7	8.9		
	A	3.7	13.0	50.0	29.6	3.7		
41	S	6.1	19.2	53.5	17.2	4.0	4.48*	.14
	R	0.0	11.8	52.9	29.4	5.9		
	F	3.5	23.3	51.0	16.8	5.4		
	A	0.0	1.9	64.8	29.6	3.7		
42	S	3.0	23.2	54.5	17.2	2.0	3.87	.16
	R	0.0	0.0	82.4	17.6	0.0		
	F	3.5	25.2	47.0	22.3	2.0		
	A	3.7	5.6	51.9	35.2	3.7		
43	S	2.0	25.3	46.5	20.2	6.1	1.24	.12
	R	17.6	17.6	47.1	11.8	5.9		
	F	9.9	27.7	36.6	18.3	7.4		
	A	9.3	25.9	40.7	24.1	0.0		
44	S	6.1	15.2	41.4	25.3	12.1	2.00	.13
	R	0.0	17.6	35.3	41.2	5.9		
	F	7.9	18.3	32.7	36.6	4.5		
	A	0.0	18.5	31.5	35.2	14.8		
45	S	2.0	6.1	40.4	33.3	18.2	.96	.17
	R	0.0	17.6	47.1	29.4	5.9		
	F	3.5	21.8	39.1	31.7	4.0		
	A	0.0	9.3	51.9	29.6	9.3		
46	S	2.0	13.1	59.6	16.2	9.1	.46	.14
	R	0.0	17.6	47.1	35.3	0.0		
	F	3.5	20.3	42.1	31.2	3.0		
	A	3.7	13.0	48.1	25.9	9.3		
47	S	4.0	12.1	46.5	26.3	11.1	1.08	.17
	R	0.0	5.9	64.7	29.4	0.0		
	F	3.5	23.3	29.7	36.1	7.4		
	A	0.0	14.8	31.5	46.3	7.4		
48	S	5.1	14.1	58.6	19.2	3.0	5.49*	.17
	R	0.0	11.8	47.1	41.2	0.0		
	F	7.4	27.7	48.5	12.9	3.5		
	A	1.9	11.1	66.7	18.5	1.9		

Goal Statement	Group	Level of Importance					"F" Value[b]	"V" Value
		None	Little	Medium	Great	Top		
49	S	3.0	15.2	53.5	21.2	7.1	2.15	.11
	R	0.0	5.9	47.1	41.2	5.9		
	F	3.5	15.8	45.0	29.7	5.9		
	A	3.7	1.9	51.9	35.2	7.4		
50	S	5.1	14.1	55.6	20.2	5.1	1.41	.16
	R	0.0	17.6	29.4	52.9	0.0		
	F	2.5	21.3	36.1	31.2	8.9		
	A	3.7	9.3	48.1	29.6	9.3		

[a]Data percentaged horizontally.

[b]*Significance reported at the .05 level, df = 3,385.

APPENDIX O

RESPONDENT EVALUATIONS OF PREFERRED

(SHOULD BE) GOALS

STUDENT (S), REGENT (R), FACULTY (F), AND

ADMINISTRATORS' (A) PERCEPTIONS OF

PREFERRED (SHOULD BE) GOALS OF

THE JUNIOR COLLEGE[a]

