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Unit Effectiveness and Leadership In A Changing Society

Philip Worchel Joseph A. Sgro, and Richard W. Cravens

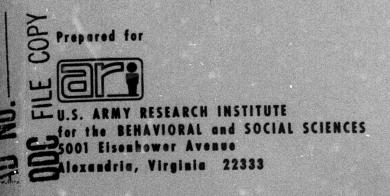


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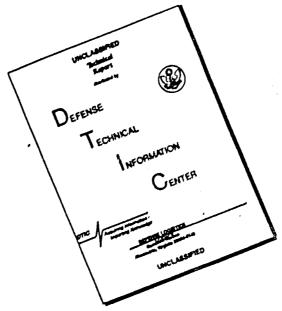
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development and ego identity status. Situational variables are forms of influence by leaders, differential patterns of reward allocation and integrating conflict and cooperation. The results of five laboratory experiments and six field studies are reported and discussed in relation to prevailing theory.

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. Holigestelies of Instropus of a las RESUME OF THE STUDY (b) Locat-of-control of the coder did not moderate the astisfaction of redard The present research was conducted from April 1974 to August 1977 under Grant No. DAHC19-74-G-0011 from the U.S. Army Research Institute for the Behavioral and Social Sciences to Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University. The program of research was entitled "Unit Effectiveness and Leadership it was found that 11日起往今后来以为禁。正要生心的 in a Changing Society" and was directed at examining the differential reaction of individuals to varying patterns of leadership behavior and social dynamics of groups. The focus of the research was upon the personality and situational 1010 factors that were felt to be related to the attractiveness of a group and the swards in a monter chat derive willingness of its members to cooperate in the attainment of the objectives. (下下): The primery personality variables which were manipulated were Rotter's "locusof-control" and "interpersonal trust", Kohlberg's "level of moral development" and Marcia's "ego identity status". All of these variables have been shown SOT MENT BUILDADI ROLLLE either theoretically or empirically to be related to group behavior. The primary situational variables which were considered were the forms of influence by 今夜过春秋了河,马安东市东华台 and and sentered that and an the leaders (coercive and persuasive), the differential patterns of reward alloat impagoleres ferta cation and intragroup conflict and cooperation.

The field study data were collected from two institutions in the South and involved freshmen military cadets. A later collection involved another class of freshmen cadets from the same two institutions in addition to a university in the Southwest. The laboratory experiments involved undergraduates at Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University.

1. With regard to the use of coercive and persuasive power, it was found that: (a) Cadet subordinates were most satisfied with leaders who were perceived

to be considerate and persuasive. Theperceived behaviors of structure,

production, and responsibility were not found to be important to satisfaction.

- (b) Locus-of-control of the cadet did not moderate the satisfaction of cadets to different uses of power. Rather, internally controlled persons tended to be less responsive to the demands of leaders (in the laboratory study) than externals.
- 2. For level of moral development it was found that:
 - (a) The manner in which power is used does not depend on the level of moral development of the leader.
 - (b) When subordinates are at a conventional level of moral development, a
 - lesder who allocates rewards in a manner that differentiates his status from that of his subordinates will in turn enhance his own value to that group.
 - (c) Low principled persons will express greater satisfaction with a competitive strategy for gaining rewards than moderately principled persons.
 - Moderately principled persons will express greater satisfaction with a cooperative strategy for gaining rewards than low principled persons.
 - (d) Level of moral development is inversely related to the favorableness of military authority and also inversely related to a preference for Theory X management.
- (e) At the conventional level, cadets are more satisfied, get along better with other cadets and have a more positive attitude toward the military system than cadets at the post-conventional level.
 - (f) If leaders are of a higher level of moral development than their subordinates, the role of the leader as an authority image is enhanced.
 - With regard to the role of the delegation of authority and interpersonal trust in leadership settings, it was found that:
 - (a) Under situations in which knowledge concerning the recipient is lacking,

persons who are high-trusters tend to allocate the same degree responsibility as low-trusters.

- (b) When given knowledge about the degree of trustworthiness of the recipient, the high trust allocator would always give more responsibility than the allocator with low trust.
- (c) Cadet leaders with high levels of interpersonal trust show behaviors that are perceived by subordinates as being considerate and persuasive.
- (d) The satisfaction with varying degrees of leader delegation of authority did not vary as a function of the cadet subordinate locus-of-control.
- (e) Cadets are more satisfied with leaders who are perceived as being high in the delegation of responsibility and authority.
- . With regard to variables relating to the attractiveness of the military, it was found that:
 - (a) Cadets who withdrew from military programs possessed a low self-concept.
 - (b) Cadets who are most attracted to the military have a strong commitment to an occupational choice and a political and religious ideology and also are less concerned with future domestic issues such as choosing a spouse or having a family.
 - (c) Compared to civilians, cadets are more concerned with world matters, attainment of career objectives, and the future of the military. They also have less concern for personal domestic issues.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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A study of the present magnitude is dependent upon a number of individuals all of whom have input in some form or another. The project was conceived by Dr. Philip Worchel, who was the principal investigator. Dr. Richard W. Cravens was primarily responsible for the laboratory studies and Dr. Joseph A. Sgro was primarily responsible for the field studies and the completion of the present report. Dr. Sgro served as the principal investigator from June 1976 to the present because of Dr. Worchel's retirement from Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University. The graduate research assistants who had primary responsibility in the present project were James C. Gutmann, Edgar J. Nottingham, Joseph A. Orban, and Terry Don Phillips.

Finally, the investigators wish to acknowledge the effort of Mr. Anthony Uastelnovo who was the project monitor from the U.S. Army Research Institute for the Behavioral and Social Sciences. Mr. Castelnova's advice and encouragement throughout the project were invaluable to its completion.

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The present paper represents the final report of a project entitled "Unit Effectiveness and Leadership in a Changing Society." It was conducted by Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University under a grant awarded by the United States Army Research Institute for the Behavioral and Social Sciences. The research focused upon those conditions which were felt to be instrumental in determining differential reactions of individuals to varying patterns of leadership behavior and social dynamics of groups. Sufficient evidence has

been accumulated in recent years to document the changing values of our youth and the crisis confronting the military. Jacobson in 1972 noted:

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"Characteristically the armed forces have had their budgetary requests and their internal orders complied with. In recent years budgetary requests have been questioned and in some instances denied. Orders have been questioned and openly defied. We see men burning their draft cards, refusing induction, destroying combat ribbons and medals, and facing criminal indictment on a variety of charges.

Has the military "high command" lost its power over its personnel? Or have those whom they order recognized their own power and thereby operationalized the importance of what we have termed the dependent member?

Will men under combat conditions hesitate to obey an order as they weigh the moral components of a command? Will the longstanding power status differences that characterize rank be so diffused that privates will be able to exercise decisive power equal or exceeding that of ranking officers? Since it is not unlikely that a platoon could refuse to obey the orders of its leader and in so doing jeopardize lives, is it conceivable that incidents like this could accelerate to such an extent that they could sabotage national security? [p. 152-153]"

M. E. Wolfgang, director of research for the National Commission on the Causes and Prevention of Violence, reported that during 1967-1968 about 700,000 antiwar, antidraft protesters were involved in more than 170 demonstrations. During 1969, more than 100,000 students participated in 220 incidents. In the military where obedience to authority is one of the most valued norms, there have

been numerous indications of increasing AWOLs, resignations of career officers,

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fragging, protests and demonstrations by veteran groups, and refusal of troops

to obey superior officers in Vietnam. During a period of six months in 1972, 49,000 GIs deserted reflecting the highest desertion rate since WW II. Hersh (1972) quotes from a letter written by an army psychiatrist describing what was going on in his base in Vietnam.

"The army seems on the verge of collapse. The command structure is rapidly losing control of the troops both in minor aspects and in some very tragic large ones. This collapse is taking place in three distinct and related facets: drugs, disregard for authority, and violence."

Youth today refuse to equate authority with morality. Authority must empirically justify its decisions. Unquestioning obedience is no longer the prevalent virtue. Values that place emphasis upon undue regimentation or authoritarian behavior, as contrasted with cooperation and democratic principles are unacceptable as a basis for governing behavior (Fairweather, 1972). Lipset in a study of American student activism states that

"reference is frequently made to the idealism of youth, another factor motivating student activism. Societies teach youth to adhere in absolute terms to the basic values of the system, such as equality, honesty, democracy, socialism and the like. The real world, of course, deviates considerably from the ideal, and part of the process of maturation is to learn to compromise, to operate in a world of conflicting role and value demands. But youth views such compromises as violations of basic morality. As ε result, those events which point up the gap between ideals and reality stimulate them to action."

Although many observers had predicted that the mood of the American public San't BEREYTONNES would brighten considerably with the end of the Vietnam war, poll findings revealed that the public's outlook was actually growing more pessimistic. Survey evidence The Mail onal Cours saind on b suggested that the following were the important factors contributing to the growing pessimism regarding the future: Increased concern on the part of the public about the standards of honesty of the American people, widespread lack of faith in mathia terms 170 demonstration The factbener torat. key American institutions, declining confidence in the way the nation is being the safe valued corner, there governed, and frustration over national problems. The public's sense of frustrathe rest of the state of the tion was further compounded by a feeling of impotence, caused by their inability

the factors responsible for individual differences on the part of the leader

to influence legislation. Halberstam (1962) concluded that many Americans feel they can express their beliefs and identities, not so much in traditional political

terms, but through life-styles that dissent from the country's norms-by wearing their hair longer, by engaging in various forms of mysticism, by taking jobs

that have no functional value to society.

With a change in the values of a society, institutions need to re-examine their own structures and processes in order to avoid the strains that may arise from potential value conflicts. The viability of an institution depends to a considerable extent on the existence of an effective internal mechanism to deal with conflict. Rotter in his presidential address to the American Psychological

Association - Division of Personality and Social Psychology stated,

"At long last it seems that many thoughtful people have become aware that the strong value conflicts in our society can no longer be ignored and that radical change is necessary for survival. Many have also recognized that change in itself is not necessarily good and that change that will produce a better society must be controlled or planned,"

and later,

these forms of leader influences

"If our society is to be improved it will not come about because one group or another has seized or obtained power, but rather because social planners and people in power will have access to knowledge about how socially desirable traits or characteristics are developed and maintained, and will make use of that knowledge [1970, p. 443]."

The research was intended to provide the information needed to direct the course of most effective change. The investigations were aimed at the core of value conflict, namely, the use and misuse of power by leaders who are given authority. In addition, the nature of the motivational dynamics as it is related to group morale was examined. Landership was investigated from four perspectives: the forms of influence, the allocation of rewards and punishment, the personal movitation of the leader, and the delegation of responsibility and authority. The objectives of the program were not only on the derivation of general principles (since much has already been offered in this direction) but also on the factors responsible for individual differences on the part of the leader and subordinates for different patterns of leadership influence.

It was not the purpose of the present research to propose any radical out through life-styles that diseast from the country's norms-by weating changes in the power-structure of the military which would be next to impossible ercaging in various found of my staine, by taking jobs wei to implement. Rather it attempted to discover those conditions which would tend scale of surey Isportoout on a to enhance the legitimacy of military authority - that is, how can power be used a change in the values of a anciety, institutions need to re-examine most effectively? What forms of influence are preferred by different individuals outares and proceedes in order to avoid the straigs that pay arise in a leadership role? How effective are the forms of influence with different 6 01 showed not writent ne to wet inter ad statilizer outsy laid unit members in attaining organizational objectives and maintaining high group tensiderable extent on the existence of an effective internal mechanism to great morale?

The direction of the research effort was channeled into six major areas. The specific areas of investigation were: SECTION I - COERCIVE AND PERSUASIVE POWER: DETERMINANTS AND REACTIONS

An investigation of those personality and situational factors affecting the use of coercive and persuasive power and the reactions of members to the use of these forms of leader influence.

SECTION IL - SELF- VERSUS GROUP-ORIENTED LEADERSHIP

An investigation of the effect of differential patterns of reward allocation on subordinates who differ in level of moral development. SECTION III - INTERPERSONAL TRUST AND THE DELEGATION OF AUTHORITY

An investigation of the role of interpersonal trust in the delegation of a suthority. SECTION IV - THE ATTRACTIVENESS OF THE MILITARY ORGANIZATION

An investigation of those personal variables which relate to the attractiveness of the military organization as reltated to the adjustment of freshmen cadets to the military setting in the scademic community. SECTION V - INTRA CHOUP CONVLICT: INDIVIDUAL VERSUS UNIT OBJECTIVES

An investigation of the social dynamics which tend to produce intra-

group conflict

SECTION VI - VALUE CONFLICT AND THE LEGITIMACY OF AUTHORITY

An investigation of the relationships between usage of level of morally principled reasoning and respect for legitimete authority figures.

The present report is a delineation of each of the above six areas. Each presents the rationale, methodology, results, discussion and conclusions for

each area of investigation.

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SECTION I

CORRCIVE AND PERSUASIVE POWER :

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DETERMINANTS AND REACTIONS

The significance of power in the study of social interaction and group behavior cannot be underestimated. Russell wrote that "the fundamental concept in social science is Power, in the same sense in which Energy is the fundamental concept in physics." Cartwright (1959) contended that such concepts as influence, power, and authority must be considered in any adequate treatment of social interaction wherever it may take place. Despite the importance of power, Shostak (1964), after surveying the textbooks, collections of readings, and journals, ruefully concluded that neglect of power as an area of research is as much a dereliction of industrial psychologists as it is of union leaders and managers.

French defines leadership as "a member's ability to influence others both directly and indirectly by virtue of his position in the power structure, including the structure of legitimate authority [1956, p. 191]." Power of position, however, is to be distinguished from authority of leadership (Barnard, 1938). The success of any attempt to use power may depend upon the position a person occupies or upon his own <u>ability</u> independent of his position. Tewney (1931) defines power as the capacity of an individual to modify the behavior of other individuals or groups in the manner he desires. Cartwright, using a Lewinian framework, states that "power is a relation between two agents, O and P. It is concerned with the maximum influence which O can exert on P at a given time to change in a given direction [1959, p. 194]." Classically, power was conceived as force or coercion, and its use was viewed in terms of governmental control, revolution, military effectiveness, diplomacy, etc. Not surprisingly, then, the study of power was more the concern of political and military science than of social science until the 1930s. Russell proposed three processes of influence, two of which did not include the idea of physical force: by direct physical power, by rewards and punishments, and by influence of opinion.

The classic study of Lewin, Lippitt, and White (1939) considered three kinds of group lesdership--authoritarian, democratic, laissez-faire. Use of absolute power aroused much greater hostility, aggressiveness, loss of independence and initiative than did democratic or laissez-faire leadership. Wright (1943) reported that as greater cohesiveness develops in a group, the more its members will react negatively to power attempts that are intentionally frustrating. Similarly, Coch and French's study (1948) on attempts to produce deviation from a group's position showed that the more important a group is to an individual, the less effective such power attempts will be. These studies illustrate the importance of group attractiveness on the effectiveness of power.

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Power is not unilateral. Harsanyi (1962) postulated that, in any power attempt, the power holder will incur some cost in using his power, and therefore he must consider the cost of using it against the results he hopes to gain from the individual he wishes to influence. Exchange theory pointed to the importance of the cost-reward aspect of power. Thibaut and Kelley stated that "the power of A over B increases with A's ability to affect the quality of the outcomes attained by B [1959, p. 101]." The outcomes are, of course, assessed in terms of costs and rewards for the individual. Power is not úsable to the degree that its use penalizes the possessor, either directly or indirectly because of counterpower held by the other person. In other words, the other person is not powerless; he too may have numerous power resources which he chooses to use or not to use. Unfortunately, too many

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leaders and persons in management positions possessing considerable power by virtue of position or coercive resources overlook the potential counterpower of those in subordinate roles. Miller, Butler, & McMartin (1969) pointed to the limitations of punishment as a power resource. Use of greater amounts of punishment power elicit temporary acquiescence but also bring about a tendency for others to respond with punishing behavior.

Cr. Redally French and Raven (1959) have proposed five bases as reasons for B's acceptance of a power attempt: reward, coercive, referent, legitimate, and expert power. Reward power is based on B's conception that A can mediate rewards for him and will do so it he (B) exhibits the correct behavior. Coercive power is similar to reward power, except that the power holder is perceived by B to have the power to punish him (B) if he does not conform to the power attempt. The use of coercive power will tend to decrease the attraction of B to A. Studies by French, Morrison, and Levinger (1960) and by Raven and French (1959) have confirmed these operations of coercive power. Kipnis (1958) reported greater liking for the power agent using 影改备 178 Conne 188 1 reward power. Legitimate power is defined as follows: Legitimate power of allogit of incluse il poice it of O/P is the power that stems from internalized values in P which dictate that O has legitimate right to influence P and that P has an obligation to accept this influence. The bases of legitimate power are cultural values, acceptance of the social structure, and designation of 0 as a legitimate powerholder by some other legitimizing agent whom P accepts. It follows therefore that if the recipient of the power attempt does not accept the values inherent in the legitimizing process or rebels against the social al manager structure then he would tend to reject the power attempt of the agent desigerective the sealest comp nated as legitimate by the social institution.

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Which form of power is used by the leader of a group depends not only on the demands and structure of the organization, composition of the group, the urgency and nature of the mission but also on the personality of the leader and the needs of the group members. Thus Raven and Kruglanski (1970) proposed that the successful use of coercive power may serve to enhance the self-esteen of the leader. Also the use of coercive power may be influenced by the person's beliefs in his effectiveness or competency as a source of influence. Staub (1971) suggested that a high degree of confidence in ones abilities may be associated with a low need for the use of aggressive means to influence others. Goodstadt and Kipnis (1970) and Kipnis and Lane (1962) found that persons who lacked confidence in their ability to effectively influence others were more likely to employ coercive means of influence than individuals who expressed confidence in their ability to influence. Confident individuals were more apt to use persuasive means (giving encouragement, praise, admonishment). Goodstadt and Hjelle (1973) based their study of the use of power on social learning theory. According to this theory, internally controlled persons believe they are capable of controlling the occurrence of reinforcements while externally controlled persons believe that such reinforcements are determined by outside forces such as luck or the power of others. They found that in dealing with the problem worker, externally controlled subjects used significantly more courcive power than did internally controlled subjects. In addition, internals relied more on personal persuasive powers than did externals.

Two studies are reported in the present section and are of particular concern to the investigation of the manner in which subordinates reaction to the use of power. The first study was performed in the laboratory and was directed toward the role of locus-of-control as a personality variable which may moderate the reactions of a subordinate toward his leader's use

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of reward and coercive power together with the use of success or failure feedback. The second study was a field study which was conducted on two university compuses with military cadets. An examination was made of the relationships between the locus-of-control of the cadet leader and the cadet subordinate's reaction to the degree to which the cadet leader is perceived as using a coercive leadership style.

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COERCIVE AND PERSUASIVE POWER - DETERMINANTS AND REACTIONS:

A LABORATORY STUDY

rating, tothese incontainer that the

Two of the most significant factors determining the effectiveness of group behavior are (a) the locus of power and (b) the manner in which the powerholder exerts influence on the members of his group. Despite the numerous empirical and experimental studies demonstrating the limited effectiveness of any specific leadership behavior (Bass, 1960; Stogdill & Coons, 1957; Tannenbaum & Schmidt, 1958), theories still persist on the values of specific styles of leadership. Taking a broader view, Fiedler (1971), after demonstrating that leadership performances over different situations were uncorrelated, proposed a contingency model which argued that both leadership style and situations were important determinants of effective group behavior. Thus, most of the studies of leadership have focused directly on leadership behavior and/or situation and the effect of either or both on group effectiveness.

In contrast to the predominant view, Stogdill (1948) in his review of the leadership literature concluded that the personal characteristics of the leader should be relevant to the characteristics, activities, and goals of the followers. Sanford (1950) has also noted the importance of the reactions of group members:

"There is some justification for regarding the follower as the most crucial factor in any leadership event and for arguing that research directed at the follower will eventually yield a handsome payoff. Not only is it the follower who accepts or rejects leadership but it is the follower who perceives both the leader and situation and who reacts in terms of what he perceives. And what he perceives may be, to an important degree, a function of his own motivations, frames of reference and readiness (p. 4)."

Although few studies have dealt with individual differences in reactions of group members to leaders, such studies have demonstrated the significance

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of such personality variables as need for approval (McDavid, 1959; Moeller & Applezweig, 1957; Schroder & Hunt, 1958), need for individual security (Kelley & Thibaut, 1954), need for affiliation (Becker & Carroll, 1962), and self-confidence (Samelson, 1957) on the acceptance or rejection of power used by leaders. The present study deals with the reactions of followers to the exercise of reward and coercive power.

A central assertion of the present study is that power is manifested in the degree of constraint imposed on group members. The individual in the leadership position can set standards for quality and quantity of production, establish the procedures to be followed, determine the amounts and types of rewards or punishments to be distributed to group members, and who is to receive them. Power can be used to reward group members for behaving or coerce group members to behave in prescribed ways. The use of coercive power involves the threat of punishment and/or actual punishment for failure to conform to the leader's demands, whereas the use of reward power involves the offering of some valuable object or activity for conformance to the leader's demands (French & Raven, 1959). In the use of coercive power, an undesirable consequence is suffered if the group member fails to fulfill the leader's demands, whereas nothing other than avoidance of an aversive consequence is gained for conformity. With the use of reward power, a desirable consequence is gained if the group member fulfills the leader's demands, whereas nothing other than the omission of a desirable consequence is suffered for failure to conform. In other words, in coercive power much will be lost by not conforming, but no distinct improvement in the group member's future over present conditions will be gained by conforming; whereas in reward power no change in the group member's future over present condition will occur for failure to conform, while much will be gained for conforming. Under the assertion of

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the present study, the use of coercive power is much more constraining and restrictive than the use of reward power. The greater the constraints imposed by the leader, the less control the group members have over their own behavior. Thus, locus of control would seem to be a relevant personality variable in assessing reactions to the exercise of such power.

The locus of control refers to a generalized expectancy concerning the control of one's life and was derived from Rotter's social learning theory (Rotter, 1966). Individuals with an internal locus of control believe that the reinforcements they receive are contingent upon their own behavior, whereas individuals with an external locus of control believe that the reinforcements they receive are a matter of chance or luck. In general, it has been observed, as predicted, that internals are more active than externals in their attempts to control or manipulate the environment in an effective way (Gore & Rotter, 1963; James, Woodruff & Werner, 1965; MacDonald, 1970; Seeman & Evans, 1962; Straits & Sechrest, 1963; Strickland, 1965).

There are a number of studies which suggest that internals and externals should react differently to leaders' attempts to control behavior. One line of evidence comes from studies of verbal conditioning. Getter (1966), Strickland (1970), Jolley & Spielberger (1973) and Alegre & Murray (1974) have all demonstrated variations on the same theme that awareness of attempts to reinforce specified word classes is not related to internality-externality, but that among aware subjects, externals conditioned better than internals. Apparently, externals accepted the social reinforcement whereas internals resisted the social reinforcement attempts.

A second line of evidence comes from studies of persuasion. Ritchie and Phares (1969) demonstrated that externals were more susceptible to attitude change under persuasion attempts from a high prestige source than from a low

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prestige source, but that internals were influenced by the content of the communication rather than source prestige. Biondo and McDonald (1971) demonstrated that externals conformed to requested change under both low and high influence attempts where influence was manipulated by the strength of the statement of conclusion of a persuasive argument. Internals "were negatively influenced or showed reactance" to high influence but did not resist the low influence manipulation, yet they failed to conform. McGinnis and Ward (1974) studied attitude change as a function of source credibility and locus of control. They observed as did Ritchie and Phares that externals reacted more to a highly credible source than to a low credible source and that internals were not differentially affected by source credibility. However, they compared date across five cultures and found this relationship in American subjects only.

In contrast to these general conclusions about persuasibility and locus of control, Sherman (1973) showed that internals experienced greater attitude change when they were asked to engage in counterattitudinal behavior than did externals. This demonstration thus placed a limitation on the previous conclusions and suggested that internals are equally susceptible to influence attempts when the processes related to internal locus of control are used in the attitude change process.