Goal Statement	Group	Level of Importance					"F" Value[b]	"V" Value
		None	Little	Medium	Great	Top		
1	S	2.0	5.1	26.3	32.3	34.3	4.25*	.21
	R	0.0	0.0	41.2	52.9	5.9		
	F	0.5	5.9	31.7	50.5	11.4		
	A	3.7	18.5	27.8	33.3	16.7		
2	S	9.1	24.2	34.3	19.2	13.1	5.79*	.21
	R	0.0	5.9	52.9	35.3	5.9		
	F	3.0	9.9	40.6	40.6	5.9		
	A	0.0	1.9	38.9	53.7	5.6		
3	S	5.1	21.2	25.3	39.3	19.2	9.20*	.24
	R	0.0	5.9	11.8	70.6	11.8		
	F	2.0	1.0	25.2	52.5	19.3		
	A	0.0	3.7	11.1	64.8	20.4		
4	S	3.0	13.1	39.4	29.3	15.2	22.17*	.27
	R	17.6	5.9	47.1	29.4	0.0		
	F	14.9	32.2	38.1	13.9	1.0		
	A	31.5	29.6	29.6	1.9	7.4		
5	S	1.0	3.0	30.3	44.4	21.2	3.83	.18
	R	0.0	11.8	17.6	58.8	11.8		
	F	0.5	1.0	26.7	59.4	12.4		
	A	1.9	1.9	5.6	59.3	31.5		
6	S	2.0	10.1	36.4	34.3	17.2	.72	.15
	R	5.9	5.9	29.4	52.9	5.9		
	F	0.0	5.0	38.6	49.0	7.4		
	A	0.0	1.9	38.9	46.3	13.0		
7	S	5.1	11.1	31.3	40.4	12.1	1.19	.12
	R	5.9	17.6	35.3	41.2	0.0		
	F	1.5	16.3	40.1	36.1	5.9		
	A	0.0	16.7	38.9	38.9	5.6		
8	S	4.0	17.2	37.4	28.3	13.1	2.27	.13
	R	0.0	23.5	23.5	35.3	17.6		
	F	2.0	6.9	37.1	38.6	15.3		
	A	0.0	14.8	25.9	44.4	14.8		

Goal Statement	Group	Level of Importance					"F" Value[b]	"V" Value
		None	Little	Medium	Great	Top		
9	S	2.0	14.1	37.4	29.3	17.2	5.07*	.16
	R	0.0	5.9	58.8	29.4	5.9		
	F	1.0	5.4	30.7	46.5	16.3		
	A	0.0	1.9	27.8	48.1	22.2		
10	S	3.0	4.0	21.2	35.4	36.4	1.63	.13
	R	0.0	0.0	11.8	52.9	35.3		
	F	2.0	3.5	17.8	47.5	29.2		
	A	5.6	0.0	1.9	51.9	40.7		
11	S	12.1	25.3	37.4	16.2	9.1	51.61*	.35
	R	0.0	0.0	35.3	52.9	11.8		
	F	0.0	3.5	16.3	60.9	19.3		
	A	0.0	0.0	7.4	59.3	33.3		
12	S	3.0	7.1	22.2	37.4	30.3	.97	.17
	R	0.0	0.0	17.6	76.5	5.9		
	F	0.0	5.4	19.8	58.9	15.8		
	A	0.0	5.6	9.3	59.3	25.9		
13	S	9.1	11.1	43.4	28.3	8.1	1.15	.11
	R	0.0	17.6	47.1	35.3	0.0		
	F	6.4	8.4	41.1	37.1	6.9		
	A	5.6	5.6	37.0	44.4	7.4		
14	S	6.1	7.1	35.4	35.4	16.2	5.14*	.17
	R	5.9	0.0	17.6	70.6	5.9		
	F	3.5	5.0	20.3	57.9	13.4		
	A	0.0	1.9	9.3	68.5	20.4		
15	S	8.1	9.1	38.4	31.3	13.1	8.12*	.21
	R	0.0	17.6	23.5	52.9	5.9		
	F	0.0	2.5	30.7	51.0	15.8		
	A	0.0	3.7	25.9	61.1	9.3		
16	S	2.0	4.0	25.3	42.4	26.3	7.40*	.18
	R	0.0	17.6	41.2	41.2	0.0		
	F	1.5	10.4	39.1	41.1	7.9		
	A	0.0	13.0	27.8	51.9	7.4		
17	S	1.0	1.0	21.2	40.4	36.4	6.44*	.18
	R	0.0	5.9	29.4	52.9	11.8		
	F	1.0	4.5	33.2	48.5	12.9		
	A	3.7	1.9	24.1	59.3	11.1		
18	S	0.0	5.1	43.4	36.4	15.2	2.48	.11
	R	0.0	0.0	29.4	47.1	23.5		
	F	0.5	5.4	31.7	47.5	14.9		
	A	0.0	1.9	24.1	55.6	18.5		