With the exception of the strategy offered by Sherman (1973), the existing data suggest that externals will conform to direct attempts to control behavior through social reinforcement, but that internals would resist such attempts. Thus, these data generally suggest that internals might comply less readily with attempts by a leader to influence their behavior, whereas externals would readily comply. Consistent with these data, however, it may be further suggested that the type of leadership might differentially influence internals and externals. Externals might be amenable to strong attempts

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to control behavior, such as would be the case with the use of coercive power, whereas internals would likely resist such attempts. On the other hand, internals and externals might not react differently to less restrictive attempts to control behavior, such as would be the case with the use of reward power.

From the theoretical formulation of social learning theory, it seems reasonable to also expect a relationship between locus of control and success or failure feedback on task performance. The relationship is derived from the conception that internals believing that they can control outcomes should act to adjust performance to maximize rewards, and therefore, react positively to task related feedback of success or failure. Phares has suggested that

"an internal belief system should of course, lead to reactions of pride following success, or a variety of negative emotions following failure. In either case, the effects on subsequent achievement are likely to be positive. The belief system of an external, however, denies him either emotional experience, and thus provides him little basis for the pursuit of excellence (1973, p. 13)."

Indeed, Feather (1967) has shown that internals tend to adjust their aspirations upward after success and downward after failure to a greater extent than do externals. Both Pines & Julian (1972) and DuCette & Wolk (1973) have demonstrated that internals are attentive to task-related cues which provide inat acceleting of bisseles are contained in also formation about success and failure. However, Pines and Julian have addition-Alteors 601 automotion's save halagy and for an applied ally shown that externals may be equally attentive to social cues rather than while to statisticate of a store of a statist house the terms task-related cues. A striking confirmation of these differences was presenta service was a marked the -) .) to prove a ration no. (all that is all ed by Baron, Cowan, Ganz, and MacDonald (1974) who showed that internals learnand Sante Concer. Ling) and ware of sections at internals, while the ed to perform a form discrimination or concept attainment task better when paritusels, evan how jailans untilly versit of it is and the set of a set of the they discovered the outcome of their efforts for themselves (intrinsic reinstatistication of the internal were wind the state ANT CONTRACTOR forcement) than when they were rewarded by others (extrinsic reinforcement), Incontrolle , restained to be the terrest have the terrest dependent version and the set in the set of the set

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whereas externals performed better under extrinsic than intrinsic reinforcement. Thus, the literature generally suggests attentiveness of both internals and externals to cues in the work situation but with the internals being concerned with task-related cues and externals being concerned with social cues on performance. The question as to the effectiveness of success or failure related feedback in a group situation where the leader dispenses rewards (extrinsic reinforcement) would best be answered by arguing that externals should react by adjusting performance better and reacting more intensely to the leader's feedback than internals.

In the present study, internals and externals participated in a group setting to build paper airplanes under the direction of a group leader. The design of the experiment was a 2 x 2 x 2 between-groups design in which reactions of internals and externals to the uses of reward and coercive power were assessed with the use or nonuse of success-failure feedback being manipulated as the third variable. The predictions were, stated at a very general level, that internals would react more negatively to the use of constraining coercive power than externals and that externals would react more positively to the leader's feedback of success and failure than internals.

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<u>Subjects</u>. Ninety-six male volunteers were selected to participate in the experiment for extra credit in introductory psychology and for an opportunity to simultaneously work for a share of a six-dollar bonus. Fortyeight subjects scored 9 or lower (first tertile) on Rotter's Locus of Control Scale (Rotter, 1966) and were classified as internals, while the remaining 48 subjects scored 12 or higher (third tertile) and were classified as externals. Because four externals and one internal were eliminated from the experiment for failing to respond to all dependent variables, additional

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subjects were randomly eliminated from the experiment to provide equal numbers of subjects in all cells. Thus, data from 80 subjects were analyzed.

Apparatus and procedure. The subjects were assembled in groups of seven which were composed of three internals, three externals and one confederate. When each group was assembled, the experimenter read instructions to the group in which he told the subjects that the purpose of the study was to learn about patterns of leadership and communication in groups. The exercise was a paper airplane folding task (Kolb, Rubin, & McIntyre, 1971). He gave each subject a folder containing airplanes and modeled the folding procedure. Then, each subject folded his own plane for practice. The experimenter then suggested that a leader be selected by lot end passed a box containing slips of paper among the subjects. Although all slips contained the words "group member", the confederate professed to have a slip designated "leader."

After the leader was selected, the experimenter pointed to 6 visuallyisolated cubicles in which subjects were to work individually and sent the members to the oubicles. The experimenter seated the leader at the leader's desk and then continued the instructions. The subjects were told that the experiment was a simulation of an industrial problem and that the promised \$6.00 bonus did exist and would be distributed by the leader. The leader's task was described as being that of achieving quality production at a nearly uniform rate. The subjects were told that they would be building paper airplanes for four five-minute periods and that the leader would check theit "products" and provide them with instructions on what to do after each fiveminute period. The subjects were additionally told not to communicate with one another during the experiment. The experimenter answered all questions about procedure and then began the first five-minute period. After the first and each successing period, the subjects were given prearranged notes which

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were designed to induce the effects of power (reward or coercive) and of (success-failure feedback versus no feedback). The messages designed to coerce ADDUCTED A DATE OF THE OF al ballas an ensuited for the subjects read:

(1st period) Your airplanes show your inexperience at this task. Try to make your folds cleaner and your points sharper. Also increase your rate by 25% in the next period or I shall decrease your bonus by 20c.

(2nd period) I am not happy with your production quality. Increase your production by another 33% or I will reduce your bonus House .ne.27 by 30c. be the state of

(3rd period) We are ready for the last period. Our overall production rate is still below optimum. Increase your rate by another

25% or I will reduce your bonus by 50c. The messages designed to reward read:

(1st period) For your first period, you don't look too bad. I noticed some of your corners were not sharp, please try to improve this part of your work and make some of your folds cleaner. Also try to increase your rate of production by 25%. If beenhord a you can do this, I will give you 20¢ of the bonus for a transmission and the provident of the second and back and the second second NINHAM P.JA. starters.

一步攻之间,方言是他的

(2nd period) You are progressing both in quality and quantity toward the goal. But we still have improvements to make. Your next increase in quantity will be a 33% increase in rate of production. If you can succeed at this, I will give (大主义家) 化学学学校 the success of the state the second the en in man you 30¢ of the bonus.

ings south We are ready for the final adjustment period. This is (3rd period) the last chance I have to tell you what to do. We are the state sea

looking good, but we can do better. For the last period,

please try to increase your rate of production by another COTT AND ON ASTAL AP

25%. If you succeed in reaching this goal, I will give torse a bas, inspirages refronts to rebeal of crafts D. ME. COLLER you an additional 50c.

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The payoff for success was indicated after periods 2 and 3, respectively, there is not all expect to the webband format and her an appendix by prefacing the leadership messages with the following: . rolvand orosul so?

BAY TO A MORE TO A LO

"You did not lose 20¢, bu ... " and "You did not lose 30¢...." Coercive cault period, which had converted to the , bother duel 1.3 2.94 F # 13.3

"You earned the 20¢ and you are progressing ... " and "You Reward NULTE E TURNEL AND

> earned 30c..." and she expected by surjects to to used to determine

THE DISCOUT ONL Failure and loss of bonus were indicated by prefacing the messages after per-

iods 2 and 3, respectively, with: the role to reache the leader and the an

writers and

"You lost 20¢ and ... " and "You lost 30¢ ... " Coercive interest ed bloot releas 15.35

"You did not earn 20c, but..." and "You did not earn 30c..." Reward T JOSTAN & BI. INDEL SPI ALS:

When the last experimental production period was completed, the leader shount of near silocated to i

collected the last set of airplanes, prepared envelopes in which he placed individual of antiphia one dollar for each group member, deposited the data and envelopes with the ·母长、他们的一种情况。 AGE SEMANAN E

experimenter, and then left the room. While the leader was completing his is , auge . estimatio san

part of the experiment prior to leaving, the experimenter gave the subjects To charged only thusband a questionnaire in which the subjects responded to the following items.

STREPTS TO BUILDER 1. Would you be willing to work under your leader for another

in general, subject whether

No Yes experiment? matage putates seeds real (20 dec)

2. How much of the \$6.00 bonus would you give to the group leader ARTICLES A sait ofsies of each ask ask and portained 古いれ

and how much would you leave for the group members to share? will appre block it and the second of the second for the group members for the leader

manut 4 watering neerings hladw sees After the subjects completed the questionnaire, they were given the envelopes

containing the cash and were asked to sign a receipt for the money. en Tarbadanan The Reader

the all productions leader (pas the sector drivers and reading all and the parts the

Data from three dependent measures were evaluated. One measure was vote to 5.5 27-5227 ALTEN S retain the leader for another experiment, and a second measure was the amount of money subjects would allocate to the leader. Both of these variables were +128 W Thereta . A Hosto Total 11th primarily verbal report in the written format and had no specific implications for future behavior. The third variable was the number of airplanes built during east tea bib un? each period, which was converted to the number of successful compliances with auters: the leader's requests. It was strictly behavioral with no verbal components and was expected by subjects to be used to determine how much of the reward each and of and the of burder of an are the respective the solitat subject would receive.

The vote to retain the leader and the amount of money allocated to the leader would be expected to be related to each other. Although the vote to retain the leader is a direct measure of satisfaction with his behavior, the amount of money allocated to him is probably more complexly determined. In sa noize at asestours bets. addition to satisfaction, the amount of money allocated is probably affected by art dire much image has said add write over the subject's perception of the leader's contribution to the achievement of While the leader was conclosing als task objectives. Thus, while a relationship between vote and allocation is exthe expectionatest peop the being and pected, the degree of the relationship would not be so great as to rule out the sponova to rat fullowing frame, influence of other variables. The point-biserial correlation is .33 (p < .01). restors and resources In general, subject voting to retain a leader allocated more money to him 11日前の 11日日 11日 (X=\$.95) than those voting against the leader (X=\$.67).

A relationship between success on the task and vote to retain the leader might also be expected; i.e., it would seem likely that those who succeed on the task would express greater favor toward retaining a leader than would those who failed. Phi correlation coefficients were calculated between number of successful compliances with leaders demands (0-1 successes, 2-3 successes) and vote to retain the leader (yes, no). Collapsing across all conditions the phi

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baryow that add and i Results not so and both actively

coefficient was a nonsignificant .13 and collapsing across personality and power the phi coefficient was .19 for subjects given success-failure feedback and .07 for subjects not given success-failure feedback. Thus, no significant relationship between success and failure on the task and vote to retain the leader was observed. The number of votes to retain the leader as a function of number of successful compliances is shown in Table 1.1 .

Although success or failure (using the phi coefficient) was not related to the vote to retain the leader, it was still possible that number of successful compliances would be related to the amount of money allocated to the leader. However, the overall relationship between successes and allocation was very small with the point-biserial correlation of .01. The means for allocation of money was \$.88 for 0 to 1 successes and \$.87 for 2 to 3 successes.

An examination of these correlations suggests that data from the vote to retain the leader and allocation of money to the leader should be evaluated separately from the behavioral data on complaince with leader's requests. The first two could be loosely termed satisfaction with the leader, whereas number of successful compliances could be viewed as a performance variable.

<u>Satisfaction variables</u>. The first, general hypothesis predicted an interaction between power and locus control. Specifically, with regard to the satisfaction variables, it was predicted that internals would vote less frequently to retain a coercive leader and would allocate less money to him than externals. On the other hand, no specific differences in reactions of internals and externals to rewarding leaders were expected. Both internals and externals would be expected to be less satisfied with a coercive leader than with a rewarding one. Table 1.2 shows the frequency of "yes" and "no" votes to retain the leader as a function of feedback strategy, power, and locus of control. A chi-square test for independent samples for a three dimensional contingency table (Winer, 1962)

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The Number of Votes To Retain or Reject The Leader as a Function of Feedback Strategy and Number of Successes on Task Performance

Au exercise for these correlations suggests that data from the vare to relate the fooder and ulfocation of sensy to the loader checks be evaluated something the relational data on consisting with folder's requests. The first two could be invisely termed estisfection with the leader, whereas number of successful compliances route as viewed as a performance variable.

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was computed for power and locus of control collapsed across feedback strategy. A single four-way contingency table in which both the power and feedback strategy predictions could be evaluated simultaneously was not possible because 50% of the cells contained expected frequencies of less than five. A significant leadership by vote chi-square was observed $\binom{2}{(1)} = 10.91$, p < .001) in which subjects under reward power voted more frequently to retain their leader than did subjects under coercive power. The chi-square value for the predicted power by locus of control by vote interaction did not reach statistical reliability $\binom{2}{(1)} = 3.11$, p < .1). A summary table of the chi-square analysis is shown in Table 1.3.

The second, general hypothesis predicted an interaction between feedback strategy and locus of control. Specifically, with regard to the satisfaction variables, it was predicted that externals would vote more frequently to retain a leader who gave feedback and would allocate more money to him than would internals. On the other hand, no differences could be predicted between internals and externals under no feedback conditions. A chi-square test for independent samples for a three dimensional contingency table was computer for feedback strategy and locus control collapsed across power. The feedback strategy by locus of control interaction on votes was not significant $\binom{2}{(1)} = 3.15$, p < .1). A summary table of the chi-square analysis is shown in Table 1.4.

The second satisfaction variable, allocation of money to the leaders, could be evaluated by an ANOVA so that the effects of all three independent variables could be assessed in a single analysis. The mean allocations of money as a function of feedback strategy, power, and locus on control are shown in Table 1.5. A 2 x 2 x 2 between-subject analysis of the allocations revealed a main effect for power ($\underline{\mathbf{r}} = 4.87$, $\underline{df} = 1.72$, $\underline{\mathbf{p}} < .05$) and a Feedback Strategy x Locus of Control interaction ($\underline{\mathbf{r}} = 4.07$, $\underline{df} = 1.72$, $\underline{\mathbf{p}} < .05$). A summary of the analysis of variance is shown in Table 1.6. An inspection of the means for the power

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1346 The Number of Votes To Retain or Reject the Leader as a Function of Feedback Strategy, Power and Locus of Control - reput terminationthe block of the state of the state of the

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Vote and least of the set of a 250 Locus of Control ESAN ON SOL CONT. CA No Group 6 sales Internal No Feedback Coercive ada a provide the second and the second second External 4 deltad , Apple apple LEDS STEDIAH RD SALA BEAR AND MANAGER Internal Reward PARTURAL CONTRACTOR OF THE ADDRESS OF 10 0 External the state is we get to notto the satisfier and Internal Coercive after a constant of the state of the second of 1.1. Start External and the best birtup such and the the our another first in his Internal Reward the same states and the could be predicted receipt internals and say External

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Summary Table of the Three-Dimensional Chi-Square Analysis of Votes to Retain the Leader as a Function of Locus of Control and Power

Source	df Chi-Square
Total	4 14.60
Vote x Power	1 10.91**
Vote x Locus of Control	1 lovano.580 anona second
Power x Locus of Control	1 .00 test 0.1
Vote x Power x Locus of Control	1

111. 5 400

** p < .001

* <u>p</u> < .10

Summary Table of the Three-Dimensional Chi-Square Analysis of Votes to Retain the Leader as a Function of Feedback Strategy and Locus of Control

Source	and f	Chi-Square
Total	4	4.31
Vote by Feedback Strategy	1	.58 special a serie
Vote by Locus of Control	1	Local States is about a prof
Feedback Strategy by Locus of Control	1	Power without at one take
Vote by Feedback Strategy by Locus of Control	. 1 · · ·	6913000 to anod x tennol x and 3.15*

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*p < .10

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main effect indicated that rewarded subjects allocated more money to their leaders than did coerced subjects (\$.96 versus \$.80, respectively). An evaluation of the interaction using Duncan's New Multiple Range Test (Klugh, 1970) indicated that externals who received success-failure feedback would give less money to their leaders than would internals who received feedback and both the internals and externals who did not receive feedback (\$.68 versus \$.99, \$.92, \$.93, respectively). Thus, the differences observed in votes were supported by parallel differences in money allocated to the leaders for the main effect of power. An interaction for feedback strategy and locus of control was observed, but was not in the predicted direction.

<u>Performance variable</u>. With regard to the performance variable, the numbers of trials in which the subjects successfully fulfilled the leader's production demands, the first, general hypothesis would lead to the prediction that internals would achieve fewer successful compliances under a coercive leader than externals, whereas no differences would appear under a rewarding leader. The second, general hypothesis would lead to the prediction that externals would succeed more frequently under a leader who gave feedback than internals, but that no differences in compliance would exist under a leader who did not give feedback.

Because the leader's requests for increases in production were always stated in percentages of increase over the previous trial, it was necessary to determine whether all groups produced approximately the same number of planes in the first period. If they had not, it would be unreasonable to expect groups starting with a higher level of production to be able to as easily meet later percentage requirements than those who had lower initial production. A $2 \times 2 \times 2$ betweensubjects analysis of variance showed no reliable differences between the groups in initial rates of production. The number of trials in which the subjects successfully fulfilled the leaders' production demands are shown in Table 1.7.

- 27 -

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Allocation of Bonus Money (in dollars) to the Leader by Group Members natoral add 10 the shart work of the much an A The Base STARS IN No PROFILE as a Function of Feedback Strategy, Power and Locus of Control intain and and bloom some series southat exception his sond the converse and along to be that bes position? however one ground at block much saubrel state Internals Externals Power Feedback Strategy a strangers at a get a protect to, at starthes a wrangy ton that .85 .84 Coercive No Feedback , (al with sole to de the second abusered in water wire supported to the test 1.00 1.00 Reward at the second to an and the second the second the second the second the second the .66 .83 Coercive Feedback new and the reacted have largence is here and is have a source to the supposed of .70 1.15 Revard not in the real test discouled.

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and tool destucance areas added to Teble 1.6 say sands a new associate startants. pastene to avail of theory tot souther it induct ary of the Analysis of Variance of the Money Allocated to the Leader second widtang for new sider transpilling apa-ment signite 4 . Laster's is such studies the sector and an expected inconcercy of bear then fire. In Source Mean Square dback Strategy (FS) 1 sideriss vice and relations 0.16 1.29 1 14 - 1 -0 11 patrona standard frade at or (P) 0.60 4.87* merenevessassoon tol il passou exertisate torpated 10 0-1 successes 0.005 0.04 Locus of Control (IE) eradous tota at tope 162 end 3.69 0.45 that hoursend TS I IS I LAND ON THE ALLOS OUTS AN ALTING early heat burke 4.07* 0.50 ter readers. Porter and training and an article of the second LEQUER DE MOLE 法行法律 0.95 0.12 0.11 0.89 PS I P I IS Brror 72 0.12 Adda . testion by power an inclusion control contracts attacted a lanced at the inclusion *2 <.05 the seldering respect of the notice thereast of Letters resided to have at sites i in the facture condition, exected internals was lass abcompared than rewarded internals (faches's anges provide 1117 - . bo) and that eservois a terrals to taken is ender proceeding a ... 011.

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Chi-square analyses for a three-way contingency table were computed for the number of successes for power by locus of control and for feedback strategy by locus of control. A single four-way contingency table was not possible, because 50% of the cells contained an expected frequency of less than five. In both analyses, the only reliable effect was a Success by Locus of Control interaction $\binom{2}{(both \chi_{(1)})}$'s = 4.11, p < .05) in which internals compiled 27 0-1 successes versus 13 2-3 successes whereas externals compiled 18 0-1 successes versus 22 2-3 successes. The chi-square summary tables are shown in Tables 1.8 and 1.9.

Because the expected frequencies of some cells were too small to allow a four-way chi-square analysis, a separate evaluation was undertaken to determine whether an interaction between feedback strategy, power, and locus of control might have occurred on the number of successful compliances. Specifically, the feedback by power by locus of control cells were studied, because they represented the maximal application of the treatment variables which were hypothesized to have an effect. In the feedback condition, coerced internals were less successful than rewarded internals (Fisher's exact probability = .06) and than coerced externals (Fisher's exact probability = .03).

Discussion

The dependent measures of votes to retain the leader, allocation of money to the leader, and number of successful compliances with the leaders' demands were found to be only partially related. Specifically, it was observed that votes and allocation were related but that the number of successful compliances was unrelated to either of the other dependent variables. Thus, the nature of the relationship between successful performance on a task and measures designed to assess satisfaction with the performance of the group leader remains unclear. Apparently, subjects form definite reactions to their leaders based on factors

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Frequency of Successful Compliance with Leader Demands

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Foodback Strategy	Power	Locus of Control	0-1 Successes	2-3 Successes
No Feedback	Coercive	Internal	1	j
		External	5	5
373.98+1*3	Reward	Internal	6 ->>	a
and the		External	6	1-34°
Feedback	Coercive	Internal	201 9 25 (11 - 6	1.000
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or, .	Reward	Internal	V	1 28.5
		External	3	7

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Summary Table of the Three-Dimensional Chi-Square

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Analysis of Number of Successful

Compliances as a Function of

Power and Locus of Control

The states of		2002233		• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •
Source		1456 19301	df brown	Chi-Square
Total		ind a set of the	4	6.66
Successes by	Power	165 - 197	1 avreased	1.27
Successes by	Personali	ty francial	1 .	4.11*
Power by Per	sonality	in thousant	1 Disest	.00
Successes by by Personali		ientoin3	1	1.28

np < .05

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Sucrosses

Table 1.9 Summery Table of the Three-Dimensional Chi-Square Analysis

of Number of Successful Compliances as a Function of Feedback Strategy and Locus of Control

Source df Chi-Square Total 4 5.81 Successes by Feedback 1 .45

 Successes by Locus of Control
 1
 4.11*

 Feedback by Locus of Control
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 .00

 Successes by Feedback by
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 1.25

president deservation for the constitution of their and demands of the ladors condenoted to product or for the constitution of the constitue backet cate of production, the model constitution for them to the factor a demands. At evaluations of the summer of single are about to the fitter period before, any demands the single down a single are and the science of differences between the state thought and successed and the science of differences between the state thought and set and the science of differences between the state thought and set and the science of differences between the state thought and set are and the science of differences between the state thought and set are and the science of the science of the state of the state of the science of the science of differences between the state thought and state are a state of the objective of the science of the state of the state of the science of the scie

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other than the ability to successfully comply with the demands of the leader. Post hoc, the absence of such a relationship does not seem too surprising because many instances can be cited in teacher evaluation reports, politics, management, and in other areas in which some individuals who are not highly successful on task-related criteria still hold great respect for their leaders whereas others who are highly skilled and successful on agreed upon criteria of task performance are highly critical of their leaders. It appears, therefore, that it is necessary to discuss the results of the present experiment in two different contexts.

Performance variable. With regard to performance in terms of successful compliances, the internals achieved reliably fewer successes with their leaders' demands with no interaction with power or feedback strategy being evident. Thus, with regard to performance, it must be concluded internals were less responsive to the demands of their leaders than externals regardless of the form of power or feedback strategy used by the leader. Such results are consistent with those on persuasion and verbal conditioning (Getter, 1966; Strickland, 1970; Jolley & Spielberger, 1973; Alegre & Murray, 1974; Ritchie & Phares, 1969; Biondo & McDonald, 1971; McGinnies & Ward, 1974) which have shown that internals are more resistant to direct manipulation attempts than externals. One possible objection to this conclusion is that the demands of the leaders were stated in percentages of increases and that internals might have initially had a higher rate of production, thus making it harder for them to meet the leader's demands. An evaluation of the number of airplanes built in the first period before any demands were made showed that there were no statistically reliable differences between the eight groups of subjects making this objection not viable.

Consistent with the theoretical underpinnings of previous research on the

- 34 -

locus of control was the observation of the performance of internals and externals in the success-failure feedback condition. Under those circumstances where the manipulation of power was direct and the consequences of successful compliance or failure to comply were made known to the subjects by the group leader, internals who were coerced succeeded fewer times then coerced externals or rewarded internals. The results of this particular cell support the general hypotheses of the present study, because it was proposed that the use of coercive power would be most constraining and reacted to more strongly by internals than externals, and because it would be under the use of success and failure feedback that the constraint would be maximally comprehended by the subjects. Thus, based on subject's behavioral performance on the task, it may be concluded that internals react less favorably to overt manipulation by a group leader than externals, regardless of the nature of the leaders interactions, and that internals are particularly resistant to conforming when the leader operates in a way to maximally constrain the freedom of the subjects (i.e., by using success-failure feedback while using coercive power).....