Goal Statement	Group	Level of Importance					"F" Value[b]	"V" Value
		None	Little	Medium	Great	Top		
19	S	2.0	4.0	34.3	45.5	14.1	3.86	.14
	R	0.0	0.0	17.6	64.7	17.6		
	F	0.0	5.0	19.3	58.4	17.3		
	A	0.0	1.9	14.8	61.1	22.2		
20	S	3.0	12.1	29.3	32.3	23.2	4.27*	.20
	R	0.0	17.6	41.2	23.5	17.6		
	F	2.0	16.3	43.6	33.2	5.0		
	A	3.7	1.9	64.8	27.8	1.9		
21	S	0.0	1.0	20.2	35.4	43.4	2.86	.16
	R	0.0	0.0	11.8	70.6	17.6		
	F	1.5	1.0	18.8	55.0	23.8		
	A	0.0	0.0	5.6	66.7	27.8		
22	S	10.1	24.2	31.3	22.2	12.1	3.55	.15
	R	11.8	11.8	35.3	41.2	0.0		
	F	5.0	11.9	37.6	35.6	9.9		
	A	13.0	13.0	44.4	27.8	1.9		
23	S	1.0	9.1	35.4	30.3	24.2	7.16*	.20
	R	5.9	23.5	35.3	29.4	5.9		
	F	0.0	5.4	28.2	51.0	15.3		
	A	0.0	0.0	35.2	50.0	14.8		
24	S	6.1	13.1	34.3	33.3	13.1	2.86	.15
	R	11.8	23.5	23.5	41.2	0.0		
	F	2.0	10.4	36.1	45.5	5.9		
	A	3.7	11.1	42.6	38.9	3.7		
25	S	7.1	6.1	28.3	35.4	23.2	.20	.18
	R	0.0	5.9	35.3	58.8	0.0		
	F	0.5	5.9	40.6	43.1	9.9		
	A	1.9	3.7	33.3	51.9	9.3		
26	S	0.0	1.0	17.2	38.4	43.4	13.83*	.22
	R	0.0	5.9	41.2	41.2	11.8		
	F	0.5	3.5	32.2	54.0	9.9		
	A	0.0	1.9	27.8	51.9	18.5		
27	S	5.1	15.2	41.4	24.2	14.1	3.10	.16
	R	5.9	23.5	58.8	11.8	0.0		
	F	4.0	18.3	52.0	21.8	4.0		
	A	3.7	22.2	33.3	38.9	1.9		
28	S	8.1	14.1	32.3	32.3	13.1	15.87*	.25
	R	0.0	0.0	11.8	76.5	11.8		
	F	0.5	1.5	28.2	54.5	15.3		
	A	0.0	0.0	18.5	51.9	29.6		

Goal Statement	Group	Level of Importance					"F" Value[b]	"V" Value
		None	Little	Medium	Great	Top		
29	S	4.0	10.1	34.3	30.3	21.2	10.70*	.22
	R	0.0	0.0	29.4	58.8	11.8		
	F	0.0	1.5	19.8	58.4	20.3		
	A	0.0	0.0	13.0	50.0	37.0		
30	S	3.0	7.1	26.3	38.4	25.3	3.10	.13
	R	0.0	5.9	17.6	52.9	23.5		
	F	2.0	5.4	26.2	52.5	13.9		
	A	0.0	3.7	13.0	53.7	29.6		
31	S	0.0	2.0	29.3	41.4	27.3	2.45	.16
	R	0.0	5.9	5.9	82.4	5.9		
	F	0.0	5.0	22.3	55.0	17.8		
	A	0.0	0.0	18.5	46.3	35.2		
32	S	4.0	10.1	30.3	34.3	21.2	5.65*	.18
	R	0.0	0.0	11.8	76.5	11.8		
	F	1.5	5.0	26.2	54.5	12.9		
	A	0.0	1.9	9.3	64.8	24.1		
33	S	13.1	23.2	39.4	15.2	9.1	6.70*	.20
	R	0.0	11.8	47.1	29.4	11.8		
	F	1.0	18.8	40.6	31.7	7.9		
	A	0.0	7.4	53.7	29.6	9.3		
34	S	38.4	29.3	24.2	7.1	1.0	1.11	.17
	R	11.8	70.6	11.8	5.9	0.0		
	F	36.6	38.1	15.8	8.9	0.5		
	A	53.7	25.9	13.0	3.7	3.7		
35	S	2.0	5.1	36.4	36.4	20.2	7.23*	.17
	R	5.9	17.6	41.2	29.4	5.9		
	F	6.4	9.9	38.1	40.1	5.4		
	A	13.0	14.8	42.6	20.4	9.3		
36	S	3.0	6.1	29.3	30.3	31.3	37.13*	.32
	R	0.0	47.1	11.8	35.3	5.9		
	F	21.3	26.2	36.1	10.9	5.4		
	A	22.2	31.5	38.9	5.6	1.9		
37	S	5.1	9.1	20.2	36.4	29.3	18.04*	.28
	R	11.8	23.5	17.6	41.2	5.9		
	F	22.3	23.8	31.2	18.8	4.0		
	A	31.5	22.2	27.8	16.7	1.9		
38	S	12.1	23.2	36.4	21.2	7.1	19.24*	.24
	R	5.9	5.9	29.4	52.9	5.9		
	F	1.0	11.4	31.7	46.0	9.9		
	A	0.0	3.7	14.8	61.1	20.4		