<u>Satisfaction variables</u>. With regard to the subjects satisfaction with the leader as expressed in votes to retain him and monetary allocations to him, it was clear that the subjects were more favorably disposed to a rewarding than to a coercing leader, because they voted more frequently to retain him and they allocated more money to him. The hypothesis that internals would be less accepting of a coercive leader them externals and them rewarded internals was only marginally supported (p < .1) in the votes to retain the leader and was not supported in the allocations of the money. Thus, the predicted relationship between satisfaction of internals and externals to the use of reward and coercive power was not evident in any convincing manner.

The hypothesis that externals would be more satisfied by feedback from the

- 35 -

group leader was not supported in the vote to retain the leader. The unpredicted observation that externals who were given feedback allocated less money to their leaders than other subjects was puzzling. The reasons for this are not clear, but one possible reason is that the externals who were given success-failure feedback were accumulating enough successful compliances in comparison to internals receiving success-failure feedback that they were realistically calculating that their leaders could receive less reward if they assumed that other subjects were achieving the same way they were. Additionally, both internals and externals in the no feedback condition would have no basis upon which to calculate a distribution of rewards. This interpretation would provide support for the prediction of the present study that the feedback to reasonably determine aliocations of money to their leaders than did internals. However, the complete validity of this explanation could not be determined from the data of the present experiment.

Several general conclusions may be drawn based on the present study. First, information relating to group members' satisfaction with their group leader may not reliably reflect the group members' performances. Second, internals do not perform well under leaders' direction compared to externals, and internals perform at a particularly low level when they receive feedback while being coerced. However, the internals' votes to retain the leader and allocations of monay to him do not reflect this performance. Third, the relationship between feedback and personality is not clear, however, externals may have used their leaders' feedback more skillfully than internals in achieving greater numbers of successes and reasoned that if they had a large reward coming the leader must have less money coming.

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STUDY II COENCIVE AND PERSUASIVE POWER - DETERMINANTS AND REACTIONS: A FIELD STUDY

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The purpose of the field study reported in Study II was to examine the relationships which exist between cadet subordinate satisfaction and perceived leader behavior in an actual field setting. Two samples were used to accomplish the following:

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(1) From an empirical point-of-view, the first objective was to determine the nature of the relationship between Cadet Satisfaction and Perceived Leadership Style as measured on the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ). To this end, freshmen cadets were required to assess their cadet leaders on the LBDQ and regression equations were computed that showed the best combination of perceived leader dimensions for predicting cadet satisfaction.

(2) Within the rationale developed in the Introduction to the present section, it was of interest to examine within the field setting whether a relationship might exist between Cadet Satisfaction, Cadet Locus-of-Control, and Perceived Coercive Leadership Style. The predicted relationship was that freshmen cadets with low internal control would react iess negatively to coercive power than high internal cadets.

(3) Finally, the third objective was derived from social learning theory and again was concerned with the locus-of-control variable. The specific prediction being investigated was whether cadet leaders who were internally controlled would tend to rely more on a persuasive style of leadership than externally controlled cadet leaders. To this end, cadet leaders were required to complete the Rotter Locus-of-Control questionnaire and were evaluated on the LBDQ

by their cadet subordinates.

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Method

Samples

The samples were selected from two southern universities. The description of the samples are as follows:

<u>Sample A</u> - The Corps of Cadets consisted of one regiment which was composed of two "battalions" and a regimental band company. Each battalion consisted of three companies. Each company contained four platoons, and each platoon consisted of three squads. Within each squad, there were approximately 10 men who were lead by a cadet corporal. During the academic year 1974-75, each squad received a different cadet corporal every six weeks.

Sample A consisted of 311 freshmen cadets of whom 206 returned useable questionnaires. A total of 37 leaders were administered the questionnaires and 35 questionnaires were useable. (It should be mentioned that the sample size varied throughout various aspects of the study for both samples as a consequence of missing data which may have existed for certain portions of the instruments).

<u>Sample B</u> - The Corps of Cadets consisted of one regiment which was composed of: (a) one "battalion" of four companies; (b) one "group" of four squadrons; (c) one regimental band company; and (d) one women's squadron. Each of the four squadrons and four companies was commanded by a cadet captain. The cadet captain was directly responsible for approximately 40 cadets in his unit.

In the present study, questionnaires were distributed to 86 freshmen cadets and to the nine leaders. Of these questionnaires, 80 freshman and eight leaders (including the woman cadet captain) were useable.

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Instruments

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Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire. The Leader Behavior
 Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) was modified from its original 100 items
 to a 50-item questionnaire and yielded scales related to:

(a) <u>Persuasion</u> - whether the squad or company commander uses persuasion and argument effectively. These items included the following:

<u>Iten Number</u>	<u>Statement</u>
1.	He makes pep talks to stimulate the group.
6.	His arguments are convincing.
11.	He argues persuasively for his point of view.
16.	He is a very persuasive talker.
21.	He is skillful in an argument.
And winds have 34. cradings add en far	He is an inspiring talker.
39.	He persuades others that his ideas are to their advantage.
44. Tra and star thed of evidence start	He can inspire enthusiasm for a project.

(b) <u>Structure</u> - whether the squad or company commander clearly defines his own role and lets members of his unit know what is expected.

Items included are as follows:

Iten Number	Statement
terror and and and an area and the	
2. «Dillin de la	He lets group members know what is expected of them.
the prompt a hash despite the but	
7.	He encourages the use of uniform procedures.
12	He tries out his ideas in the group.
17.	He makes his attitudes clear to the group.
22.	He decides what shall be done and how it shall be done.
26.	He assigns group members to particular tasks.

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Item Number

30.

east with any reasonable

Statement

He makes sure that his part in the group is understood by the group members.

35. He schedules the work to be done.

40. He maintains definite standards of performance.

45. He asks that group members follow standard rules and regulations.

(c) <u>Freedom</u> - whether the squad or company commander allows tolerance

for the members of his group in initiative, decision and action. The

its arguments are conventing.

the structure of the second state of the second

items were:

THE ALL STREET

THE PLANDAUTORS DELIVER OF Party Spiceton Statement Item Number the first percentage the s Lt No. He allows members complete freedom in their 3. work. 8. He permits the members to use their own judgment in solving problems. ate could clil dealy blacks to be He encourages initiative in the group mem-13. bers. Costone a revie l'assisted subscription of 18. He lets the members do their work the way they think best. pier and the second second in the second second He assigns a task, then lets the members 23. the state of the state state handle it. He turns the members loose on a job, 27. and lets them go to it. He is reluctant to allow the members any 31. freedom of action. sou as peak which are done thing as He allows the group a high degree of ini-36. tiative. 41. He trusts the members to exercise good judgment. implify with an ientry nationally. And and He permits the group to set its own pace. 46. Tom proved see work and Llade surful ashingh

(d) Consideration - whether the squad or company commander has regard for the comfort, well-being, status, and contributions of the Angenings safe followers. the presence the price on hear its pre-Item Number the constant Statement 4. He is friendly and approachable. 9. He does little things to make it pleasant to be a member of the group. fore and to gradess of colled has galden actered of He puts suggestions made by the group 14. into operation. Summer and the second Themal Golf 19. He treats all group members as his equals. w numbers of hit quat which are response 24. He gives advance notice of changes. He keeps to himself. . saloub glodi des 32. He looks out for the personal welfare of group members. 37. He is willing to make changes. 42. He refuses to explain his actions. He acts without consulting the group. the bistory deadler the the trade of a phraster, maders where any (e) Production - whether the squad or company commander applies and bee listnool need other a an gettern pressure and is insistent on greater effort and goal-reaching. were released for not made in the the no port gest defendence Iten Number Statement er was co. to gatheral ration) monthly 5. . He insists on overtime duties when he feels it necessary. 10. He stresses being ahead of competing groups. He needles members for greater effort. 15. 20. He threatens members who are not keeping tama straße up with requirements. THE TYPE AND FORMAL BEAMERICAL AND F AND He insists that members do better work. 25. 29. He puts pressure on the members to work harder. stance and as assumed course the stear He permits the members to slack off in 33.

their work.

- 41 -

Iten Number 38. He drives hard when there is a job to

be done.

He pressures the group to beat its pre-Canada Tara vious record.

48. He criticizes members who are not working.

(f) Responsibility - whether the squad or company commander dele-

gates responsibility for decision making and duties to members of his unit.

AND DECEMBER OFFIC

Item Number

43.

Statement

49. He delegates authority to make decisions to members of his unit who are responsible for carrying out a task.

50.

3.

r Aller areas

He keeps careful check on how members carry out their duties. the service the part of the new

2. Coercive Leadership Style

In order to develop a measure of coercive leadership style, the 50-item questionnaire was given to both samples of freshmen cadets and a principal components factor analysis was performed on the data. The factor containing the highest loading for the item - "He threatens members who are not keeping up with requirements" (Item no. 20) - was then located and other and bin articlasia items also loading on the factor were identified. For inclusion in the scale, an item was required to have a minimum factor loading of .40 and to be at least twice as large as a loading on any other factor. The consequence of this criterion was a scale of Coercive Leadership Style composed of the following:

Iten Number Statement AND REPEATED BY LINE OF

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He allows the members complete freedom in their work.

He is friendly and approachable

He treats all group members as his equals. WE STARSON ORS ELEMENT OF

Item Number

31.

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Statement

He threatens members who are not keeping up with requirements.

Reported Arrange and Sta He is reluctant to allow the members any freedom of action.

3. Locus of Control Scale.

20. states I have states

Rotter's Internal-External Control scale was derived from a 29-item questionnaire which measured the extent to which the respondent felt that he was able to control or manipulate the contingencies of his environment. High scores reflected an individual who felt he had control over his environment. Low scores, on the other hand, reflected an individual whose locus of control was perceived to be dependent on external factors.

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All freshmen cadets completed the LBDQ based upon how they perceived their leader. In addition, all freshmen cadets and leaders were required to complete the Locus-of-Control scale. Criterion Measure

The criterion measure was the Leadership Satisfaction Index which was the Supervision Scale of the Job Descriptive Index developed by Patricia Cain Suith at Cornell University. Instead of evaluating - "supervision on the job", the freshman was asked to evaluate the squad leader or company commander by indicating the presence of each of the following 18 items.

1. Asks my advice 10. Tells me where I stand 2. Hard to please 11. Annoying 3. Impolite 12. Stubborn 4. Praises good work 13. Knows job well 5. Tactful 14. Bed somer & bran A performer 6. Influential 15. Intelligent 7. Up-to-date 16. Leaves me on my own Doesn't supervise enough 17. Lazy

18.

Around when needed

Quick tempered

(1) <u>Cadet Satisfaction as a function of Perceived Leadership Style</u> as measured on the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ)

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The means and standard deviations of the LBDQ and the Leadership Satisfaction Index for the two samples are given in Table 1.10. In addition the intercorrelated matrix for LBDQ and Leadership Satisfaction Index are presented in Table 1.11 for Sample A and Table 1.12 for Sample B. The multiple regression equations relating the LBDQ scales to Leadership Satisfaction for Sample A and Sample B are shown in Table 1.13.

From Table 1.13 it is apparent that the combination of predictors of leadership satisfaction in freshmen cadets for both samples were the scales of Consideration and Persuasion. Using a .05 level for inclusion into the equation, a backward multiple regression solution for the best combination of predictors yielded a R = .614 for Sample A and a R = .490 for Sample B. Interestingly, from Table 1.13, it may be seen that the magnitude of the betaweights revealed that Consideration was slightly more important than Persuasion in both samples.

(2) Cadet Satisfaction as a function of Cadet Locus-of-Control and

Perceived Coercive Leadership Style.

To assess whether freshmen cadets with low internal control would respond less negatively to coercive leadership style than high internal control cadets, analyses of variance were performed separately on the Satisfaction Index for Sample A and Sample B. The results of these analyses together with group means are presented in Tables 1.14 and 1.15 for Samples A and B, respectively.

The size of the Sample A allowed a 2 x 3 factorial design in which

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Results

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Means and Standard Deviations for the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) and the Leadership Satisfaction Index (LSI) for Sample A and Sample B Freshmen Cadets.

			Samp	le A (I	N=206)	Sample	в (N=8 0)
LBDQ		10		Mean	S.D.		Mean	S.D.
Persuasion			dire o	22.43	7.13		27.29	4.55
Structure		1		31.90	8.53		37.76	5.33
Freedom		25 -	·	31.07	7.25	· L.30	35.53	4.73
Consideration	•			32.00	7.30		36.99	6.22
Production	Riv.	. aller	14.	30.26	8.72	1	34.08	6.23
Responsibili	ty		10	5.83	1.38		6.18	1.06
LSI	A.1949		-	39.94	8.44	100 100 100 10	44.63	7.23
	22.	1014	. Kaha	49.4			SILT.	anticentia

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	Table 1.		del			
(on Descript	ional Matrix ion Questions ip Satisfact: Freshmen Cau	ion Ind	(LBDQ) lex (LS	and I) for	Lingen	
Sample B (V=80)	(aorma)	0	dars -	Htt		
tt Maan A Silver		Considerati	LL G	Responsibility		CBDO
and the state	Structure	bid	Production	uods	н	uolustellu?
31,26 5,15	Sci St	8	ž	2	ISI	Structure
Persuasion 1,00	.74 .47	.66	.57	23	. 52	indies ?
\$5.5 99.38		32.90			States and	Cossideration
Structure 0.40	1.00 .25	.42	.81	36	. 35	Production .
Treedon	8 1.00	.67	07	.25	.40	Papping Links
ELT CEAR	44.6	40.08				121
Consideration		1.00	.13	.00	.59	
Production			1.00	39	.16	
Responsibility				1.00	.00	

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Correlational Matrix of Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) and Leadership Satisfaction Index (LSI) for Sample B Freshman Cadets (N=80)

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			(at)	8	A alg	Ę		
	Persuasion	Structure	Freedom	Consideration	Production	Responsibil	151	н н Т 4 но.
Persuasion	1.00	.70	.45	8-1) .56	.56	19	·.43	
Structure	\$.	1.00	. 39	.41		5.10	.25	
Freedom			1.00	.75	.11	.13	.37	(44)
Consideration				1.00	.10	02	.44	
Production					1.00	28	.22	
Responsibility		a dan Ana				1.00	.10	

LSI

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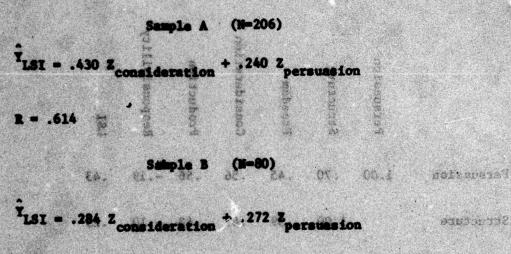
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Final Regression Equations and Multiple Correlations for Prediction of LSI from LEDQ Variables using Stepwise Regression Procedure with .05 significance Level for inclusion.



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Mana and Summary of Analysis of Variance Performed on LSI scores for

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der antis Series (CLN)	(5-15) Mindiana (16-19)	Low (20-25)
61) was "	(3-13) (31-12) (10-13)	(20=23)
Low (3-10)	39.10 42.72	41.78
High (11-21)	34.21 41.81	43.64

Source	55	a de la companya de	2014 2012	
Loc	50.10	-	NS 99.08 50.10	
NCO.T CLS	00.408 1256.23	2	628.12	10.69**
LOC x CLS	90.4 359.99	2	179.99	3.06*

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Means and Summary of Analysis of Variance Performed on LSI scores for Sample B Freshmen Cadets

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	(20-22)	natibeti (11-11) High	Coercive Leadership Styl (7-17)	e (CLS) Low (18-25)
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Source	SS	df	MS	r
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Brror	2281.68	43	53.06	10125

one independent variable was the Locus-of-Control Scale (high and low) and the other independent variable was Coercive Leadership Style (high, medium, and low). An analysis of variance performed on the Leadership Satisfaction Index scores (Table 1.14) reveals that the Coercive Leadership Style variable was statistically significant, $\underline{F}(2,165)=10.69$, $\underline{p}<.01$ as well as the Coercive Leadership Style X Locus-of-Control interaction, $\underline{F}(2,165)=3.06$, $\underline{p}<.05$. The Locus-of-Control variable was not found to be statistically reliable, $\underline{F}<1$.

To assess the Coercive Leadership Style X Locus-of-Control interaction, Scheffé tests were performed between cell means and indicated that the low locus-of-control eadets (internally controlled) showed no significant differences (p>.05) in level of satisfaction between leaders with low, medium, and high coercive styles. Furthermore, no significant differences were detected between the low and high locus-of-control levels at each level of the Coercive Leadership Style variable. It was found that high locus-of-control (externally controlled) cadets were significantly more satisfied with low coercive leaders than high coercive leaders (p<.01) or medium coercive leaders (p<.05).

The small size of the Sample B prohibited a similar 2 x 3 factorial design and consequently a 2 x 2 factorial design was applied to Sample B. One independent variable was the Locus-of-Control of the freshmen cadet (high and low) and the other variable was the Coercive Leadership Style (high and low). The results of an analysis of variance performed on the Leadership Satisfaction scores (Table 1.15) indicated that Sample B freshmen cadets, regardless of their Locus-of-Control level, were more satisfied with low coercive leaders than high coercive leaders, $\underline{Y}(1,43)=7.05$, $\underline{Y}<05$. The Locus-of-Control variable and the Locus-of-Control X Coercive Leadership Style interaction failed to achieve statistical reliability, $\underline{Y}<1$.

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one independent variable was the Loous-of-Control Scale (high and low) and the other independent variable as Coercive Leadership Style (high, medium, and low) an analysis of variance performed on the Leadership Satisfaction index scores (Table 1 14) reveals that the Coercive Leadership Style Satisfaction index scores (Table 1 14) reveals that the Coercive Leadership Style satisfaction index scores (Table 1 14) reveals that the Coercive Leadership Style strates was scores (Table 1 14) reveals that the Sourcive Leadership Style satisfaction index scores (Table 1 14) reveals that the Sourcive Leadership Style satisfaction index scores (Table 1 14) reveals that the Sourcive Leadership Style satisfaction index scores (Table 1 14) reveals that the Sourcive Leadership Style satisfaction index scores (Table 1 14) reveals that the Sourcive Leadership Style Style Steedership scores (Table 1 14) reveals that the Sourcive Leadership Style Style Steedership S

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inviduation for on the LBDQ scales and the LSI setured of asses of Scheité tasts were performed between cell means and indicated that the low insollingto on bowode (bolioitator vilantestor) Correlation (N=33) upol differences (pp.05) in level of satisfaction between leaders with low, medium, and high coescive styles. Furthermore, no significan electron were detected hereen the low and high locos-of-control levels at each Persuasion level of the Opercive Leadership Style variable. It vas found that high .00 Structure locus-of-control (externally controlled) cadets were significantly more Freedom (10.5g) stated with los coercive tolders bind high shereites (ge.01) 60.er addue coercire lexiers (pc.05). Production The small size of the Sample E prohibited a pintiar Istrophal & x 2

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ship Style Interaction failed to schieve statistical reliability, Tel.

(3). <u>Relationship of Leader Locus-of-Control to LEDQ as Perceived</u> by Freshmen Cadets

Table 1.16 presents the correlations of Leader Locus-of-Control scores with the scales of the LEDQ and also the Leadership Satisfaction Index for the Sample A. It should be mentioned that the scores for the scales of the LEDQ and Leadership Satisfaction Index were mean scores of the particular group which selected that leader for evaluation. The groups varied in size from N=1 to N=9. A total of 33 leaders were included. Because of the small sample of leaders in Sample B, that data was not included in this analysis.

It may be seen from Table 1.16 that the Locus-of-Control for the Leader was not significantly related to any of the LBDQ scales nor to the Leadership Satisfaction Index. The correlation of -.13 for the Persuasion Scale would cast doubt upon the prediction that the leaders who were high on internal control will tend to rely more on a persuasive style than low internal control leaders.

persurging and consideration are in preact but disc the mulity to adequately assess a problem and efficiently angenire implementation for its solution. The persacy of these instar splittles usphor be evaluated within the present ists and termin space arise.

 (2) Cadet Esthetection as a function of Cadet Loops-of-Control and Perceived Leadership Style

The prediction that trained cadnes with los internal cantrol would reast loss negatively to coursive power than bigh internal caders failed to be supported. The Sample A date indicate on the Sther band, that low internal colors are nore antibiled with los mercios arris theo with sidner reading with contained with high interval and as the theo with sidner reading

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(1) <u>Gadet Satisfaction as a function of Perceived Leadership Style</u> From the present data, it may be seen that the perceived leadership styles that were most instrumental in determining cadet satisfaction were Consideration and Persuasion. In casual interview with several cadets, this finding is not surprising. At military/college settings, the leader does not occupy a position which necessitates a great deal of planning, organization, and execution as would be the case in the military. The regulations and standard operating procedures within the Corps are well defined and a "good" leader is one "who stays off our back" and "lets us get our homework completed". He also doesn't "hassle us". In this spirit, the data are indicative of exactly what might be expected on a college campus.

A major question is whether these traits are sufficient to insure successful leadership in the actual military field setting. In conversation with retired military personnel, it has been remarked that the styles of persuasion and consideration are important but also the ability to adequately assess a problem and efficiently organize implementation for its solution. The potency of these latter abilities cannot be evaluated within the present data and remain speculative.

(2) <u>Cadet Satisfaction as a function of Cadet Locus-of-Control and</u> <u>Perceived Leadership Style</u>

The prediction that freshmen cadets with low internal control would react less negatively to coercive power than high internal cadets failed to be supported. The Sample A data indicate on the other hand, that low internal cadets are more satisfied with low coercive style than with either medium or high coercive style. With high internal cadets, the data indicate that

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the extent of perceived coercive leadership style does not affect their satisfaction level.

Sample B yield results which indicate that regardless of Locus-of-Control level, cadets are more satisfied with low coercive leadership style.

(3) Relationship of Leader Locus-of-Control to Perceived LBDQ by Freshmen Cadets

The data do not support the prediction that leaders who are high in internal control will tend to rely more on a persuasive style than low internal control leaders. The nature of the leadership structure in Sample B allows a leader only six weeks with a particular squadron. Under these conditions, it is likely that the locus-of-control of the leader would not enter into the nature of leadership style since the low internal control leader would not need to utilize coercive means for power control over such a short duration.

Based upon the results obtained from both the laboratory and field studies of the present section, certain conclusions may be made concerning the reactions of subordinates to the use of coercive and reward power and to different leadership styles.

(1) The laboratory study indicated that subjects were more favorably disposed toward a rewarding than a coercing leader. This finding is in agreement with the field study finding that cadets were generally more satisfied with leaders who were perceived as less coercive in leadership style.

(2) For the laboratory study, the locus-of-control of the subordinate was found to be related to the performance measure but not to the satisfaction measure. To this end, internals were less responsive to the demands of the leaders than externals.

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For the field study no differences in satisfaction were found between internals and externals. However, in one sample, externally controlled cadets were more satisfied with low coercive leaders than high or medium coercive leaders. In addition, internally controlled cadets failed to show differential satisfaction with various degrees of perceived coercive leadership.

In the other sample, the only significant finding was that regardless of the level of locus-of-control, cadet subordinates were more satisfied with low than high coercive leadership style.

(3) Finally, in considering those dimensions on the LBDQ which were most predictive of a cadet subordinate's satisfaction with leadership, the predominant areas were Persuasian and Consideration.

hased upon the results childing ifor both the reportatory and field studies of the prosent section, certain conclusions pay be made concercing the reactions of subordinates to the use of coercive and result oner and to different leadership styles.

(1) The Laboratory study maintained that subjects were note: "avorably disposed roward a sewarding than a contrine loader. This finding to in spreasent with the trate study finding that codets were receively more satisfied with leaders who ward arm.

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SECTION II BI S sease to power are values in their our right bider or right

SELF- VERSUS GROUP-ORIENTED LEADERSHIP dolida dadi to staladoo do erabito to absent of vilamistroo bes and over a settaites ellernearitant. McClelland (1970) in describing the "two faces of power" distinguishes 当在主动主动了山上 between the positive and negative uses of power. The positive use of power is bowiested at characterized by a concern for group goals in which power is exercised for the 14.94 St. benefit of group members. The negative use of power, on the other hand, is this store estil alayof le characterized by the manipulation of group members for the satisfaction of the 高小的资源 高沉守,安方于安于了古京的 leader's personal needs or desires. The negative use of power has occasionally 心心液 、と、白索をうる resulted in retaliation against the group leader by the group members; however, the more common consequences of negative uses of power are destructive though less estimation distant dramatic. For example, Worchel and his colleagues (1967) is a study of South Thread 1. Vietnamese peoples reported that unjust decisions and corruption by those in puluisinian was svilved authority were among the most important factors producing low commitment of the South Vietnamese to their government. Though it is obvious that the negative said a stand of the 行行者 化 经合合 uses of power can arouse resentment in the group members, little is known of the anties of all abust motors personality factors that predispose a leader to use power for self-gain. Additionally, respect to stadards th 的 的复数分子 little attention has been given to possible personality factors which might set discontia . wisto moderate reactions of group members to the negative uses of power. Thus, the TABLE AL THE SHIT 4.93 purpose of the present study was to evaluate the relationships between groupthis emprouch contrasts with the oriented and personalized uses of power and one personality factor, level of a jot seek or thange it). 爱情生 moral development (Kohlberg, 1958), which might influence the use of power by a lanting Izeroving 10 not leader and the reactions of group members to the uses of power. selt to solut bus sus The level of moral development as discussed by Kohlberg (1958, 1967, 1969b) -imposion-line Dity and

is an invariant sequence of reasoning on moral problems through which individuals pass. Stage 1 of moral development is the punishment and obedience orientation. The consequences of action determine the goodness and badness of the action, regardless of the meaning of these consequences. Avoidance of punishment and

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unquestioning deference to power are valued in their own right. Stage 2 is the instrumental relativist orientation. Right action consists of that which instrumentally satisfies one's own needs and occasionally the needs of others. At the conventional level, which includes the next two stages, meintaining the expectations of one's own family, group, or nation is perceived as valuable in its own right, regardless of immediate and obvious consequences. attitude is not only one of conformity, but also includes an attitude of loyalty. Emphasis is upon actively maintaining, supporting, and justifying the social order and identifying with the persons or group in it. In Stage 3, good behavior is that which pleases, helps, or is approved by others. Stage 4 is made up of law-and-order orientation. Here the orientation is toward authority, established rules, and the maintenance of the social order. Right behavior consists of doing one's duty, showing that one respects authority, and maintaining the social order because it is the given social order. The post-conventional, autonomous, or principled level comprises Stages 5 and 6. At Stage 5 (the social-contract-legalistic orientation), right action tends to be defined in relation to general individual rights and with respect to standards that have been critically examined and agreed upon by the whole society. Although the Same lesal point of view is accepted, the possibility of changing the law in light Xisti of what seems best for society is emphasized (this approach contrasts with the oren bits bestle th fourth stage, which accepts law as right and does not seek to change it). The highest stage of development, Stage 6, is the orientation of universal ethical **外南部** principles. What is morally right is defined not by laws and rules of the social order but by one's own conscience, in accordance with self-determined ethical principles. The stages are conceptualized to be similar to those of commitive development discussed by Plaget. The descriptions of the characteristics The woisequences of action decomposition the position and walked at the action to

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at some stages provides a basis for speculation that the level of moral development of an individual might determine his use of power or his reaction to the use of de tall to coneral. We will got find en 12 - 381 Garda power. For example, Kohlberg has described the Stage 2 individual as possessing this our and waryon 10 .somaleavould int the instrumental relativist orientation for whom (at a level of reasoning) "... to set at is not the the tensors the A CONTRACTOR right action consists of that which instrumentally satisfies one's own needs and This can be an important distinguise ater and the occasionally the needs of others. Human relations are viewed in terms like those of the market place. Elements of fairness, or reciprocity, and of equal sharing are present, but they are nearly always interpreted in a physical pragmatic way. Reciprocity is a matter of 'you scratch my back and I'll scratch yours,' not of loyalty, gratitude, or justice (Kohlberg, 1971, p 164)." In contrast, Kohlberg has described Stage 4 as the "law and order" orientation in which "... there is orientation toward authority, fixed rules, and the maintaining of social order. Right behavior consists of doing one's duty, showing respect for authority and maintaining the given social order for its own sake (Kohlberg, 1971, p 164)." The uses of such descriptions to predict behavior suggests that Stage 2 leaders would be more likely to use power in a personalized manner than Stage 4 leaders. On the other hand, given that a leader of a group represented a socially legitimate power figure, such descriptions suggest that Stage 4 group members would be less likely to react negatively to the personalized use of power by the group leader than would Stage 2 group members.

Elaboration of the moral development construct and experimental studies by several investigators have indicated that such a straightforward use of the stage descriptions does not result in accurate predictions of behavior (Rest, 1974). Rather the indications are that the relationships between moral development and behavior are both subtle and complex. A detailed reading of the theoretical

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literature of moral development reveals such comments as the following:

"Finally, what we are looking at is moral reasoning or moral judgment and not moral conduct, or conduct in general. We will not find out what a person would do in a certain circumstance but only what he <u>thinks he should</u> do in that circumstance. Of course the two things are related in one sense. But we all know that we do not always do what we should...What we are trying to get at is not the reasons why people do what they do but the reasons they think are moral for doing what they do. This can be an important distinction (Moral Education Project, Kohlberg and Turiel, 1971, p. 7)."

Also, "Kohlberg's framework does not require a relationship between moral reasoning and moral action. Theoretically, individuals at different stages can exhibit the same behaviors using different types of reasoning, whereas individuals at the same stage can exhibit different behaviors using the same type of reasoning (Kurtine & Grief, 1974, p. 459)."

Although any relationship between moral reasoning and moral action certainly cannot be direct, Kohlberg has indicated that a relationship between reasoning and action does exist. "The research cited in this section supports this contention, suggesting that reasoning and behavior are linked because mature moral action requires mature forms of moral thought as prerequisites. A particular kind of moral behavior becomes relevant only in the range of development where the child can have a reason or idea adequate to support moral action (Kohlberg & Turiel, 1971, p. 457)." Whereas psychologists typically prefer to predict task behavior from test behavior, other comments made by Kohlberg and Turiel indicate that it is easier to predict moral reasoning on tests from certain task behaviors. "That is, we cannot predict the later moral behavior of the adolescent who does cheat, but we can predict quite a lot about the moral behavior of the adolescent who does not cheat. The adolescent who consistently refrains from cheating on every available opportunity has acted upon mature moral judgment. In other words, he

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has assimilated reasons not to chest, indicating that he has reached an advanced level of morel maturity (Kohlberg & Turiel, 1971, p. 458)." Thus, both bases of predicting behavior using the moral development construct which have been another prediction discussed are uncertain and unwieldy procedures for predicting behavior. A key proposition of the present study is that there is a third alternative for predicting behavior using the moral development construct which has been implicitly present in previous discussions of moral development and which can be supported by evidence from previous studies. The central assertion of the present section is that the basic relationship between moral reasoning and behavior exists in the identity of the source of values to which an individual conforms. The postconventional or principled Stage 5 or Stage 6 individual as described by Kohlberg has internalized a set of values which are held to be valid and applicable in all times and places regardless of the prevailing conditions of specific situations or the presence or absence of socializing agents or authorities. The set of values articulated by a Stage 5 individual focuses on the society and the social contract as the reference for thought, whereas the Stage 6 individual articulates universal ethical principles as a reference for thought. The conventional Stage 3 or Stage 4 individual accepts the family, group, or nation as a reference for the articulation of values. The Stage 3 individual specifically is whither of faile of a norm when conventional expect demonstrates reasoning which focuses on approval from close others, where the erolicitly leaves the failt memorylad to a situation where super-Stage 4 individual focuses on the law of the land which must be upheld. Thus, not care whether cleating goes on, he also a sectors its possibility at the conventional level, a set of individuals can be identified who act as s'estevilles all mission should have but hid si ______ authorities or representatives of the institutions upon which values are centered, the authorities don't case and if otherwise and the In contrast, even though these institutions may be relatively abstract entities in themselves. fuvoiving maintaing an impiselt contract with the samit and reffects. that the general forequently or taking advantage implied by cheating is

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The preconventional Stage 1 or Stage 2 individual focuses upon culturally accepted norms of right and wrong, but construes moral action in terms of the consequences of action or in terms of the rewarding and punishing power of socializing agents. Thus, the reference for moral action for the preconventional individual is the very concrete presence or absence of rewarding and punishing agents.

In summary, the range of sources of reference for moral action is from the presence or absence of specific individuals who reward and punish (preconventional level) through the presence or absence of representatives of an institution (conventional level) to highly abstract principles which are internalized and which require no external agent at all for enforcing conformity (postconventional level). Thus, one can argue, as Kohlberg (1969b, pp. 386-397) has, that in cases where counternormative or unprincipled action is possible and no socializing agents are present (or are not attentive if they are present) only the postconventional subject will resist temptation or if counternormative or unprincipled action is demanded by an authority, then only the postconventional individual will refuse to obey the demand. The following citations from Kohlberg are illustrative of this point.

"As an example, in the ordinary experimental cheating situations, the critical issue is whether to follow the norm when conventional expectations of the adult and the group are not upheld. The experimenter explicitly leaves the child unsupervised in a situation where supervision is expected. Not only does the experimenter indicate he does not care whether cheating goes on, he almost suggests its possibility (since he mode cheating for his study). While the conventional child thinks 'cheating is bad' and cares about supporting the authority's expectations; he has no real reason not to cheat if he is tempted, if the authorities don't care and if others are doing it. In contrast, a principled (stage 5 or stage 6) subject defines the issue as one involving maintaining an implicit contract with the adult and reflects that the general inequality or taking advantage implied by cheating is

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still true regardless of the ambiguity of social expectations in the situation. As a result, it is not surprising to find that principled subjects are considerably less likely to cheat than conventional or premoral subjects (p. 395)." Later, when discussing an evaluation of the levels of moral reasoning of subjects in the Milgram study, Kohlberg notes that 75% of the stage 6 subjects refused to conform to the demands of the experimenter in comparison to only 13% of the remaining subjects and says "... when fear of authority leads to strong temptation to violate conventional rules against hurting others, conventional subjects will comply (1969, p. 396)."

Thus, the specific proposal of the present paper is that if the moral is remain commun development construct is truly a continuum, then the following hypotheses on to subject on conformity to authority may be made. Preconventional subjects would be most anne har set dans likely to violate norms if punishing agents were absent and would be most conforming if punishing agents were present. Conventional subjects would be less likely to violate norms in the absence of institutional representatives and somewhat less conforming to the demands of institutional representatives for LOTO SEC 31 the commission of counternormative behaviors when requested by a leader. Principled subjects would be least likely to violate norms either in the absence of or at the request of authority. An alternative but less discriminative proposal would be to dichotomize into postconventional versus conventional and preconventional subjects as Kohlberg seems to have done (see discussion above) and to argue that only postconventional subjects would be likely to resist temptation in the absence of socializing agents or would refuse to comply with counternormative demands of authority. Indeed, Saltzstein, Dismond, and Belenky (1972) have presented evidence which partially supports the present analysis. In a study of seventh grade students, Saltzstein et al found that Stage 3 subjects conformed most frequently, Stages 2 and 1 conformed next most frequently, and Stages 4, 5, and 6 conformed least frequently in an Asch-type conformity experiment.

In order to test the bases for predictions discussed in the present paper, an experiment was designed in which subjects' reactions to positive and negative uses of power were evaluated when the experimenter, as a socially accepted

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authority, was present and condoned the actions of the leader whom he had appointed. The predictions based on the application of Kohlberg's descriptions of moral reasoning ware that preconventional (stage 1 or 2) group members would react megatively to the personalized use of power, whereas conventional (stage 3 or 4) group members would be more accepting of authority-condoned personalized uses of power. Alternatively, the predictions based on the proposals of the present paper were that preconventional subjects would be most likely to accept counternormative or personalized use of power by the group leader, whereas conventional subjects would be less accepting of auch personalized uses of power.

An additional evaluation built into the experiment was designed to determine the degree to which preconventional and conventional leaders would use their power in a personal manner. Based on Kohlberg's descriptions of moral reasoning, it was predicted that preconventional leaders would be more likely than conventional leaders to use power to benefit themselves.

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The subjects were divided into the post body as the mean. Thus, one group

Design and rationale. If the relationship between moral development and behavior is based on conformity to external authority versus conformity to internalized standards, then many types of ethical and normative behaviors can be predicted from a knowledge of the level of moral development. The present study was designed to assess the conformity of leaders to the strong norms of equity and equality in American society and to test the reactions of group members varying in level of moral development to normative and counternormative leader-behavior.

A 2 x 2 between-subjects design was used in which low principled and moderately-principled subjects were given feedback that their group leader had either distributed a bonus equally among all group members, including himself, (normative behavior) or had kept more than half of the money for himself and distributed the remainder equally among the group members (a counternormative behavior). Additionally, the actual distribution of bonus money by the group leaders was evaluated, thus, allowing both group leaders and group members to be assessed simultaneously.

Subjects. Male introductory psychology students were given the Defining Issues Test (Rest, 1974) for extra credit. From the tested pool of subjects, 83 subjects were brought into the lab for participation in a small group problemsolving study. Subjects were promised both extra credit and a chance to earn part of a monetary bonus for their participation. Subjects were classified and assigned to specific treatment conditions on the basis of their "P" scores on the Defining Issues Test which represent the extent to which subjects emphasize principled reasoning characteristic of postconventional individuals. The mean principled scores of subjects who participated in the study was 25.1 with a standard deviation of 6.7. The range of the principled scores was from 8 to 43.

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The subjects were divided into two groups based on the mean. Thus, one group consisted of subjects with scores of 25 or lower and the second group consisted of subjects with scores of 26 or higher. These groups were designated lowprincipled and moderately-principled subjects, respectively, because the distribution of all subjects appeared to represent the lower one-half to two-thirds of the distributions which Rest (1974) has observed at midwestern and eastern universities.

Apparatus and procedure. The subjects reported to an experimental room which contained two tables placed together with seven chairs for the discussion phase of the experiment and six booths in which subjects received written feedback following the group discussion and in which they rated their leaders. The booths were constructed so that subjects could not see one another.

The subjects were assembled in groups of 5 or 7 which consisted of 3 or 4 subjects (subset 1) from one principled level and 2 or 3 subjects (subset 2) from the second principled level, respectively. Prior to the arrival of the subjects, the experimenter randomly selected one of the subjects in the Subset 1 to be the group lesder, and he also filled out bogus Bonus Distribution Sheets in which one half or two thirds of the subjects within each subset received information that the leader had distributed the bonus equally to all members including himself, whereas the remaining subjects received information that the leader had kept half of the bonus for himself and had distributed the remaining money

equally to all other group members.

When the subjects arrived at the experimental room, they were read the following instructions:

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experimenter handed out sheets describing the NASA problem, which is shown in Appendix 2.1. The experimenter then explained the problem and added the following instructions.] In order for this experiment to take on a more lifelike character in terms of potential consequences as made in business, industry, or government, we are adding a payoff or bonus of \$______00 which is intended to simulate consequences of real life decisions. [The bonus to be distributed was based on \$1.00 for each group member including the group leader. An appropriate figure was reported in the blank spaces.] It is the responsibility of your leader to keep the discussion orderly, to see that all group members have their chance to speak, and to make sure that the group reaches a consensus decision within the time limit of 20 minutes which has been set. At the end of this 20 minute period, your leader will make a decision as to how the \$_____00 bonus will be distributed among you and what part of the bonus he shall keep. Are there any questions?

The experimenter answered all procedural questions, recorded the time, and told the leader to begin.

When the group had reached a consensus decision or at the end of 20 minutes, assessed three ways. First, the subjects were asked how they you'd 学行为6月空 whichever came first, the experimenter took the leader to the experimenter's desk and gave him a number of Bonus Distribution Sheets (shown in Appendix 2.2) which disting the of the amount of the money saved by group members to the group lighters did not were separated by carbon paper. The experimenter explained to the leader and reveal a main effect of morel reasoning, but did reveal a main effect of leader to the group members that the leader was going to distribute the money by writing down his bonus assignments. The group members were placed in cubicles it the states of the second and were asked to wait until the leader had assigned the money. When the leader Find Josef completed his assignment of the money, he was escorted into the hallway where he Wrose leaders shered was asked to wait until the experimenter returned. The experimenter then went back to the room and replaced the leader's bonus distribution sheets with his own prearranged feedback. The experimenter gave his own sheets to the group members along with a Group Participation Questionnaire (shown in Appendix 2.3) and instructed LikT of minds are ganon the subjects that they could take the bonus distribution into account in evaluating the leader. The group members were additionally instructed to place an "L" (in question 2) before the name of the person they would most like to have as a a summary of the votes is shown is Table 7. . Several x2 tests for two independent group leader in a new group. When all group members had completed their evalua-San Asta postinged add of lasvelet enteringed as balled abas areas tions, the experimenter brought the leader back into the room, debriefed all of the subjects together and asked them not to tell others about the experiment.

The experimenter then gave each subject \$1.00 and had each sign a receipt for the money and let them go. Results

Distribution of money by the appointed group leaders. An evaluation of the money kept by the group leaders for themselves revealed that all leaders (n = 15) except two kept \$1.00 and gave \$1.00 to each of the group members. The exceptions were that one low-principled leader kept \$1.15 and one moderately-principled leader kept \$1.40. Thus, there were no reliable differences in personalized use of power as a function of the level of moral development of group leaders.

Reactions of the group members. The reactions of group members to the leaders were assessed three ways. First, the subjects were asked how they would distribute the money if they had been the leader. A 2 x 2 analysis of variance of the amount of the money given by group members to the group leaders did not THERE A FAST reveal a main effect of moral reasoning, but did reveal a main effect of leader's distribution (F = 4.37, df = 1, 64, p < .05) in which group members whose leader witting . kept half of the bonus gave more money to their leaders than did group members and have whose leaders shared equally. Additionally, a Moral Reasoning by Leader's een betelonoo Distribution interaction was observed ($\underline{F} = 5.13$, $\underline{df} = 1$, 64, $\underline{p} < .05$). An the os bakes dew evaluation of the interaction by Duncan's New Multiple Range Test indicated that 11 × 12.0 low-principled subjects whose leader kept half of the bonus gave their leader reliably more money than any other group. Means and standard deviations of the mounts of money are shown in Table 2.1.

A second assessment of reactions to the leader's behavior was made by observing whether subjects voted to keep the same leader again for a new problem. A summary of the votes is shown in Table 2.2. Several X² tests for two independent emples in which comparisons relevant to the hypotheses were made failed to reveal any reliable differences as a function of moral reasoning, leader's

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Table 2.1

Money Given to Group Leaders by Group Members

TRANS OF A LEAST	and distance	Leader Kept	Half	Leader Shared Equal1
w Principled Subjects		\$1.29 + .4	5	\$1.00 ± .00
vant New Louier	Toped	Marin Same		
derately Principled S	ubjects	\$1.07 ± .1	6	\$1.08 <u>+</u> .26
		E		tied ages report .

Monetace principles files apprind for bound 5 loader shared equality : 3



Table 2.2

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Summery of Votes For Leadership Stand

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	Para Colores	STREET, STREET	1220	in Decas	11 0 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1

f Leader Stared Equally	During A New Prob	lem
16. ± 00.15	CA. + PS. 10 Keep Same Le	ader <u>Want New Leader</u>
Low principled Leader kept half of bonus Leader shared equally		Moderately Frincipled Subjects
Moderately principled Leader dept half of bonu Leader shared equally	s 6 8	0=17 per call 11 9

distribution, or combination of the two variables.

A third evaluation of group member's reactions was undertaken by asking subjects to rank their fellow group members in order from the one with whom they would most like to work again to the one with whom they would least like to work again. A summary of the data with respect to ranking of the old leader is shown in Table 2.3 with the data dichotomized for the X^2 test to show whether the leader was ranked upper third or below the upper third. Several X^2 analyses were done with the only reliable difference being for leaders who kept half of the money to be ranked below the upper third more frequently than leaders who shared equally $(X^2_{(1)} = 6.07, p < .02)$.

Discussion

The tendency for group members to give money to their leaders when the bonus distribution sheets indicated that the leader had kept half of the bonus for himself than when he had shared the bonus equally with all group members indicated that both low and moderately principled subjects supported the negative or personalized use of power by a group leader when the group leader was an appointee of the experimenter who condoned the activity of the group leader. Although the group members whose leaders used power for personal gain supported their leaders by giving their leaders more money than did group members who were treated equitably, the group members in the two different conditions did not differ in the frequency with which they voted to keep the leaders for a new experiment. The group members who were treated inequitably did, however, place their leaders in the low two thirds of the rank order of preferred coworkers more frequently than did group members who were treated equitably. Thus, the data supported the hypotheses proposed in the analysis of the present paper as opposed to the predictions based on the descriptions of moral reasoning presented by Kohlberg (1971). The fact that low principled group members gave more money to their leaders who had kept

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Anthe we askers **Easking of Leader For Participation** and testers build A much draw and add more and in Allew Group more solid that that such a solid massi bluow yest mone draw and all of uses draw of add the or add blo add to gathers of leader the and all as a draw of add the or add blo add to gathers of leader the add the angle third Leader kept helf of bonus leader shared equally of saled to brid leader the add the angle add the code stabled add add add add add the angle the add the add the blo add the add to brid leader the add the add the add the leader here add add to brid leader the add the add the add the blo add the add the add the add the add the add the blo add the add the add the add the add the add the blo add the blo add the blo add the blo add the blo add the blo add the blo add the blo add the blo add the add the add the add the add the add the blo add the add the add the add the add the add the blo add the add the add the add the add the add the blo add the add the add the add the add the blo add the add the add the add the add the blo add the add the add the add the add the blo add the add the add the add the add the blo add the add the add the add the blo add the add the add the add the blo add the add the add the blo add the add the add the add the blo add the add the blo add the

Biscussion

The tendency for group nembers to give money to their leaders when the bonus distribution phenic indicated that the leader had bent half of the benue for minself than when be had anerad the some equality with all group dembers indicated that both low and mederately principied subjects supported the regative or personalized use of power by a wroup feader when the group leader was an appointed of the experimenter who condoned the minimum leader was an appointed the group memory whose leaders used nover for personal gain subperied their leaders by giving their feaders actor morey term did group members who were thread equivally, the group memory in the two distributions did mot differ to the fracture of the group memory in the two distributions did mot differ to the fracture the group memory in the two distributions did mot differ to the fracture with which they wored up keep (he fractures for a new synctroment. The proprieties

chards of the rank order of preferred conversion nears treparently than did proup manhers who were treated equificably. Thus, the sets supported the hydetheres proposed in the snalysis of the states: abev as support to the projecteres on the descriptions of notel ressoning organized by Kubluerg (1971). The fact they for principled group membersevies arows upper so that's test

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half of the money than did moderately principled subjects supported the usefulness of distinguishing between low, moderate, and high principled subjects rather than simply dichotomizing into unprincipled and principled subjects.