Goal Statement	Group	Level of Importance					"F" Value[b]	"V" Value
		None	Little	Medium	Great	Top		
39	S	23.2	19.2	29.3	13.1	15.2	1.07	.20
	R	17.6	29.4	23.5	29.4	0.0		
	F	19.3	32.7	23.3	21.8	3.0		
	A	38.9	7.4	31.5	14.8	7.4		
40	S	3.0	11.1	20.2	31.3	34.3	2.63	.19
	R	0.0	0.0	11.8	58.8	29.4		
	F	0.0	6.4	31.2	45.5	16.8		
	A	0.0	3.7	22.2	59.3	14.8		
41	S	9.1	14.1	25.3	23.2	28.3	1.06	.20
	R	0.0	0.0	41.2	52.9	5.9		
	F	3.5	8.4	38.1	39.6	10.4		
	A	1.9	5.6	27.8	51.9	13.0		
42	S	3.0	8.1	25.3	41.4	22.2	2.99	.16
	R	0.0	0.0	47.1	47.1	5.9		
	F	2.0	2.5	26.7	56.4	12.4		
	A	0.0	0.0	16.7	61.1	22.2		
43	S	9.1	14.1	34.3	23.2	19.2	4.32*	.15
	R	11.8	17.6	41.2	23.5	5.9		
	F	9.9	26.2	42.1	14.9	6.9		
	A	5.6	22.2	46.3	24.1	1.9		
44	S	0.0	1.0	19.2	49.5	30.3	2.92	.12
	R	0.0	0.0	29.4	52.9	17.6		
	F	0.5	1.0	19.8	59.4	19.3		
	A	0.0	0.0	5.6	66.7	27.8		
45	S	2.0	10.1	26.3	36.4	25.3	4.29*	.19
	R	0.0	5.9	52.9	41.2	0.0		
	F	0.0	10.9	41.6	42.1	5.4		
	A	0.0	3.7	37.0	46.3	13.0		
46	S	3.0	4.0	37.4	38.4	17.2	3.58	.17
	R	0.0	11.8	41.2	41.2	5.9		
	F	3.0	2.0	28.7	57.9	8.4		
	A	0.0	0.0	27.8	48.1	24.1		
47	S	4.0	5.1	17.2	42.4	31.3	5.63*	.19
	R	0.0	0.0	29.4	58.8	11.8		
	F	1.5	5.9	18.8	61.9	11.9		
	A	0.0	0.0	5.6	61.1	33.3		
48	S	5.1	8.1	32.3	22.2	2.77	.15	
	R	0.0	11.8	23.5	58.8	5.9		
	F	4.0	16.3	37.6	32.2	9.9		
	A	1.9	9.3	38.9	38.9	11.1		

| Goal Statement | Group | Level of Importance | | | | | "F" Value[b] | "V" Value |
		None	Little	Medium	Great	Top		
49	S	5.1	7.1	18.2	35.4	34.3	2.53	.15
	R	0.0	0.0	5.9	70.6	23.5		
	F	1.0	5.4	19.3	51.5	22.8		
	A	0.0	1.9	11.1	53.7	33.3		
50	S	4.0	4.0	29.3	39.4	23.2	6.12*	.19
	R	0.0	0.0	17.6	70.6	11.8		
	F	0.0	3.0	14.4	62.4	20.3		
	A	0.0	0.0	11.1	50.0	38.9		

[a]Data percentaged horizontally.

[b]*Significance reported at the .05 level, df = 3.385.

VITA

Larry William Reed

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Thesis: WHOSE GOALS? A SOCIOLOGICAL ANALYSIS OF MEMBER PERCEPTIONS
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