Although the data of the present experiment are consistent with and support MROY MOTORN the hypotheses proposed in this paper, it is clear that strong support for the proposals of this paper is yet lacking, because several implications of the mother ship on the lighted suffice of the mood. But to mathematica present analysis have yet to be tested. For example, it will be necessary to coint. During re-easts and Isadian, much of the equiption doard was damaged seek out highly principled subjects to be included in the experiments to confirm user be chosen for the 200 will be bright F. BYR MALES Prove the set of the that principled subjects do act independently of authority and do not conform as new salt sphill toning accounted of dreat of which they acknow a to the off easily to the negatively or personalized use of power as did moderate and low . Justing intering and the principled subjects. Additionally, it will be necessary to the test the prediction that if the experimenter does not condone the action of the leader or if the Box of materies group members themselves elect the leader, then neither the low or moderately "你们的我我的你的?" 許不能 principled subjects would accept the personalized use of power. It could further equi volvo lo inst Or be predicted and must be tested under the present proposal that low and moderately MILTO OBDATORTEY principled leaders might be much more likely to use the power for self-gain if Ther believe along were the experimenter as a legitimate power either encourages such use of power or atoriate entities ca. co places himself in a position where he would not learn about the leader's response. he tok this to the seaso but This latter possibility would be especially enhanced, it is predicted, if the the ended - U.L. 1 leader was also physically isolated from his group members. Such a situation is mainfiniteners a momenta let men set analogous to the chain of command of the military in which some military leaders make decisions for people they never see directly.

The purpose of the future studies will be to further test the implications of the analysis proposed in the present paper. Such progress is currently expected to occur through a redesigning of the proposed experiments remaining to be run as part of the current project, so that where possible the already existing predictions can be contrasted to the predictions of the present analysis.

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Appendix 2.1

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the hemotheses proposed in this paper, it is clear time alterna support for the

Instructions: You are a space crew originally scheduled to rendezvous with a mother ship on the lighted surface of the moon. Due to mechanical difficulties, however, your ship was forced to land at a spot some 200 miles from the rendezvous point. During re-entry and landing, much of the equipment aboard was damaged and, since survival depends on reaching the mother ship, the most critical items available must be chosen for the 200 mile trip. Below are listed the 15 items left intact and undamaged after landing. Your task is to rank order them in terms of their importance in allowing your crew to reach the rendezvous point. Place the number $\underline{1}$ by the most important item, the number $\underline{2}$ by the second most important, and so on through number $\underline{15}$, the least important.

principled environs. Additionally, fir will be necessary to the test the prediction that if the experiments does not continue the article of the leader or if the Box of matches neithar the low of moderately group monders themas lives elset the ladder, Food concentrate principled subjects would accept the personalized use of pewer. It could further 50 feet of nylon rope be predicted and must be togical wider the present propent int low ord moderately Parachute silk principled leaders might be much sore likely to use the power for self-gain if Portable heating unit the experimenter as a legitizate power sitter encourages and use of power or Two .45 calibre pistols places himself is a posibles where he would not learn about the feeder's response. One case dehydrated Pet milk This latter possibility would be especially solarcad. It is predicted. It the Tow 100 1b. tanks of oxygen el contracte a dans leaden your also physically included from his group members. Stellar map (of the moon's constellation) in which some whither leaders enalogous to the obain of correct of the allitary Life raft and socializes int people they never see directly Magnetic Compass The purpose of the future studies will be to further test the implications 5 gallons of water Such progress is courantly of the soulysis prepared to the present paper. Signal flares as printeness are prevented a reasting of the proposed experimence remaining to First aid kit containing injection needles be run as part of the cherent prefect, so that where passible the aiready existing Solar-powered FM receiver-transmitter productions and backgrantes to the st dections of the present analysis,

APPENDIX 2.2

Bomus Distribution Sheet

Please indicate how much of the \$_____ you wish to keep for yourself and how much you wish to give to each of the group members. 1. If you were responsible for dividing the bonus, how much would you give fonors and to redaper date or 2. fribasi) .1 12-1 3. 1 24 4. · [" .2 5. · + + for the next group pression, we may not he able to use all of the individwho participated with you in the present experiment. Please rank the peepers of your present group in order, such that the parame you list first is the use with whose you sould wont like to work again and the person you list leat is the one with when you would like to work anala. 1.11 dow important do you feel your contribution roothe present floor pas in comparison to that of other group menoare? Re contribution was more afant forst than that of other study the . attachment We deatribution to send to that of other group a in Tapelistents My contribution was less significant then that of others.

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APPENDIX 2.3

Group Participation Questionnaire

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Instructions: Please indicate your feelings about your group experience on the questions below.

- 1. If you were responsible for dividing the bonus, how much would you give to each member of the group?
 - 1. (leader) . 2. 3. 4.
 - 5. 6. 7.

1. 2. 3.

- 2. For the next group problem, we may not be able to use all of the individuals who participated with you in the present experiment. Please rank the members of your present group in order, such that the person you list first is the one with whom you would most like to work again and the person you list last is the one with whom you would least like to work again.
- 4.
 5.
 6.
 3. How important do you feel your contribution to the present group was in comparison to that of other group members?

My contribution was more significant than that of other group members.

My contribution was equal to that of other group acabers.

My contribution was less significant than that of others.

SECTION III

bohaviors are perceived differently by sabordinates. Mana (1974) in a study THE DELEGATION OF AUTHORITY ist addition as willed a AND RESPONSIBILITY at "collo yisy" semucial of t In any task-oriented group, the leader with or without the participation cervisors "know" the anoroprists answer but have of members (or of lower echelon units in hierarchiacal organizations) establishes plans for the achievament of objectives. The next step is to organize the responsibility to others is probably due to group in such a way that the tasks to be undertaken are accomplished at the least cost to the unit. If one man can do the job, then no organization is required. On the other hand, if a number of men are needed, then someone has to combine and relate all the members into an effective working team. Three basic relationships are involved in the process of organizing, namely, responsibility, authority, and accountability (Flippo, 1966). The leader's ability to develop these relationships often spells the difference between responsibility, 10s division the success and failure of a mission. The purpose of the experiments in the present section is to assess the significance of interpersonal trust on the part of the leader in the delegation of responsibility and authority. fulfilment. If one has "Responsibility is defined as the obligation to execute functions or work (Flippo, 1966, p. 121)." The source for assigning responsibility is the leader one of the seat commen or manager of the organization.' Delegation only allows for someone else to do villelenouser process the task; it does not relieve the leader of any portion of the original responsibility. Thus, delegation creates a risk for the leader. He is ultimately responsible for the outcome of an operation. As a result, some leaders avoid ton you hopeoil s the risk of refusing to assign responsibility and perform all the tasks themselves. Though the job may be considerable in lowered morale, spathy, and Un Tidlan even hostility reflected in such behaviors as obstructionism, sabotage, and withdrawal. Others believe that they assign responsibility but their actual

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behaviors are perceived differently by subordinates. Mann (1954) in a study of a large utility reported a frequency of 48 per cent from supervisors in the response "very often" in giving more responsibility as recognition for good work while the employees responded only with 10 per cent in the same category. Apparently supervisors "know" the appropriate answer but have difficulty in implementing their knowledge in practice. It is hypothesized that reluctance in delegating responsibility to others is probably due to the leader's distrust that others will do the job as well as he expects. The typical rationalization of such leaders is that "If you want the job dome well, do it yourself."

Along with responsibility, one must feel that he has the authority to beate relationships are involved in the or make decisions, to command, and to perform the required functions. As Flippo bos stinder, willichty, and suggests, "Since authority is a derivative of responsibility, its division spall to develop these should be along the same lines. This is made evident in a widely accepted the purcess and failure of a place basic guide, the concept of 'parity of responsibility and authority'. This proceed section is to assess the guide indicates that a delegation of responsibility should carry with it a of the leader in the delega commensurate amount of authority to allow for its fulfillment. If one has "Reboonstollar" an obligation and no legal justification for it, certain obvious difficulties (Flippo, 1965, p. d would ensue. The concept as stated is a truism. Yet one of the most common 10. 7898036 10 complaints of first-level supervisors is that they have more responsibility I Dect of than authority (1966, p. 127)." Reluctance to delegate authority is probably due, among other factors, to the fear of loss of power by the leader. Trust is also involved in the willingness to delegate authority. The leader may not have confidence in the ability of the members of his unit to make the "best" decisions. Also, subordinates differ in their readiness to accept responsibility.

which reals and the lies that they assimiltane but their and their but

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and authority and to participate in the decision-making process. Tannenbaum A LABORATORY (1954) fround that the orientation of about one-sixth of the employees involved has apabed that the cutter fairly of our day-co-de in the participative program of an experiment was toward dependent rather than searly ill of our decisions involve trues participative behavior, and these workers reacted adversely to the sudden 5 Stady Steen undant a privations to substantial increase in participation in decisions about their work. Vroom c's resected. Crust is viewed from the persection of angla (1960) reported that workers who were more authoritarian responded less favorhs withing tone to the ably to participation while those who had great "need for independence" reacted abbathat. trasisie asystan in lat a store and 自我的公式行 more favorably. Thus, an individual's response to an act by his supervisor

will be conditioned by the individual's personality, interpersonal skills, and expectations.

The studies reported in this section center upon the role which interpersonal trust plays in a leadership setting. Study I was a laboratory experiment which specifically investigates the relationship between interpersonal trust and the delegation of responsibility.

Study II was a field study performed with codet leaders and cadet subordinates in university settings. The basic questions which were investigated were:

(1) Will the cadet subordinate's satisfaction and perceptions of leader behavior be related to the interpersonal trust level of the cadet leader and/or the interpersonal trust level of the cadet subordinate?

(2) Will cadet satisfaction with cadet leaders vary as a function of the cadet subordinate's perception of the leader's delegation of freedom and respon-

sibility and the cadet's locus-of-control.

tend to believe that others will toiles through on there statements, even

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INTERPEASORAL TAUST AND DELECATION OF TEMPORELITITY:

INTERPERSONAL TRUST AND DELEGATION OF RESPONSIBILITY:

basiover assessments with he ult Rotter (1971) has stated that the entire fabric of our day-to-day living rests on trust in that nearly all of our decisions involve trusting someone, whether we are making a purchase, going to a doctor, or eating in a restaurant. In Rotter's research, trust is viewed from the perspective of social learning theory (Rotter, 1954) and is defined as "an expectancy held by an individual or a group that the work, promise, verbal or written statement of another individual or group can be relied upon (Rotter, 1967, p. 651)". A key concept in understanding interpersonal trust is the concept of expectancy. Expectancy has been defined as "a subjective probability or contingency held by the individual that any specific reinforcement or group of reinforcements will occur in any given situation or situations (Rotter, Chance, & Pahres, 1972, p. 24)". A distinction is made between generalized and specific expectancies. Specific expectancies refer to subjective probabilities produced by experiences in specific situations involving reinforcement, whereas generalized expectancies are subjective probabilities for the same or similar reinforcements to occur in other situations for the same or functionally related behavior. Generalized expectancies develop when one experiences repeated response-reinforcement contingencies in similar situations (Rotter, 1954). Generalized expectancies are the sole determinants of expectancy when an individual is placed in a novel situation (Schwarz, 1972). Thus, interpersonal trust is a generalized expectancy and asserts that high trusting individuals tend to believe that others will follow through on their statements, even though the others are not known to them.

In an effort to provide a method of studying individual differences in levels of interpersonal trust, Rotter (1967) developed a theoretically based measure of interpersonal trust called the Interpersonal Trust Scale (ITS).

STUDY I

Rotter sampled a wide variety of social objects in such a way that the high scoring or high trusting person was required to express a generalized trust of parents, friends, politicians, physicians, teachers, and others (Rotter, 1967). Since the publication of the ITS in 1967, there have been numerous research studies which have used the ITS in investigations of trust. Many of 11520 these studies have attempted to establish the validity of the scale (e.g., Fitzgerald, Pasewark, & Noah, 1970a, 1970b; Kaplan, 1973; Pasewark, Fitzgerald, Sawyer, & Fossey, 1973; Rotter, 1970; Sawyer, Pasewark, Davis, & Fitzgerald, 1973; Schlenker, Helm, & Tedeschi, 1973). Other studies have used the scale to investigate the relationship between trust and self-disclosure (e.g., MacDonald, Kessel, & Fuller, 1972; Vondracek & Marshall, 1971). Investigations of the relationship between interpersonal trust and belief in the Warren Commission Report (Hamsher, Geller, & Rotter, 1968) and the Walker Report on the democratic convention disorders (Lotsof & Grot, 1973) have also wishing been conducted. One study related interpersonal trust to students' attitudes toward colonialism (Alker, 1971). Other studies have compared levels of interpersonal trust of college students over a six-year period (Hochreich & Rotter, 1970), trust scores of college students and their parents (Katz & Rotter, 1969), trust and academic achievement (Massari & Rosenblum, 1972) and trust and two types of externals as measured by the Rotter (1966) Internal-External Locus of Control Scale (Hochreich, 1974). Still other studies have focused on trust and birth planning (Fischer, 1972), trust and altruism in college women (Walker & Mosher, 1970), trust and orientation to seeking professional help (Fischer & Turner, 1970), and trust and activism in black and white college students (Switkin & Gynther, 1974).

Although a large amount of research involving the Rotter Interpersonal Trust Scale has been generated in recent years, little of this research has related trust to interpersonal behaviors. It seems logical that if the ITS

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can be used to assess individual differences in trust and if these differences could be used to predict differential behavior patterns, then a useful tool would be available to both researchers and others who might need to predict behavior of individuals in industrial, business, social, or governmental organizations.

Specifically, interpersonal trust might be an important construct to consider when attempting to understand and predict the outcome of group processes. A survey of the literature on trust as a broader concept than as defined by Rotter does reveal that trust influences a wide range of communication behaviors which would, in turn, influence the group process. For example, high trusting has been associated with group accomplishment, group dynamics, and organizational change (Friedlander, 1970), cooperative behavior (Loomis, 1959), and efficient problem solving by a group (Zand, 1972). Recent studies have shown that low trusting is related to the distorting or withholding of information when passed from one individual to another (O'Reilly & Roberts, 1974), and to aspects of communication of messages in an organization (O'Reilly & Roberts, 1975).

If a group is task-oriented and has a leader, the task is usually accomplished by the establishment of objectives and the organization of the group for the most expedient completion of the group's task. If more than the leader is needed to complete the task, the process of organization will involve three basic relationships: responsibility, authority, and accountability. The group's effectiveness is related to the leader's ability to develop these relationships (Flippo, 1970, 1971). Thus, the manner in which the group leader delegates and the group members accept responsibility is an important element of the group process, and an investigation establishing the relationship between interpersonal trust and the leader's delegation of responsibility would be useful in predicting group success.

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In the psychological literature there is an abundance of articles which 9805090 . Depenses ad dag shollenlik second have dealt with both the theoretical implications of responsibility and the experimental investigations of the concept. Responsibility has been construed 10 01 STELTEROMON OF TAL 。除你们有你了它和自己又上心。"老师的说了自由有 as meaning causality, legal accountability, and moral accountability in these white white and procedures used are sensitive, it is processive previous studies. However, the concept of responsibility can also be viewed in other ways. In line with the preceding introduction, Flippo's definition the tradition to a strate on distance which in which the wahavior of responsibility as "the obligation to execute functions or work (Flippo, aubjects see he decurately predicted is bighty assirable. The use of 1970, p. 151)" was selected for this study. Under this definition, a relationputation of tragenderinness as one sell of the design of the present ship based on obligation between the group leader and group member is created me esublidue lie vd asignational shittens is polically and to: conclet anot when the group leader delegates responsibility to the group member. By such allowed a regilization of previously extalles work to demonstrate that the prov delegation of responsibility the group leader does not relieve himself/herself educe, as suppred, was potent. The design of the experiment was a 2 x 2 be of any portion of the original accountability but only allows for someone else erres solvents destruct in which high and low interpretents it use solvents were to assist by physically executing the task (Flippo, 1970). Thus, delegation reked to rate play a sentor partner to a law firm and yore to decide whethe of responsibility involves risk and implies trust. to delegate trees to remoters of their shalf or whether to step the found for The purpose of the Study I was to assess the relationship between themselves for intestightion. In the specific estectancy condition, informainterpersonal trust and the delegation of responsibility. The methodology tion was given about the treasportitions of the newbers of the staff and about used was adapted from that of earlier research of O'Reilly and Roberts (1974) the nations of the frame in the case. Is the ambiguous condition, neither inwho evaluated some of the processes by which information is selectively filconsistent and such and a their their their tolds not about the relationship tered before it is transmitted to others. One variable shown to be related of the trees to the case for given. It was predicted that subjects high it to the total amoung of information passed from one individual to another and interpersonal from would detegate more items to elast at air the amitguous to the types of information passed was trustworthiness of the individual to condition than would low interpersonal trust subjects and that as differences whom the information was to be passed. The passing of information may be would be observed netween the interpersonal trut groups in the angelik conviewed as the delegation, because in the O'Reilly and Roberts' method, subdicton. It was further predicted that all subjects, in the specific expectant jects were to be held accountable for outcomes of their group members' work en condition, would assign once frame to the staff member who was identified but were to pass information to group members who were to complete the job. as being crusteering than to be the staff seabor identified as having and The demonstration by O'Reilly and Roberts that the passing of information ernors of fudgiont is influenced by the trustworthiness of the person to receive the information allows for the design of a methodology in which reactions to both specific and Subjects. Male and fereis underinadiate students conciled in Psychology

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ambiguous situations can be assessed. This is particularly important because tops of responsion to anot STRA generalized expectances as conceived by Rotter are maximally operative under Rusponsibility has been construe ambiguous circumstances. However, in order to demonstrate that the experisecondard of white account and and account and the the these as meaning the rausel or mental materials and procedures used are sensitive, it is necessary to show the concept of recorded billity and allow be viewed provious atuates . Bowerer. that subjects across all groups can respond appropriately to differences in mains intrac cilca, Flensle datastria in other the treatments. Thus, a treatment condition in which the behavior of all da" na vast drauna Annestern acres areas 1-1-1-2-14 BAT FRIT. subjects can be accurately predicted is highly desirable. The use of mani-Unconsister definitions a deinglon-58 28W "112 傳行 sould a tot fatta 10001 pulation of trustworthiness as one cell of the design of the present experianto based as obligation betweed the store leader and grown member is organized ment allowed for the utilization of specific expectancies by all subjects and when the experileday delevated is second bility to the givin memory. By such allowed a replication of previously existing work to demonstrate that the prodelegation of responsibility the errory lasher does not relieve binant (betaeld cedure, as adapted, was potent. The design of the experiment was a 2 x 2 beante Accounts salves alte of any poteston of the eriginal appointant tween subjects design in which high and low interpersonal trust subjects were forth. Jonatif' Jack and entropy wilcoleved to assistat asked to role play a senior partner in a law firm and were to decide whether of responsibility involves risk and implies to to delegate items to members of their staff or whether to keep the items for themselves for investigation. In the specific expectancy condition, informa-. WOLT istarrersonal trust and the delegation of response The Laber Scar ash tion was given about the trustworthiness of the members of the staff and about used was thatted from that of earlier research of 0 builty and Roberts (1974) the nature of the items in the case. In the ambiguous condition, neither inwho evaluated acre of the processes by which information is scientively if formation about the staff other than their roles nor about the relationship tered before for in managined to others. Gos partable shown to be related of the items to the case was given. It was predicted that subjects high in to the total second of intermetion passed from and individual to coeffice and interpersonal trust would delegate more items to their staff in the ambiguous to the types of information passed was truste that and the individual to condition than would low interpersonal trust subjects and that no differences whom the information was to be passed. The passion of hidermation may be would be observed between the interpersonal trust groups in the specific conviewed as the delegation, because in the O'settic and monetly' method, subdition. It was further predicted that all subjects, in the specific expectanfacts were to be hald accounced a for entromes of their around manimus? was cy condition, would assign more items to the staff member who was identified but ware to pass information to group members who ways to consists the job. as being trustworthy than to be the staff member identified as having made The description by O'Beilly and Arberts that the passing of Information errors of judgment.

is influenced by the remainsrehistens of the person to receive the information

Method

Subjects. Male and female undergraduate students enrolled in Psychology

of Personality classes at Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University served as subjects. A total of 175 students completed the questionnaires used to create eight different treatment conditions, only two of which were relevant to the hypotheses of the present study. High trust subjects were identified as those whose trust scores were at or above the 70th percentile, whereas low trust subjects were those whose trust scores were at or below the 30th percentile. Using these criteria, ten high and ten low trust individuals were identified in each of the expectancy conditions. The mean interpersonal trust score of the 20 high trusters was 77.9 with a range of 20 (72 to 92), and the mean score of the 20 low trusters was 58.1 with a range of 21 (43 to 64).

Within the sample of 40 subjects, in the two treatment cells of the present study, 25 were females and 15 were males. The proportion of females to males was representative of the total class present on the day the study was conducted in each of the classes. The numbers of male and female subjects in the different treatment cells did not differ significantly.

Questionnaires and procedure. In the specific expectancy condition, information as to the relevance of the items for the case and as to the role and capabilities of the staff were given. To make the conditions of item relevancy as appropriate and realistic as possible, eighteen raters were used to categorize 60 initial items. Each rater was given specific instructions to code the item on dimensions which were clearly defined for the raters. Eight of the raters independently judged items on the basis of favorable and irrelevant, while ten raters independently judged items to be important, unimportant, or irrelevant. In order for an item to be included in a given classification, at least 70 percent of the raters had to agree on that classification. Also, for an item to be included as a separate category, the item could not overlap another category. Only 37 of the 60 items met these criteria. Samples of the items are shown in Table 3.1. Staff differentiation was achieved

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Sample of Items Which Could Be Delegated

To Staff With Classification

- I first came into contact with Mr. X in March 1960 at which time he was convicted of petty larceny (shoplifting) and placed on probation. (unfavorable item).
- On his first conviction of petty larceny, Mr. X was released to the custody of his parents. (unimportant item).
- Mr. X enjoyed playing softball and table tennis while at the detention center. (irrelevant item).
- 14. Hr. X was always polite, never made noise, and was always willing to help me or anyone else who needed help. I believed he would have done anything in the world for me. (favorable item).
- 20. I didn't hear Mr. X say anything for about ten minutes, but that other guy just kept on yelling almost as if he wanted Mr. X to say something so he could start a fight. (favorable-important item).
- 25. Mr. X was carrying something in his hand and it looked a lot like a knife. (unfavorable-important item).

the different creations beils did not differ algentication.

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tormation as to the preference of the items for the same and as to the role and expandifician of one scatt who sites. To make independentions of tems relguency as appropriate and residente as possible, sightren matches were used to estagorize 60 in the litems. Such reter was given used (in textremetions to role the litem on items. Such reter was faund as the internation of the role ite litem on items. Such reter was faund as the internation of the raters independently junged items on the instance in iternation of the raters independently junged items on the instance in a store chart within while was careers independently junged furses he he included in a store chart iteri, or its elevant. In other for an item to be included in a store chart filation at issue 20 percent of the raters had to aute an elevan come. Also, for an item to be included as a separate rater within the order of the test with the rater of the call iter of the rater of the rater of the included as a separate rater iter of the rater of the included as a separate rater.

Saughter of the stand of a pane is Table 2.1. Staff is the set of an and a staff is the stand at 1 and and

be identifying the role of a staff member and then by briefly describing this individual. One member was described as "a recent law school graduate who lacks experience." A second was described as "a legal aide who has been known to make errors of judgment." And the third was "a legal researcher who is highly skilled and competent." The legal researcher was the highly trustworthy character

for whom the predictions were made.

In the ambiguous condition, the items were given without the ratings of relevance or importance to the case. The staff were simply identified as a recent law school graduate, a legal aide, and a legal researcher.

At the beginning of the experimental session, the experimenter randomly distributed envelopes containing instructions, the experimental test booklet

containing the case history and 37 items, the California F Scale, the Interpersonal Trust Scale, and a semantic differential to the subjects. The subjects

were instructed to complete the materials in the order given in the envelopes. Thus, all subjects were unidentified to the experimenter by treatment condition

or personality when the study was run.

The experimental instructions informed the subjects of the importance of decision making processes in society. Since the legal system involves various types of decisions, the subject was asked to imagine that he/she was a senior

partner in a law firm. He/she was informed that the law firm had recently ob-

tained an interesting case and was asked to handle the case study. The subject was also informed that as with many law firms, he/she had a staff available to

whom various aspects of the case could be assigned for further investigation.

These aspects were the 37 items. The task of the subject was to decide which items, if any, should be investigated by the staff and which he/she should in-

himself/herself. The staff and items were identified with instructions appropriate to the treatment condition.

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After the subjects had completed the experiment, they were completely debriefed at which time all questions about the study were answered. lacks experience." A second tele described as "a legal aide who have been innom Results to make errors of jessions." And the child as "a least researcher and is highly The total number of items subjects delegated to others were analyzed in a Villed and comparedes' the least researcher the the highly brustworthy character 2 x 2 between-subjects ANOVA. A main effect of treatment expectancy was observed MARY MALL MOLLE 10 GOBGI STANDAR (F = 5.17, df = 1, 36, p < .025) in which more items were delegated to others In the articular condition, the frame same given willout the ratings of in the specific expectancy condition where staff and nature of items was identirelevance in importance to the case. The south rate simply idearbilited as a fied than in the ambiguous condition where nothing was identified. Neither a retracer faget a los obta legel a sighter locate and a second terester. main effect for personality nor an interaction were observed. Thus, the hypothto the beginning of the experiment seation, the esperimentar used or esis that high trusters would delegate more items than low trusters under amdetrioured everyopes and interior tourist gointerior page and baruchteld biguous condition was not confirmed. The means and standard deviations of the concatuing the case his net and 3/ times, "he California I Scale, the Incortotal numbers of items delegated and summary table of the analysis of variance personal Trust Shale, ind a semantic differential to the subjects. The subjects are shown in Tables 3.2 and 3.3, respectively. vere institucted to complete the material, in the other given in the envelopes. The assignment of items to individual staff members was also analysed in Thus, all subteets were unidentifies to the experimenter by treatment conducion order to evaluate the hypothesis that all subjects in the specific expectancy or perconditic when the study was run. condition would delegate more items to a trustworthy staff member than to an he experied matructions followed the subjects of the heportance of untrustworthy one. Because the assignment of an item to one staff member indecision adking processes in sociaty. Minos the legal system involves variant fluenced the assignment of that item to another staff member, an analysis of Types of decisions, the empired was maked to 1 mine was be and us a senior variance was not possible on this data. Therefore, the data were analyzed in partner in a law firm. Hef he was informed that the and fight inc recently ona three dimensional x contingency table (Winer, 1962) as frequencies of subtained an incluse the cost and and send to bandle the case study. The soipect jects who had delegated more items to the trustworthy than untrustworthy staff was also intof, ad that as with wary the "inter he also in a suit avettende to member or more items to the untrustworthy than to the trustworthy staff member. whose various aspectu of the testiould be assigned for further assestigation. A three-way interaction between expectancy condition, personality, and pattern these aspects ware the 3' tintr. The case of the subject was to decide while of vote was the only reliable effect (x (1) = 8.21, p < .01). Subsequent analysis of the specific expectancy condition revealed that high trusters delegated more Alexand Townsin a stuff and trans ware identified with in transitions appropriate items to the untrustworthy member than the trustworthy member whereas, low to the free rest wood then trusters delegated more items to the trustworthy member than the untrustworthy

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Table 3.2

Means and Standard Deviations of the standard

Total Numbers of Items Delegated of tot

i+eastly		goare	Neau S	15		Source
6.178	Ambig	22	.5" (ecific	in the	Expects
1, IG		mation pa	.0C II	formation ; and ition	Ove	rall.
2.33	Means	A CARLEN AND A CARLEN	, co Means		Means	SD
High Trusters	24.0	4.7	25.6	2.3	24.8	3.5
Low Trusters	19.7	7.6	26.4	4.0	23.1	5.8
Overall	21.9	6.2	26.0	3.2		

Table 3.3ºldat

Summary Table of the Analysis of Variance

For Total Numbers of Items Delegated

Source	df Mean Square			F-ratio			
Expectancy Trust 2800	227.202G		172.22 aucug Mass 30.63 solitaaisini solitaaisini		oini	6.17* 1.10	
Expectancy x Trust	1.08	ancoM	65.02	gs.	Means	2.33	
Error 8.45	36	25.6	27.91	4.7	24.0	High Trusters	
*** .025 CS	Q.A.	26.4		7,5	19.7	Low Trusters	
	3.2	26.0		5.8	21.9	ILETOV	

member (x (1) = 5.05, p < .05). A similar analysis to check the distribution in the ambiguous condition revealed no significant difference. Thus, contrary to prediction, personality influenced the delegation of responsibility in the specific expectancy condition. The frequencies of patterns of assignments to the legal researcher (trustworthy) and legal aide (not trustworthy) and a summary table of the three-dimensional χ analysis are shown in Tables 3.4 and 3.5, inged of respectively.

Discussion

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The results revealed a series of facts which had not been expected. First, high trust subjects did not delegate more responsibility in terms of numbers of items in the ambiguous condition than did low trusters. Thus, the hypothesis derived from social learning theory was not supported. Interestingly, subjects, regardless of personality, were more willing to delegate responsibility in the condition in which some information about the staff was known than in the no information condition.

The second and unexpected result was that interpersonal trust did moderate delegation of items to staff members in the specific expectancy condition. In this condition, low trusters performed as it was predicted that all subjects would perform, i.e., they delegated more responsibility to a trustworthy staff member than to an untrustworthy one; whereas, high trusters delegated more responsibility to an untrustworthy staff member than to a trustworthy one. Thus, it appears that one meaning of interpersonal trust as conceptualized by Rotter is not that the high truster risks more under ambiguous circumstances, but rather risks more when it is clear that one is dealing with an untrustworthy person.

The date bear an interesting correspondence to data of Garske (1975). Garske evaluated high and low trusters' cognitive complexity for positive and negative social stimuli and found that low trusters showed reliably greater cognitive

number (1 (1) = 5.05, g < .05). A similar ensity to check the distribution Visition , an Frequencies of Patterns of Assignment of Items abougidme and at ada al villidianogan Legal Researcher and Legal Aide anorrag noiselberg of specific expectancy condition. The frequencies of patierns of assignments to the substitution (trastworthy) and legal subugitant trastworthy) and a summary Condition Condition .C.E. bns + More ite More items y issoi More items More items to legal to legal to legal to legal

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researcher aide researcher aide (no information) (no information) (trustworthy) (untrustworthy) Discussion c High Trusters The results revealed a series of facts which had not been expected. First high trust and sets did not delegate more responsibility in terms of numbers of iters in the aphiguous condition than did iow trusters. Thus, the hypothesis derived from social issuance theory was not supported. Interestingly, subjects, resardless of personality, were nore willing to delegate responsibility in the condition in which seem information about the staff was known than in the no information condition.

The second and unexpected result was then interpersonal trust did mederate delegation of items to staff memory in the specific expectancy condition. In this condition, low trusters performed as it was predicted that all subjects would perform, 1.e., they delegated more responsibility to a trustionthy staff member than to an untrestworthy one; shareas, bigh trusters delegated more responsibility to an untrustworthy staff mether than to a trustworthy and. Thus, It espears that one seaning of interpersonal trust as conceptualized by Rotter is not that the high truster risks work under ambiguous dirematianes, but rather risks more each it is clear that one is dealing with an unitostworthy person.

the data hear an interesting correspondence to data of Carshe (1975). Garake costested high and low trusters' countiles complexity for positive and negative avitinged total and found that law clusters showed tallably greater regultive

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complexity for both positive and negatical stands, thus hadtesting that Summary Table of the Three-Dimensional Chi-Square Analysis of Patterns of Delegation of Item as a Function of Information and Interpersonal Trust was universarity and indicated that the possession of a high drusting expectancy aiso and vd bagasiled istrui era actionated and intro did 8.41 Information by Pattern Information by Trust and beleficated voula research of viences of Pattern by Trust and is encitibute tobut to would be attain inse instance to see Information by Pattern annugidats tabut, notatibern of variations, its to ten to starts sparting find as to sidelier bus becapitence as badiroach star aredeen judgerant, bigh investers defied common sense and delegated more iters to the person having ande previous errors than to the person described as reliable and trusteerthy. The date supported Gerske's (1975) confluence that low (rusting * p < .01 sight load to more adaptive behavior than high treating.

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complexity for both positive and negative social stimuli, thus indicating that low trusting expectancies might not be as maladaptive as they were once thought to be. The data of the present study substantiated this position by showing that high trusters failed to respond to statements indicating that a staff member was untrustworthy and indicated that the possession of a high trusting expectancy might easily lead to counterproductive behaviors. Thus, the positive social value attached to high trusting expectancies are further challenged by the data of the present study.

In summary, the present study demonstrated that the interpersonal trust construct best predicted behavior under conditions of specific expectancies and not at all, contrary to prediction, under ambiguous conditions. When staff members were described as experienced and reliable or as having made errors of judgment, high trusters defied common sense and delegated more items to the person having made previous errors than to the person described as reliable and trustworthy. The data supported Garske's (1975) conclusion that low trusting might lead to more adaptive behavior than high trusting.

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AND RESPONSIBILITY: A FIELD STUDY - PART I

Sati Cimpion one lafoes destilled streed On the basis that interpersonal trust is a generalized expectancy that the state in the second second in the should pervade a leader's behavior toward subordinates, Study II represented a 308. STRAINSOLVASIO field study designed to determine which of the perceived leader behavior dimensions ware used ware Persuasion of the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) would be related to the antamater of interpersonal trust of both college military cadet leaders and/or their cadet at there a fooder is subordinates. Using 43 cadet leaders and 153 freshmen cadets from two southern e Staticture state universities, it was expected that cadet leaders who were high in interpersonal 1941年4月 trust should be perceived by their subordinates as being more considerate and sard at tadw wood estenibro more tolerant of freedom than cadet leaders who were low in interpersonal trust. doing of service any val

Since it has been demonstrated that attitudes and perceptions toward leaders are determined not only by the personality characteristics of the leader but also the personality characteristics of the subordinates (Foa, 1957; Vroom, 1959), an additional aim of the study was to examine whether the subordinate's satisfaction and perceptions of the leader would be related to the interaction of leader interpersonal trust and subordinate interpersonal trust.

<u>Subjects</u>. The cadet subordinates were 153 college freshman enrolled in military cadet programs at two southern universities. The cadet leaders were enrolled in the same programs. Of an original sample of 293 freshmen cadets, 39 returned incomplete questionnaires and 101 were discarded because their cadet leaders failed to complete the questionnaires. Of an original sample of 58 cadet leaders, 43 returned usable questionnaires.

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Procedure. The cadet leaders and cadet subordinates were administered the

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Rotter Interpersonal Trust Scale (Rotter, 1967, 1971) which consisted of 40 statements, each rated for agreement on a 5 point graphic basis. According to Rotter, the scale reflects the degree of generalized trust that an individual

has in political, social, and economic institutions.

In addition to the trust scale, cadet subordinates were administered a modified version of the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LEDQ)

(Stogdill, 1973). The dimensions of the LBDQ which were used were Persuasion,

Initiating Structure, Freedom, Consideration, and Production. The Persuasion

scale consisted of 8 items which indicated the degree to which a leader is

perceived as using persuasion and argument effectively. The Structure scale consisted of 10 items which reflected the degree to which a leader is perceived as clearly defining his own role and letting subordinates know what is expected of them. The Freedom scale consisted of 10 items indicating the degree to which

leader is perceived as allowing freedom of initiative, decision and action. The Consideration dimension was a 10 item scale that indicated the degree to which leaders are perceived as having regard for the comfort, well-being, status, and contributions of their subordinates. Finally Production consisted of 10 items indicating the degree to which the cadet leader applies pressure and is insistent on greater effort and goal-reaching.

The cadet subordinates also indicated the level of satisfaction with their leaders by completing the Supervision Scale of the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) obtained from Patricia Gain Smith of Bowling Green University. Instead of evaluating "supervision on the job", the cadet subordinates were asked to evaluate their cadet leader. The JDI scale required that the cadet subordinates rate the leader on an 18 item adjective check-list.

The experimental design consisted of a 3 x 3 factorial in which leader interpersonal trust (low, medium, high) was combined with subordinate interpersonal

trust (low, medium, high). The cut-off scores for defining the levels of interpersonal trust were: low (L) trust (42-64), medium (M) trust (65-72), and high (H) trust (73-97).

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The factorial arrangement resulted in nine groups of cadet subordinates which rated their leaders on the six response measures. Along with sample size, in parenthesis, these groups were designated LL-LS (15), LL-MS (13), LL-HS (15), ML-LS (15), ML-MS (14), ML-HS (20), HL-LS (10), HL-MS (16), and HL-HS (35) in which the first pair of letters referred to the level of leader (L) trust and the second pair of letters referred to the levels of subordinates (S) trust.

Results

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The means for the six LBDQ measures across the nine groups are given in Table 3.6. A multivariate analysis of variance performed over the six measures revealed that: (a) cadet leader trust was statistically significant, Hotelling-Lawley Trace = .247, F(12, 276) = 2.84, p < .01; (b) cadet subordinate trust failed to achieve statistical significance, Hotelling-Lawley Trace = .069, F < 1; and (c) the Gadet Leader Trust x Gadet Subordinate Trust interaction was significant beyond the .05 level, Hotelling-Lawley Trace = .289, F(24, 550) =

GE SS

To assess the significant interaction, univariate tests were performed on each response measure. The significant results of these analysis were that: (a) leaders who were high or medium in interpersonal trust were perceived to be more persuasive than leaders who were low in trust (p < .05); (b) leaders who STEER MOTISTODIENCE were high on trust were perceived to allow more freedom than leaders who were either medium or low in trust (p < .05); (c) leaders who were high in trust were perceived to be more considerate than leaders who were either medium or low in trust: and (d) cader subordinates were more satisfied with leaders who were high the second of the second in trust than leaders who were low in trust. 1510 S. de

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-ranging as also at an Mean scores for LEDQ dimensions as (, milber , Wol) leut Here has . (S function of Leader and Subordinate Interpersonal Trust : Interpersonal Tru

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(II) trust (73-97).

The factorial arrangement resulted in nine groups of cadet subardinesses; which rated their leaders on the six response measures. Along with sample stars, Mean Structure Score were groups were designation al

(21) On-dJ ((C1) 23-11 . Leader Interpersonal Trust

ML-LS (15), ML-MB (14), ML-MS (20), HL-LS (10), EL-MS (16), and HL-HS (35) 15

191	me seare (1) rol	Low (42-64)	Medium (65-73)	High (73-97)	Total
la	Low (42-64)	23.80	24.30	23.80	23.97
120	Medium (65-72)	19.47	29.07	25.35	24.63
rpe	High (73-97)	26.90	26.69	27.17	26.92
ate 1	Total	23.39	26.69	25.44	25.17

The means for the gir CBUO measures accoss the mine groups are given in

Table 3.6. A multivariate scalysis of variance performed over the six measures revealed that: (a) cadat leador trust was statistically significant, Scielling-

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fulled to additive statistical significance, Notelling-Lawley Trace * .069.

	es	Net interaction	Low (42-64)	Medium (65-73)	High (73-97)	Total
2		Low (42-64)	18.13	22.54	20.25.53 moved	22.07 agts
In		Medium (65-72)	20.87	20.64	25.45	22.32
ord	ord	High (73-97)	21.30	23.19	23.66	22.72
Sub		Total dirst stat	elee 20.1 I mul		24.88 di 28	22.37

each response measure. The statificant results of these antivals were that; (a) leaders who were high or gedium in interperangel truet were perceiven to be sore persuasive that leaders who were how in trust to < .03); (b) leaders who Mean Consideration Score

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		Low (42-64)	Medium (65-73)	High (73-97)	Total
	Low (42-64)	1903 17.80 Ook	21.38	26.13	21.77
ine ine	Medium (65-72)	20.60	22.14	27.95 000 (5	23.56
ord	High (73-97)	23.60	23.06	25.09	23.92
Sub	Total	20.67	22.19	26.39	23.08
	the second s	and the second second second		And the second	

Table 3.6 (cont.)

Mean scores for LDDQ dimensions as function of Leader and Subordinate Interpersonal Trust bassacquaint and at immediately indicate and redd galbard and an immediate bassacture and (def) regained a statistical and redd galbard and a statistical and in Statistical and at immediately and the statistical and the statistical and he statistical and the statistical and the statistical and the statistical and he statistical and the statistical and the statistical and the statistical and he statistical and the statistical and the statistical and the statistical and he statistical and the statistical and the statistical and the statistical and he statistical and the statistical and the statistical and the statistical and he statistical and the statistical and the statistical and the statistical and he statistical and the statistical and the statistical and the statistical and he statistical and the statistical and the statistical and the statistical and he statistical and the statistical and the statistical and the statistical and he statistical and the statistical and the statistical and the statistical and he statistical and the statistical and the statistical and the statistical and he statistical and the statistical and the statistical and the statistical and he statistical and the statistical and the statistical and the statistical and he statistical and the statistical and the statistical and the statistical and he statistical and the statistical

and a second	Low (42-64)	Medium (65-73)	High (73-97)	Tota
Low (42-64)	23.07	21.38	20.13	21.5
Medium (65-72)	20.40	25.50	21.20	22.3
High (73-97)	22.60	24.19	23.51	23.4
Total	22.02	23.69	21.61	22.4

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Mean Satisfaction with Leadership (LSI) Leader Interpersonal Trust

	Low (42-64)	Medium (65-73)	High (73-97)	Total
Low (42-64)	37.33	38.15	43.47	39.65
Medium (65-72)	39.07	41.57	45.00	41.88
High (73-97)	40.20	43.88	42.85	42.31
Total	38.87	41.2	43.77	41.28

Mean Persuasion Score Leader Interpersonal Trust

		Low (42-64)	Medium (65-73)	High (73-97)	Total
	Low (42-64)	14.80	14.08	16.27	15.05
	Hedium (65-72)	13.20	19.50	17.90	16.87
	High (73-97)	15.70	19.19	17.43	17.44
F	Total	14.57	17.59	17.2	16.45

- 99 -

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The data indicate quite clearly that interpersonal trust serves as a factor in the communication process between cadet leaders and their subordinates. Most important was the finding that the critical determinant is the interpersonal trust of the leader and <u>not</u> the subordinate. Mellinger (1956) has indicated in laboratory settings that a communicator who lacks trust in the recipient of the communication tends to conceal attitudes concerning the communication. In this manner, the accuracy of the recipient's perceptions are impaired.

The present data reveal that cadet subordinates perceive cadet leaders who are low in interpersonal trust as being less persuasive, less considerate, and tolerating less freedom than cadet leaders who were high in interpersonal trust. In addition, cadet subordinates were less satisfied with cadet leaders who were

low in interpersonal trust.

Mace Satisfection with Leadership (181) Leader Interpresent Firms

INT J	<u>16-50 /828</u>	<u>Median (65-23)</u>	(42-52) vol	Low (42-54)	
20.22	63.47	and the second second	EL.EL	Medtan (65-72)	
80.14	00.55	41.57	10.26		
11.54	28.50	N9.67	02.04	(fe-61) datif	2.4
85.14	15.60	5.14	18.81	Total	

Haan Persuantun Scorg Lauder Lotrigeronal Treat

and the second	19-86) an (19-19)		(4.84 (4.14) 40.2)	
15.02	SE.44	50,41	38,45	17 1 Low (+2-94)
(8. at.]	P\$, 1	19:30	01.41	
\$4.84 1	68.54	Anard	01. 21. 7	15 P-15 1285
- South	14.6	17.53	TE AT AND	I. I Hy

STUDY II

INTERPERSONAL TRUST AND THE DELEGATION OF AUTHORITY

AND RESPONSIBILITY: A FIELD STUDY - PART II

39 treass the tankers to everties good judgment. The second part of the present study was concerned with whether the locusa permits the up month set situant a of-control of the cadet subordinates would be related to the cadet's attitude de delegates adchoring to take derinions to senters of his unit toward leaders who were perceived as allowing freedom of responsibility and authority. According to social learning theory, internally controlled subordinates steed, on how monthers carry out their durings 1 35 1 49 1 1 1 should be more willing to accept responsibility and excessive authority and therefore should be more satisfied with leaders who are perceived as delegators of responsibility and authority. Externally controlled cadets, on the other hand, should be more dissatisfied with leaders who are perceived as delegators of responsibility and freedom since they believe that outcomes in their environment are determined by external forces such as luck or the power of others and that they have less influence over their events. The wol .ev dgin tehto to internal and Freedom Lader (blas va. low). The base and stalyage of variable performed

Method

an the Leadership Maria anto index mis processing in Table 1.1 for the baraic A Subjects. The subjects were sampled from the military programs of two April and from southern universities. Sample A consisted of 35 cadet leaders and 163 cadet entre entre A sentres us another auchiest' out subordinates. Sample B consisted of 8 cadet leaders and 59 cadet subordinates.

seels and with reacer inaders the very participant to delegate greater and ere is Procedure. The freshman cadets were also required to complete the Rotter Locus-of-Control scale. In addition, an index of perceived delegation of authority trai - Delegation of furthering, responsibility, and responsibility was calculated based upon six items selected from the Freedom

scale of the LBDQ and two items dealing with delegation of responsibility. The the way he would a submitted the second country of allowing the second and and an

eight items used in this index were as follows: results. The belogation As herein, Mession ability, and Freedow warlabid found

Iten

He allows the members complete freedom in their work. . verschind with the des when when a we are allow more anthe barterice villidizamlerT

He permits the members to use their own judgment in solving problems. store better the locus of control and the interaction term whe significant A. C. M.

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SE FAST

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Item

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Statement

- 101 -

2 8

He lets the members do their work the way they think best.

- 102 -

He assigns a task, then lets the members handle it.

He trusts the members to exercise good judgment.

46 He permits the group to set its own pace.

49 He delegates authority to make decisions to members of his unit who are responsible for carrying out a task.

50 He keeps careful check on how members carry out their duties.

should be more willing to accept responsibility and excessive authority and

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. The analysis assessed whether freshmen cadets who were high on internal control would be more dissatisfied toward leaders who were not trusting in the assignment of cadet duties than freshmen cadets who were high on external control.

The experimental design involved a 2 x 2 factorial design with Locus-of-Control of cadet (high vs. low) and the Delegation of Authority, Responsibility and Freedom Index (high vs. low). The means and analysis of variance performed on the Leadership Satisfaction Index are presented in Table 3.7 for the Sample A

and in Table 3.8 for the Sample B.

From Table 3.7 it is clear that the freshmen cadets in Sample A were more satisfied with cadet leaders who were perceived to delegate greater authority, responsibility and freedom, $\underline{F}(1, 159) = 15.42$, $\underline{p} < .01$. No significant difference were found for the Locus-of-Control x Delegation of Authority, Responsibility, and Freedom interaction, $\underline{F} < 1$.

As may be seen in Table 3.8, freshmen cadets in Sample B showed the same results. The Delegation Authority, Responsibility, and Freedom variable resulted in statistical significance, $\underline{F}(1,55) = 4.99$, $\underline{p} < .05$, with cadets being more satisfied with leaders who were perceived to allow more authority, responsibility and freedom. Neither the Locus-of-Control nor the interaction term were significant,

Fs < 1.

Table 3.7

- 103 -

Means and Summary of Analysis of Variance Performed on LSI scores of Freshmen Cadets in Sample A

Variatelenogenal has modern't to malingered Delegation of Freedom and Responsibility

(18-3C) dilb	(25-21) was Low (8-26)	High (27-38)
(3-10)	38.74	43.59 t)
High 0 7 (11-21)	TO.CO	42.45

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Source	şs	2 d f	t MS	F	e pago d
Cadat LOC	53.57	26- 1 2	53.57	19.15	Cidet 100
Dele. of Respon. (DR)	973.27	10. 2 1	973.27	15.42**	1609-38 -1201 (38)-
LOC x DR	2.43	28. 1 .	2.43	128.4 H	100° x 104
Brror 1	0,034.19	.159	63.11	2099-133	Erear

Table 3.8

- 104

Means and Summary of Analysis of Veriance Performed on LSI scores of Freshmen Gadets in Sample B

willidismonast has subsail to activitie Delegation of Freedom and Responsibility

816b (27-38)	(08) woi Low (19-29)	High (30-37)
Low	41.80 44.27	901 . 48(13 ^{E)}
High (9-19)	SZATE 43.07	118 14 47.13 ⁽¹⁾

Cadet

Source SS	đf	IMS	۲ .	Source
Cadet LOC 18.15	(a. 1 0	18.15	72.60	Sadet LOC
Del. of Respon. 236.02 (DR)	t2. 1 70	236.02	4.99*	Dele, of Lespon, (88)
LOC x DR 4.82	64.1	4.82	24.5	193 x 200
Error 2599.33	11550	47.26	10,034,19	Breat

Discussion The data indicate that Cadet Locus-of-Control was not a significant determinant of cadet satisfaction with their leader. All freshmen cadets were more satisfied with leaders who were perceived to delegate a greater amount of authority and responsibility and to allow more freedom.

The nature of the military setting within academic institutions would seem to account for both the lack of significance of the cadet locus-of-control variable. If locus-of-control is to be a potent variable, the leader must be perceived as being instrumental to the achievement of the cadet's goals. It is clear that such is not the case in the military settings of the present study. The general goal of cadets is to acquire a college degree. As has been pointed out in interviews, a primary personal fear of the cadet is that of flunking out of college and not being able to get a satisfying job. Furthermore, in both samples, the cadet leader is capable of issuing demerits to his squad but usually is reluctant for a number of reasons among which was a fear of losing ranking when his squad is compared to other squads. Consequently, demerits are given by other leaders and normally from a variety of higher ranked individuals. The primary role of the squad leader was to lead his squad in rifle drills, guard mounts, parades and marching. The negative reaction which is usually given by the squad leader is excessive yelling and verbal abuse. It is interesting to note that the cadet leaders with whom cadets who are satisfied are seen as considerate, persussive, allowing freedom and who, as one cadet related it, "treats me as a human being." In essence, the squad leader is almost powerless and serves a minimal role in determining the future of the cadet at his institution. For these reasons, it may be expected that locus-of-control would not be a pertinent variable when related to perceived delegation of authority.

The entire concept of a young person at a military setting within an academic

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institution is one of a person who is using the military to achieve a good job upon completion of his obligation. While only about 15% of the graduating class will actually become career military, one primary reason for selecting the military is to avoid the low probability of having a job upon graduation.

The nature of the military setting within academic instructions would saen to account for both the lack of significance of the cadet locus of control variable. If locus-of-control to to be a potent variable, the leader must be carcelved as being instrumental to the achievement of the cadet's goals. It is clear that such is not the case in the military satilate of the present study. The general seal of gadets is to acquire a cellage desree. As has been pointed and to Interviews, a primary personal fear of the cadet is that of flunking out of colleve and not being able to get a satisfying job. Furthermore, in both samples, . the cadet leaser is capable of issuing deseries to his gound but machine is reluctant for a number of reasons acons while was a fear of lowing ranking when his squad is compared to other squase. Consequently, demerics are given by other leaders and normally from a variary of higher tanked fudividuals. The drimary role of the sound leader was to lead his squad in vitle drills, usard sounds, parades and warching. The poparity reaction which is neurity given by the squad leader is excessive valities and verbal ubuse. It is incluseding to note that the cadet leaders with whom cadets who are satisfied its seen as considerate. percentry, allowing freedom and who, as one valor related AL. "Create to ne a hand boine " In sectors, the sound leader is already provided and survey a statual role in determining the future of the solet at his fauthout. For these teasant, it hav be expected that locueser-control would not be a pertinent variable phen related to potestor delegation of builty cong affeitav

The should be visible to the stand general statics will be an under an under an analysis and

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SECTION IV THE ATTRACTIVENESS OF THE MILITARY ORGANIZATION The present section represented an attempt to identify those personal variables which were responsible for the attractiveness of the military organization. As a field investigation, the mejor empirical effort was directed toward an investigation of those variables which related to the cadets' self-perceptions and their attitudes toward the military. In addition to the above effort, the present section also describes an attempt which was made to follow a line of reasoning which evolved from the definition of ego identity status by Marcia (1964, 1966).

Ego identity and identity diffusion (Erikson, 1956, 1963) refer to the polar outcomes of the psychosocial crisis thought to occur in late adolescence. This period is characterized as one of occupational and ideological commitment. To assess ego identity, Marcia (1964, 1966) used a semi-structured interview and an incomplete-sentences blank to determine which of four concentration points along a continuum of ego-identity achievement best characterize the individual. The criteria to establish identity status consisted of two variables, crisis and commitment, applied to occupational choice, religion, and political ideology. Crisis refers to the period of choosing among meaningful alternatives; commitment refers to the degree of personal investment manifested by the individual. An identity-achievement subject expresses a strong degree of commitment to occupational and ideological choices arrived at after a fairly extensive period of examining alternatives. These subjects appear fairly stable, able to establish realistic objectives, and capable of dealing with sudden changes in the environment. Subjects in the moratorium stage are currently in the identity crisis and commitments are vague. They have contradictory needs for both rebellion and guidance manifested by somewhat ambivalent views toward authority (Podd, Marcia, Rubin, 1968). Foreclosure

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subjects are committed to an occupation and ideology but these have not been attained by them. Rather they have accepted whatever identity their parents had planned for them. They are the most authoritarian of the statuses (Marcia, 1967) and generally impress one with their rigidity. They operate quite satisfactorily so long as they remain in the type of situation in which their identity has been given to them but when the situation changes, they seem to be at loss. Subject in the identity diffusion may or may not have had an identity crisis experience. Regardless they are not committed and their lack of commitment may be manifested in a "playboy" life style. They actively seek non-commitment, shunning really demanding situations, or it may take the form of a schizoid personality where the individual is aloff, drifting, and seems aimless. These subjects are either uninterested in ideological matters or jump from one outlook to another--one is just as good as another. Recent work by Bob (1968) and Orlofsky (1970) suggested a fifth stage, the alienated achievement. They express a lack of commitment as subjects in the identity diffusion stage but they seem to have a consistent rationale for it. Bob (1968) describes these subjects as the ones who do most thinking or philosophizing at some point, and hence, become diffuse out of cynical refusal to make commitments. Orlofsky, Marcia, and Lesser (1973) and Marcia (1966) have provided evidence for the validity of the various conceptions of identity status.

Todividual. In <u>identification present</u> applied aspiredual a strong degree of completent to occupational and idealogical choices viriums at after a fairly extensive period of examining afternations. These subtants appear fairly erable, acts to establish realisation objection, and capable of ferting with sudden dungts is the environment, sequents in the parameting with correctly in the themility trists and considered a to vage and tradiction occurs for reballion and publicate multiplicate by considered tradiction occurs for reballion and publicate multiplicate by considered values to set to the state of the state of a state and the state of tradiction occurs for reballion and publicate multiplicated by considered values to acts for the state of the s

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STUDY I

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THE ATTRACTIVENESS OF THE MILITARY ORGANIZATION: FIELD STUDY (2)

ONE ETRAR

Based upon the above views it was originally intended that Marcia's Ego Identity Status procedure would be used and classifications be made with freshmen cadets. Unfortunately, pilot data indicated that Marcia's interview technique was not reliable and consequently a change in direction was necessary. As a result, Study I was aimed directly at assessing the attractiveness of the military organization and especially at gaining insights into the attitudes which prevailed within the military-college setting. The perceptions of cadet's personal life, the reaction to the military and the reasons for their opinions Presente preservice were examined. After two years, data were collected to determine which of the any blime rode . Might . discor three and cadets had withdrawn from the program.

Freshmen cadets in two samples were administered the Self-Anchoring Scale of Cantril (1965) and Semantic Differential Scales concerning the attractiveness of the military and various authority concepts. The former instrument allowed an assessment of the present, past, and future judgment of the military and also of the personal life of the cadets. Included were semi-structured questions which allowed the cadets to individually express their feelings toward themselves and the military (See Appendix 4.1 and 4.2).

Method

Secondia Officeration - Aughorizi

Instruments

Cantril Scale - The Cantril Self-Anchoring Scale consisted of two sections. The first part involved ratings on an eleven point ladder scale of the following:

(1) Where on the ladder do you feel you personally stand at the present Impelies, SindeCruel. Gezelaw-Wypageltical. The bis canacte which wate faile

some harden and (2) Where on the ladder would you say you stood five years ago?

(3) Where do you think you will be on the ladder five years from now?

(4) Where would you put the military on the ladder at the present time?

THE ATRACTIVENESS OF THE MULTIPART ORGANIZATION (5) Where did the military stand five years ago?

(6) Just as your best guess, where do you think the military will be

on the ladder five years from now? Identity Status procedure would be used and classifications be asis with fresh-

The second portion of the Cantril measurement involved the following: - Legendert

(1) All of us want certain things out of life. When you think about GROWwhat really matters in your own life, what are your wishes and hopes for the

future? In other words, if you imagine your future in the best possible

light, what would your life look like then, if you are to be happy?

(2) Now taking the other side of the picture, what are your fears and anolatee worries about the future? In other words, if you imagine your future in and to dailing as the worst possible light, what would your life look like then?

the bad elshed

(3) Now what are your wishes and hopes for the future of the military? and work If you picture the future of the military in the best possible light, how 着物质温度体主义的

would things look, let us say, ten years from now? STREET AN STREET (4) And what about your fears and worries for the future of the CALL DEL and life was

military? If you picture the future of the military in the worst possible foldw Shekis

light, how would things look?

allowed the cadets to tad vigably express their bin merimenti hawat (f.) but to a share of the add

Semantic Differential - Authority Concepts

The Semantic Differential instruments consisted of having the cadet rank each concept on a seven point bi-polar scale over the following bipolar adjectives: Clean-Dirty, Honest-Dishonest, Just-Unjust, Selfish-大学、主义的学、 选择学 Unselfish, Sympathetic-Unsympathetic, Unbiased-Bias, Good-Bad, Polite-Impolite, Kind-Cruel, Genuine-Hypocritical. The six concepts which were evaluated were: Teacher, Father, Judge, Policeman, Military Officer and Army . the most write so is related and much filter man dealed one ab araffer (f)

(4) Where would for our the military an she tailer at the resent time?

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* YEEMZ

The samples consisted of 311 freshmen cadets in Sample A and 102 cadets in Sample B.

Control Hoales and the Semantic Differential. scotas of the Bergiluses (-311) and Sample H (M=102)

Comparison of the Samples

The means and standard deviaions for the six Centril Scales and the six authority concepts measured by the Semantic Differential are given in Table 4.1. Also, Tables 4.2 and 4.3 presents the intercorrelations of these measures for Sample A and Sample B, respectively.

It may be seen in Table 4.1 that the Sample A showed significantly lower mean self ratings than Sample B on their present and future status in their personal life and also lower ratings on the present and future status of the military. The samples did not differ significantly on their past personal status or the past status of the military.

It is also evident from Table 4.1 that the Sample A showed more positive (lower mean scores) attitudes toward the six suthority concepts measured by the Semantic Differential.

To assess the general descriptions of the samples, a principle components factor analysis were performed on each sample and the factor matrix was rotated using a Varimax solution. The results of these analyses are given in Table 4.4 for Sample A and Table 4.5 for Sample B.

Observation of Table 4.4 reveals that Factor I represents a semantic differential dimension and yields high loadings (> .40) on each of the six authority concepts. Since each of the concepts were both authoritative in quality and measured by the same technique, it would be safe to

Table 4.1

Means and Standard Deviations for the Cantril Scales and the Semantic Differential scores of the Sample A (N=311) and Sample B (N=102)

Comparison of the Samples

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The ments and analard deviate of the six that als the seales and the

	Samp	e A	Samp	le P	P
ni cavig our inidaurti	Mean	Standard Dev.	Mean	Standard D	et. B AL
antril Scale in energalarmorana	add stude	19 L.A bas 1.	Cal 1 das	Also,	A olds
Present-Personal Life	4.10	3.18	4.74	2.60	€.05
Past-Personal Life	3.63	3.18	3.82	2.74	N.S.
Future-Personal Life	5.70	3.97	6.79	3.26	c. 05
Present-Military	3.60	3.04	4.57	2.83	< .05
Past-Hilitary	3.12	3.30	3.64	3.18	N.S.
Puture-Military	4.31	3.63 Vibitlin	5.78	3.38	¢.01
ementic Differential	is one sad	i a sider mo	i ansti	ve celo et	3
Teacher Stratege Blogonos gain	17.35	15.49	21.35	13.11	<.05
Father	13.89	13.18	18.35	11.81	4.01
stranogado algicatia a .esta	18.41	17.14	21.76	13.68	4.05
Military Officer Toront out	18.18	16.33	21.43	13.89	K.05
And alos? of newly ere aserie	21.68	19.70	25.68	16.02	¢.05
Policemen	17.81	16.92	21.07	13.70	4.05

observation of Lada i. . rewals that Fairer I ceptesents 4

nomencie differenciat dimension and ytales bigh headings (.e.s) on each of the six authority concepts, itake each of the reaconts ware both suthor-

Table 4.2

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Correlational	Matrix for the Cantril	
Scales and th	a Semantic Differential	
scores of the	e Sementic Differential Semple A	
and the second	Polement with the states	

			-			Þ	8 8.	ique?	od the	80203		H	and shares	
Prese	nt-Per	regnal	Present-Persons	Todas Past-Personal	28 Puture-Personal	. Present-Hillitary	Past-Military	. Future-Military	Lational 40	Pather Pather	espar. . 35	& Military Office	Å .38	.35
Past-	Person	1	86.	¥.00	88. 77	0.64	AR. 36	⁰³ .64	08.40	⁰⁸ .36	⁸⁸ .31	00.42	1 or 36	9.35 Preser 9
Futur	e-Per	ea.	<u>e</u>).	π .	1.00	TE.75	22.58	.78	13.46	C. 42	00 .42	.47	.45	.42 ^{7-Jap9}
Prese	të. nt-Hi	litary	@A.	53.	şa.	1.00	⁶⁶ .66	.84	^{dd} .36	00 .30	.30	.34	.34	Putorall.
Past-	Milita	24. 177	et.	del .	est.	45	1.00	88,54	.27	.26	.24	.28	.25	.27
Putur		tary	4£.	eë.	SE.	ζ£,	€4 ₉ ,	1.00	.34	.28	.31	.34	.37	.31 .31
Tesch	ee. er	es.	۲й.	P8.	.52	20.	CO.L		1.00	.80	.83	.83	.76	.78
Tathe	28. a	. 72	òa.	.88.	18.	60 ₂ 1				1.00	.72	.74	.70	.69 doper
Judge	36	83.	61.	¢5.	00.1						1.00	.83	.80	.78 ⁵⁶⁶⁵⁶⁷
Milit	18. ary 01	ficer	.82	1,60								1.00	.88	.87 anout
Агну	腾	.78	1,00										1.00	" .96 *115M
Polic	22, min	00.1												1.00
	63.1													rangeaul c9

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				c	orrela	tional and th	Table	Tor	the Ca	ntril				
A STATE	W Foldceman	sant BE	Present-Personal	Past-Personal	Puture-Personal	Present-Military 4	Past-Hilltary	Puture-Military .	Teacher	W LUIDSE-LONBOURY	Judge Bast-herstauf	Military Officer	1.00 A.	Plicen.
resen	t-Pe	laros	1.00	18.66	ae .8 0	03.60	·>8 ^{.49}	ac.54	40. 40	cr.38	00 .37	.38	.43 Is.	.46
Past-P	ers 01	1	TA.	1.00	s63	.61	.62	.55	∂X•.37	00 . 29	.37	.42	.45 1800e	.42 10 ¹⁷ -0181311 ¹⁷
luture	-Per	sonal	46.	02.	1.00	ac.66	.42	.66	00.53	.52	.53	.49	.58	.51 16-1096919
Preset	t-N1	litary	85.	45.		1.00		.81	.46	.44	.46	. 39	.42	.43
Past-H	1111	ary .	AC	I.C.	题.	AZ.	1.00	.49	.35	.32	. 39	.34	.35 VIAJA	.32 (11-1930-107
Puture	Hil	itary	£8.	68.	06.	00.1		1.00	.61	. 52	.53	.47	.49	.53 Tendeor
Teache	II.		訴.		20.1				1.00	.81	. 88	.80	.72	.85
Pather				00.1.						1.00	.77	.70	.68	.74 sgfadi
Judge	1. 12.12		03.2								1.00	.82	.72	.81 Vicilian
		fficer											.78	
Агну	20												1.00	.72 Demokiog

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Varianx Rotated Factor Matrix for Sample A

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	347	165.	.106	.031	540	003	.452	-012	\$00°	666	500	
	1 .172	.136	.057	.043	.04	.344	500	.006	004	666.		Santa - A
st-Military .113 .360 .894	.179	.142	.052	.018	-015	110	.037	600*	100	666*		
Puture-Military .169 .930 .151	.183	611.	•038	.017	.019	185	.019	.003	600 .			+1
.798 .160 .076	.118	160.	.255	.487	180-	910.	.026	002	014	666*		15
.662 .106 .085	.106	-086	.718	.075	.045	.00.	•034	8	100.	1.000		
.844 .127 .067	046	060 .	.143	.087	.475	-005	.040	024	600°	1.000	ee ee	
Military Officar .930 .147 .083	3 .160	.083	.106	•00•	020	610.	.039	128	207	1.000		
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.912 .120 .106	5 .092	£70.	.063	006	190	.006	.029	.345	019	1.000	66	
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Table 4.5

attribute this dimension to the presence of a common measuring procedure. Factor II interestingly represents high loadings on each of the Cantril scales with the exception of the Past-Nilitary. This factor presumably would describe an internalization of the military within the Sample A cadets. Finally, Factor III is a specific factor dealing with the past status of the military.

Not Sample B, Table 4.5 presents a similar first factor dealing with the semantic differential measurement of the authority concepts. Factor II, however, shows high loadings on the self-ratings of the present and future. Factor III presents high loadings on the present and future status of the military. To the degree that cadets show separate dimensions for their perceptions of their own present and future status and for their perceptions of the present and future status of the military, it would be assumed that they do not internalize the military to the extent that was observed in the Sample B.

In several, these data could be explained on the basis of situational differences. Sample A reside in an institution in which the students have elected to structure their academic pursuits within a military setting. Withdrawal from the Corps would mean resignation from the institution. It would seem that students who elect to enter have shown a dramatic committment to the military way of life and therefore could be expected to internalize military values together with their own personal values and also to respect authority concepts. A pussing finding, however, was the fact that Sample A cadets showed lower ratings than Sample B cadets on the Cantril scales for the present and future status of themselves and the military. These differences could

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be attributed to the indoctrination given to freshmen in Sample A. "As has been commented by one of the student commanders, the first year consists of "attempting to strip the student of civilian identity and make a soldier" out of him." It is quite conceivable, therefore, that the reference level for Sample A cadets is lower than Sample B as a consequence of this treatment.

The content analysis of the expressed feelings toward the hopes and fears of the personal life of the cadets and of the military are presented in Appendix 4.1 and in Appendix 4.2. These responses together in alternate with the factor analytic data comprise some insight into the freshmen who selects the military as a variable in his life-style. In general, the predominant wish for the personal life of the cadet is that he be happily married, have a family, and a secure job or military career. The predominant fear is that the cadet will flunk out of college and not be able to achieve his goals. To this end, the presence of high unemployment in the existing economy creates the possibility that the dropout will not be able to select a satisfying job and will be required due to financial pressure to occupy a job which is boring and not interesting. This latter possibility reflects one of the prime reasons that these students have selected the military, i.e., to secure a good job upon termination and completion (if career bound) of that etudents who elect to enter

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With regard to the hopes and fears of the military, many cadets confused this question with what their hopes and fears were with regard to their role in the military. Despite this interpretation, the predominant hope was that the military would be strong enough, both in quality and quantity, to defend the United States. It seems from observation of Appendices 4.1 and 4.2 that the affective tone of responses to these questions were more intense for

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Table 4.6 Sample A than for Sample B. In general, the cadets fear a nuclear holocaust, military takeover and dictatorship, and being killed in a war. eans and Rianderd Deviations for Frankedr The responses depict individuals who want a career in the military for security and adventure but have no trust in the military structure. Over-(Id=2) elasarbétiw tones of the military past are evidenced in a number of responses which icer another Viet-Nam and lack of trust in political activity which may subvert the strength and respect which the military may deserve. These would be reflected in cutbacks in appropriation and a military which is a involved in fighting for no purpose and creating a world war. Pressient-Milifeary 2. Marine marine for the second 1 3.07 3.29 中国教会会主义这一才会发生 2.69 Evaluation of Withdrawals 4. 50 Pature-Mildere N.S. 32. 26 At the conclusion of the sophomore year (Summer, 1976), data were 30.71 N.5. THEFT resignations from the military programs. recorded regarding 一方 第一 Pathat Of the 311 cadets given the measuring instruments in Sample A, 61 had 03.3 N.S. sphill, withdrawn and of the 102 tested in Sample A, 34 had resigned. Table 4.6 N. 5. 81.81 1 带来的学生汇学学 presents the means and standard deviation on the Cantril Scales and Semantic 19.00 物理学选 Differential instruments for freshmen cadets who remained and withdrew in . 2. 济 18.8 18 5 REARDINE Sample A. Table 4.7 presents similar data for Sample B.

From Tables 4.6 and 4.7, it is interesting to note that Sample A cadets who withdrew showed significantly lower present and future personal self-ratings than those cadets that remained. Since the Cantril scales were given early in the freshmen year, strong support may be made for the contention that high self-concept is a necessary condition for survival in the Corps of Cadets at a military institution as Sample A. No differences were observed for Sample B or on any other measures for Sample A.

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Table 4.6

Sample A than for Sample A. In constat, the codets fuer a nuclear

Neans and Standard Deviations for Freshmen Cadets Who Remained and Withdrew in Sample Act associate off

	Remain	ned (N=250)	With	drawals (N		P
es which	mellean to	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard	Deviation	100
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Past-Personal T	173.75 tal	r ficai 3.08 mit daine	3,11 b	as (famoua)	3.56 Jaavo	N.S.
Future-Personal	5.96	bes #31.84thcongrad	4.62	anti talea	4.32 d bli	₹.05
Present-Hilitary	3.74	w a gn2:97 to the st	3.00	el gaiodat	3.28 Soulov	N.S.
Past-Military	3.27	3.29	2.49	e statute	3.27	N.S.
Future-Military	4.50	3.56	3.52	nolaniono	3.94	N.S.
Teacher	17.40	15.12	17.15	gutbu	17.06	N.S.
Father bed to .	14.25 Sufferent at	13.18 ·	12.43	아파님과는 그러면가 언제이 아파의 가장에서 가진 맛이네요.	13.16 o LIE oda	N.S. 10
Judge	18.83	16.95 bad M. A alamas	16.69	Stops Ta	17.92 543 mestod:	N.S.
Military Officer	18.22	15.89	18.07	Les heren	18.18 odd simead	N.S.
Army of weathing h	21.90	19.60	20.80	Instructor	20.24 Laitnerat	N.S.
Policeman	17.86	16.47	17.61		18.81	N.S.

From Tables 4.5 and 4.7, it is interpoting to note that Sample A such a withdrew should significantly lower present and future personal self-callage withdrew should significantly lower present and future personal self-callage that those takets that reputed. Since the Cantril scales are given early in the freshese year, strong support may be asks for the contention that high self-concept is a necessary quadition for survival in the forps of fadots at a military losification as sauple A. As differences are observed for Sample of or or or any other resource for Sample A.

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Table 4.7

At this point is would be of value to examine the data in Appendices

Cadets who Remained and Withdrew in Sample B

the of the striking findings was that 33 as the cadets who withdrew in

Tiesti sathas.Ben	ined (N=68)	Wit	ndrawals (N=34)	Safe
Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviatio	states and the second second second second second
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Present-Hillitary 6 .4.78 -1	a men 2.75 da galarse	n-4.15 tot	o ba (2.99 model)	N.S.
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Future-Military = ==================================	blya 3.20 add	5.24	10 513,69 ad- m	N.S.
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. Father and rol besa17:6810 a	accolor45mas and .	19.71 a		N.S.
Judge .A slama 22.21 and	199 13.43 magia Line .	20.88	14.33	N.S.
Military Officer 21.24	a	21.79	15.07	N.S.
Атну 25.96	15.53	25.11	.17.19aes pul	N.S.
Policeman of bluew of 21:06 and	web 13.19 to melig	21.09	di 102 14.86 mus di	N.S.

expected that in our masset society, few individuals if may, of the highest level of social development would volumently emission into a "conditional" withitary researching, m. if they some inductor, would be most likely to withiter, research is to condict, or defe orders if such orders violated their coloring the social order bit by preschence is socially right not by laws and rules of the social order bit by preschence is accordance with an if determined where of the social order bit by preschence is accordance with a first rules of the social order bit by preschence is accordance with an if determined as and principles. In itshe of this reaconing, it could be assumed that contents on the level would be level in itself to be be and that an eli-minimum contents on the level would be level in itself to be be and and the social of the social and the second back of the social social at an eli-minimum contents on the level would be level in itself to be be and an eli-minimum.

Table 6.7

At this point it would be of value to examine the data in Appendices 4.1 and 4.2 with regard to those who withdrew from their cadet programs.

One of the striking findings was that 33 of the cadets who withdrew in

Sample A refused to fill out the open-ended questions regarding their personal wishes and fears and their wishes and fears for the military. Of those cadets who withdrew and did answer the questions, the predominant responses were: (1) an open acknowledgement that they disliked the military; (2) no opinion concerning their own self-image; and (3) notwanting to kill or be killed.

In the sample of Sample A, the most evident characteristic of withdrawal was an overt indication of living in a world based upon high Christian principle. In addition, the same responses of "no need for the military" and open dislike of the military were evident as in Sample A. In many cases, cadets indicated a need for peace, no wars, and a devotion to "helping mankind".

In terms of Kohlberg's conception of moral development, it would be expected that in our present society, few individuals if any, of the highest level of moral development would voluntarily enlist into a "traditional" military organization, or, if they were inducted, would be most likely to withdraw, refuse to re-enlist, or defy orders if such orders violated their principles. These individuals define what is morally right not by laws and rules of the social order but by conscience in accordance with self-determined ethical principles. In light of this reasoning, it could be assumed that students at this level would be less inclined to enroll at an all-military institution such as in Sample A. Furthermore, observation of Appendix 4.2 indicates

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that those Sample B cadets who cited a need to live according to high Christian principles and a refusal to inflict pein on others showed an extremely high probability of withdrawal.

Finally, the pre-conventional level of Kohlberg relates to those persons who will be mambers of the military system if the system is made attractive in terms of rewards but who will leave if assigned unpleasant tasks or are asked to accept orders which may endanger their lives. To an extent, the predominant response of "not taking orders" or "not wanting to be killed or in combat" would seem to confirm this position.

Third Column - Hopes and wishes for the military

Four th Lalinon - Nears of the military

* W moans withdrew from the Corps

that those sample & cadets who cited a need to itva according to blob Christian principles and a refusal to infile? FibnegeA others showed an extremely high probability of withdrawal A signal

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Effective the pre-conventional level of Wohlberg relates to these prevent who will be members of the additary system if the system is made attractive in terms of rewards but who will heave if seeigned uspleasant tasks or are asked to accept orders which may amianger their lives. To an extract, the **Predestant response of "mot taking orders" or "het wenting to be billed** predestant response of "mot taking orders" or "het wenting to be billed or in const!" sould seem **all lancersq not a 'take 10 and a taking**

Third Column - Hopes and wishes for the military

Fourth Column - Fears of the military

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37	merried & travel career AF	take a civilian
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40	Easy life, minimum of hardship	everything will turn out wrong
41	helping people	a poor job - not financially secure
42	marriage	not sure
W 43	marriage, peace	war, separation
44	AF Commission marriage	flunk out
45	marriage, rich, powerful	no respect or responsibility broken home
46	marriage, chemical engineer	failure of mar- riage
67	medical school - captain, marriage 3 children, farm	breaking up with my fianceé not being ad- mitted to med. school
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50	Army career	bad job
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36 17	wife, kils, secu- sity	divorce, no and money	Physical Therapist in Army Hospital	In military jail
87	graduate & be- come a career of- ficer	that I might die	be a Major	Var
88	Married, graduate, commission	flunking out - having to go to a 1/2 bit civilian school no marriage	reduced force picked troops high specialization	manned by imbecil underpaid poor leadership & equipment
89	Travel, friends	to do something against my will	officer in combat & traveling around the world	to be stuck in a heavy combat zone an indefinite tim
90 W	to be a minister and to spread the Good News	not being ordain- ed and not being able to serve God to the fullest	serve my commitment as a Chaplain and then to get out.	That I will not b allowed to go to seminary school
91 W	AF wings & to enjoy women	Flunking out of school	messed up	not much worse th
97	Kill Gooks & Iranians	being killed	all communists are dead	All Americans are dead
98	Marriage, a job and left alone	out of work	Impressed with mili- tary but want to be a Biologist	none
100	Respected top man of an interna- tional corpora- tion	Struggling ac- countent in a small business	more modern military & more reliable anti- communist policy.	obsolete weapons, undisciplined per sonnel & a pro- communist policy.
101	career in service	no job and a world war	larger military force	no organization, equipment & small numbers
103	Air Force Pilot	Not being able to fly	being a career officer, pilot & astronaut	not flying & bein Air Force
104	Herriage & being a Podjatricies	working on a job I don't like	fulfill my obligation and get out	being a private a graduation
		and the second		

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105 Jon - But Malanti Landis Wile Stands - Atta

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189 Marriage & security Marriage & secu-106 rity 109 Job & family

- Career in army
- 110 Marriage, family & satisfying job
- Married with a 111 100
- 113 to be a civilian civil engineer & W married
- 114 family, security sector int
- Marriage & a 115 good job
- 116 Marriage, family and a respected position and income
- 119 Marriage, AF pilot
- Family, security 120 & good profession 124 marriage & money
- W 127 military career
- Air Force pilot 128 129 Be a dentist

- 129 -

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and a start of

war, no job

no marriage

no security

bad family &

ugly wife &

bad job

dropping out of

school no job Communist take

terminal sickness

and no girls

be a traveling

broken marriage

no job or secu-

doing a job which

is a bore & being

blasted to hell

on the battle-

mediocre or no

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Army life with

no money

VERSION AND MARKEN

security

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no wishes or hopes no war

Solar All

Peacetime army with good pay

Gets rid of Viet Nam image & become respectful accord and all

Captain rank Best weder but AL WALLEY MADE The start an Chief

return to way it was before Viet Nam

I want no military obligation. need control in the world

123-841

career in military

Peace - as an organization to work out problems at home

peaceful force at 1 dat a spin

Remain in an "inactive" period & tolerated by public

AND STATES OF ANY

Naval Aviator Career

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well-functioning The a subset the said - a train

Army Officer - no VAT

congress will strip it of its fighting career

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War war

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10 1

America loses prestige as superpower wife leaves me because of military.

unable to defend U.S. & attempts a takeover of the Government

no military or weak military

another Vietnam or another Nixon as Commander-in-Chief

another VietNam

and a share with 22.50 like the Luxemborg Army

General public mistrust and strong feeling against military

No advancement in the military

sold the distantion and tensitived a nit

A bomb-out

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		- 130	•	
130	Regular Army Commission Family	No job	Active duty in a 3rd WW	In the Reserves
131	Peace, Love, and Happiness	famine, over- population, nuclear holo- caust	Small efficient fighting force	Prejudice, hatred & inefficiency
132	Regular Army Commission, Family	Bad wife & no R. A. commission	A-1 Army	No A-1 Army
133 W	Marriage and Security	no job - and possibility of Middle East war	Peace	War & getting killed
134 W	Family, Success, Businessman	Poor family; not successful	AF Colonel Pilot	Dishonorable discharge
135	Doctor in Army	Famine due to over-population depletion of Wilderness	highly trained with spirit and together- ness	Military takeover
137	In tune with God; secure	not being suc- cessful	strong defense of United States	becoming second-rate to USSR
138	Marriage, Friends and security	flunk out & no job	finished with the military and in "fat city"	War
139	Marriage, security	no job, no assets	Contraction and	attact sear of most
140	Marriage, good job	doing a job I do not enjoy no marriage	well-respected & effective	ineffective & not respected
142	Marriage, excite- ment & adventure	through God, Reason & help of others, I have no fears		
144	graduate and gat R. A. commission	being a vegetable	career in military	not getting commis- sioned
145	Biologist working in a National Fo- rest	no job or one I don't like	Major in army infantry	getting killed
146	graduating high in class, good job and marriage	taking a job I don't like be- cause of the aconomy	stay voluntary	that it will gain too much control over people-nuclear war

A CONTRACT	The second second and	A Contract of the second second		
149	comfort & se- curity	no job - no adequate support	commission, rank of captain	I will be in combat in a war
1.50	security as an Infantry Comman- der	no security	respected, highly trained, ready	no discipline and extremely reduced in numbers
153	wealthy & a beautiful wife	poverty stricken no job	airborne qualified Major	get killed in another Viet Nam
155	Beautiful wife, security	another world war	the military is abolished	a dictatorship with a powerful military
156 (1997)	steady job-with time to hunt & fish	stuck in a job I dislike and will not be able to quit because of my financial situa- tion	5817 913	nda sensitium for sand ai lutess sand i lutess sand for sensiti sand for that sensiti sitt
.57	to help my fellow man	being incapable of helping peo- ple	hope it will never be used again	government will let it decay to the point of not being useful
158	free from hangups and totally self- confident	poor & insecurity	USEC AS & DIUII	nuclear war which destroys the earth
59	play pro football - be financially se- cure and help my family	flunking out of college	military will change. nuclear warheads will vanish. Military will function better during peace	military will run the government. It will step up nuclear arms and then destroy world
.60	good job, money love, health	poor & sick	I will be out of it.	To be a POW
61	marriage, finan- cially secure	recession, bad marriage job I dislike or no job at all	volunteer military. good economy so that I can afford to be a civilian	war with Russia in the Middle East
.62	to be able to be conservative in politics, in the marine Corp. Married to eliminate people from my life who are antagonistic	no military ca- reer. Year of the USA going to the left	battlefield commission member of the Marines who are fighters, not bables!	no war - service cut- backs where a larger military is needed

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163	family & finan- cial security	no f ami
164 p	family	chronic no frie
166	working with the Lord and doing his will	the wor being s from Go
168	job and family	no job family
169	Marriage, suc- cessful in business have a loving mate	no job
172 W	Healthy & peaceful life	death o friends ly
173	leisure time to enjoy with friends	dull ex
174 _{13.3}	respected member of community lots of friends and good times - mar- riage	flunkin
TT has distant	doing things that are satisfying; helping others	doing t don't l Like de life in Mid Eas
176	doing something worthwhile	having to infl life
177	family, friends, a good job	getting job due way thi going
178	live out west with horses and an Indian girl	living City or with a blonde woman
179 W	marriage, health and happiness	loes of and hap
181	career in army	WET

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Erie	nds	1.2.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1	1

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very prosperous

out of the service with honor

through with the ilitary and a itizen

out of military I do not want it

I have no wishes or hopes

no military by and by the en ha and head the

fighter pilot in minor combat

flying

high ranking officer in Navy

used as a deterrent to war and a appreciation .

no ability respected and never G. XCHAR needed

> higher than a captain I am not too if I did go into military

to be a Green Beret or Marine

none

making the military a career

行行度

POW; fighting for something I don't believe in

Combat & going into War

to be shot on the front line

military state, secret police & war

war and military dictatorship

dull, unimaginative duty

war; stuck at one rank

military is sole way of life. We are headed in this direction.

not respected and needed

worried about it.

being assigned to the Pentagon

al areas in statistical and a statistical and statistical and statistical statistical and statist military has no future

none

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- 132 -

	and the second	- 13	3 -	
	- To cloud a clant	a harthraineities	As at justice -	saler du trad. 46
182	marriage, family, business or management career	becoming an alcoholic or pothead	progresses to the point that all military have at least 2 yrs. of college	falling below standards
183 W	married to fan- tastic chick, money, no hassles	no family or friends and broke	I personally dislike military	A dictatorship with military in total control
184	wealthy, & good job	death before I achieve my goals	use military to get a better civil- ian job	getting killed in some idiots war
185 W	marriage, family, good job	I will flunk out and have no job and not find right woman	maintain its standards and values	military will go down and we will lose our role as world power
186	having a good job	getting started in life; military will help	career arri hoan a	I have none yet!
187	happiness with job and family	not happy with job or family	become more efficient and disciplined	no discipline. The Army is an example of loss of discipline.
191	married, health helping others	War and Communist control of world economy	less manpower and more nuclear weapons. Less involvement in econo- mic stability	nuclear wars. Cold war with nuclear wars.
194	marriage; commis- sion	not get a commis- sion and not get married	to be a major in USMC	to have a regular commission in the USMC
196	marriage; good job	life in POW camp	I prefer to be a civil- ian	military dictatorship spying
198	good job; money	no money & no job	no future in the Army	going off to war
199	financial security family, good health	poor health, no job or money	like they are now	small force; lazy bums in it
200	married & family		get knee or shoulder injury so that I get out of military ser- vice	I am still in military and we are at war
201 W	AF pilot	not enjoying what I'm doing	AF pilot	killed theirthe
202 W	Physician, married family	not going to Hed school	only will enter service as a physi- cian	I do not like the thought of killed or killing

or

133 -

204	head of joint Chiefs of Staff; A war hero with political incli- nations upon retirement	working in an enormous corpora- tion as an engi- neer	well-organia technologica advanced
205	to live a suc- cessful life	being a failure	stay close i they are non politics in tary
206	R.A. commission married; secure	flunk out of school - no chance for good life	Arwy captain
208	to be a doctor and treat ill & suffering	losing the grace of God in my life	to be Colom Medical Corr
213 W	not sure; I have a lot of choices	not sure; I want a good life	not sure; I it a career
	Astronaut and commercial pilot	a poor job in a building or fac- tory	defense of
219	Career, Wife, Security	failure in career unhappy marriage	small profes Army Free o Tape
223	wealth and happiness	death, poverty failure in mar- riage & work	more say in do everythin no more Vie
227	marriage, family wealth	death as offered 1	stay out of
228	merried to a cute chick	fighting a war I disagree with	no career u D.V.M. in V
231		no job; no girl	that milita have good p tions & be
235	free; cabin in Rocky Mts; happily married	war & loneliness	I want to s military; I and killing
236	merried; family, pilot	no job; no family	ten
237 W	happy, married family	World War III	

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small, poorly organized - lacking proper funds

to the ander

military will have little say against politicians

failure to get R.A. commission & not be in Army

military takeover and dictatorship

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not sure; can't say

escalation of military power above human concern

continuation of present enlargement military becoming a corrupt bogged-down bureaucracy

weak in arms and leadership

War

low ranking soldier

military will disband and become apathetic

war and killing that is coming soon

Station The

weak and a takeover by communists COMMUNISES

- 134 -

			Carter and the second	
239 W	unmarried; navy; submarines; travel and invest money	no job and not allowed in Navy	command of my own submarine	a chicken shit assignment
		and the second second	Ibgegat	
241 W	a happy job in the military	a loner in a boring job	a major in a military career	a dead-end job in the Army
242	good job and social life	mass depression and war	no war	nuclear var
243	success in every- thing	dead	a good place to work	a military takeover of everything
245	career after gradua- tion business work	unending uncer- tainty as right now	better than now. btable peacetime service	another Viet-Nam
247	fulfillment of my personal goals	living in uncer- tainty with no purpose	serve my required time and then to get out. It does not offer the things I want in life	military will make me do things I do not want to do.
248	job, married, family	death	responsible position	war andleo do met
249	graduate and be a truck driver	flunk-out	out of military	
251	active life in church and youth groups	job failure	peacetime; small token force	Wonld Var III
253	good job and propperous	world destruction by thermonuclear war	simply on standby	non-activity due to fear of nuclear holo- cost
254 W	happy and satis- fied	alone and working at a job I don't like	passive position. No aggressive signs	a military system geared for war
257	graduate & have a successful mili- tary career; family	flunk out	to be secure in military	nuclear war
259	military career and exciting life	insecure and economically poor	a strong military with adequate defense budget	no more de-escalation a defenseless country
268	family, captain in Navy	no commission	Lt. Com. in Navy	being passed over.
280 W	be happy	no job; uncertaint		

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- 136 -

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Appendix 4.2

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First Column - Hopes and wishes for the cadet's own personal life

Second Column - Fears of cadet's own personal life

Third Column - Hopes and wishes for the military

Fourth Column - Fears of the military

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* W means withdrew from the Corps

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			e el Gris el Contra	brig taffins 23
1 W TOUL	get the "gusto" in life and achieve all possible goals	not achieving my goals	It must meet needs of a changing society especially youth	loosely organized not with the times and not appealing to the "right guy"
2	commission in the Air Force	Messing up in college or Air Force career	respecting and aiding my country	return to civilian life
3	successful position of leadership	a job or non-leadership and one I didn't enjoy	more positions for variety of skills	more sestrictive in jobs
4*	family, happy secure	flunking out; moving about unsettled	successful officer in Air Force	toriant the state of the state
5* W	fulfilling life		to be successful	The American public turning agains it
6 W	wife & happiness	bad job in syste i (smon bur bus tonigenai) i'u round ion	I'll be out after flying and visiting world	I would be a failure as a leader and still be 1st 1t.
? 	Family and good job	flunking out; unhappy marriage	voluntary military	reinstitution of the Draft
8 W	good job; adventure; marriage	bachelor; bad job	increase overseas bases. Stop the spread of communism	spread of communism more Viet-Nams cutback of military money and manpower
9	astronaut	no job	pilot	money and manpower
10*	security a good job and a rich husband	death and not being able to achieve my goals	a good position	fear of not being to cope with various types of people
t i sente ano		divorce; poor job; die as alcoholic	the world w/ wire	stuck in missle silo; away from family for long periods of time.
12 7	commission, family, no need for military	nuclear destruction; old man w/o family	no need for military and weapons	nuclear destruction of world in a large scale war.
13 (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1)	family & financial security	being alone in life	united military which is for not only defen- se but helping develop the US economically an technologically	corruption, decay and a
Toril	tingilizio ega	lo aprovoluten y: abrobroty	As and being to util	government
14	marriage and good job	flunking out of college; being crippled	marine pilot and stationed where <u>I WANT</u>	not being a pilot and a boring job

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191		- 138 -		the state of the s
5 bai	family; good job security	wife who is a bitch; no money or friends		transformation area in the second sec
6 ²³ 105	career or AF pilot MS degree;	bad marriage; flunk out; and alcoholic		disqualified for flight; passed over
			en estat ato ar	states all
7 ni w	family & security	hard to say	successful officer	being kicked out
3	marine officer,	dying tonight	war to boost economy that I am not killed	jobs
2 .1.401	to be ONE with my FATHER and Lord Jesus Christ	that I would reject HIM and HELL would be my future	no military	that the military will take over everything
0 1998 1977	married and Vet. practice	leaving school and taking job I don't like	none; I have kidney transplant and will not enter	Same
1	young, wealthy powerful	poor and digging ditches	jet fighter pilot	sitting behind a desk
2* 9 sl	commission; happy marriage and good children; a useful job	not being useful; not reaching capabilition	a commission; a good leader	no commission; stuck in a position; no ful- fillment of potential
3 3/	nice family life	drafted; fighting Chinese in Malayan jungle. No job upon return	no need for fighting military	world war
4.11=	well-paying job	living & working according to someone else's rules	large & competent: puts down trouble in a short time span	military back on draf system
	married; security		not planning to have career. Use Army to develop leadership	constant and
6*	good husband who works hard; together money will come in	splaisd modules	do not feel that I would like to be in the military	conflict; moving constantly and being married to man who has steady job in one location
17	secure; friends and being my own boss	people	maintenance of standards	too civilian; discipline may drop low
28		no commission and no responsible and pros- perous job	not many changes	a lot of useless changes

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- 138 -

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29	good job and family	bad marriage bad job	no career; just fulfill obligation	war and being killed
30 W	health, family commission, job	flunk out	good position; flying	light job openings; wars low pay; poor quality in personnel
31 64		desk job, divorced	no need for military peace	increased military because of war; research solely for weapons
32	marriage, family good job	broken home poor job	a responsible posi- tion; helping others	not being to make it into the army
33 W		tizest volument	constant growth new weapons	cutback in funds, manpower and weapons
34 ¹⁰⁰⁰	free time live in peaceful place	no idea Toian ara no idea toian ara no idea toian ara inneat ar based its paseq	traveling; around world in SAC or MAC	washed out of pilot training or being an NCO
35	wealthy and a lover		chief of staff	messing up
36*	career in engineeri and a family	ng a boring job & not enjoying life	it will be respected and have strength and status	the military will be cutback and will be a token force
37	good job; marriage	unsteady job; poor marriage	more money for federal defense	cutback in funds
38	married, job with FAA	flunking out; no commission	more funding & more jobs	jobs will be strictly regular 8-5 type.
39				hores tox no.
40* Notes	commission and happy marriage	not getting a RA commission	senior officer in Army	no RA commission
41*	Doctor, family home	not doing that which I like	only plan on 4 yrs. service unless I marry a military man	unable to get pro- moted or in a stifling job
42	good job, family a Christian life	no or sorry job no family	working on Major rank	being passed over
43* W	good job; secure married	flunk out; not fulfill my athletic goals		no fears or hopes
44	good job; security	dull job with little time to do things I like	to be in exciting and rigorous physical work	dull and boring desk job
				and a set of the set o

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45*	good job; family	working in a job I don't enjoy	A good job serving people of U.S.
46 W	security; good job family	no job; a lonar or a bad job and no commission	BO WATS
47 W	good job and family	wandering looking for a job	voluntary service
48	security and to do what GOD wills	flunking out; no job	officer
49 W	no idea	being unsuccessful and fear of parental dis- approval	strong military leaders with the times. Voluntary Army
50 101 1 W 200 1	pilot; marriage; family wealth, "God in our hearts"	flunk out; sickness and disharmony in fa- mily; sentenced to hell by God	major; pilot full commission; based in beautiful place
	be at peace and able to help others live a life that they enjoy	to be at war, hungry and fighting for my life	no military or need for it
52	life full of adventures	I don't know	Just as it is
53	military career; own judo club; send parents on European tour home for my family	flunk out; unable to enter military; not married	Major in line for Lt. Col.
54	graduate; married pilot; wealth; go into racing	flunk out; insecure financially; not be qualified for flight	Pilot; rank; pay; furthering educatio
55 W	no opinion	no opinion	captain of a ship
56	being proud of myself; respect from others	being a failure and having no friends	a leader who is wel liked and respected
57	family; do much good in world	doing wrong and making harm; being away from family	I will not be in th military

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world war or corrupt

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full scale world war

a leader who is well stuck behind a desk liked and respected

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I will not be in the leading men who are military

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dying in a helpless situation

	to an arriver and the	filles instance	chive fabricari I had	s zeili verse
58	family and happy with my job	total failure and my wife leaving me	being promoted	getting riffed or making a bad decision which will hurt my men
59	good job; flying family; simple life	stuck in a desk job; being a bachelor	peaceful purposes	var is handing to hardlans d
60	no opinion	no opinion	not planning on a military life	"Zilch"
61	happiness; being able to earn respect of my mon	not being able to achieve my goals; to be a failure in my dealings with my men	ment and military	public opinion and disinterest will stagnate our readi- ness
62	marriage; family military job	flunk out; not being able to have a motor cycle	in the military and a high position	no opinion
63 W	educated; married; wealthy	flunk out; poor; lonely; living in a city	no military or a small powerful and efficient force	US turns anti-mili- tary a weakening of the Armed Forces
64 Y	successful & wealthy	losing my scholarship not being able to fly	Flying a B-1 bomber high rank	little rank & sitting behind a desk.
65 aut	anti-server mol hous 3	not being able to sup- port a family	major in an doit important job	I don't know if I am going to like the Army
66	no opinion	no opinion	not sure that the military is for me	not being able to do the job I like.
67	education; fulfillin my obligations; marriage	ng flunking out; no commission	strong civilian con- trolled military to fight communism	conventional ground war that the US would surely lose.
	success; family; happiness		military superiority to all countries	military so weak we can not defend our- selves
	in the field; adventure	being behind a desk being bored	mighty; able to control communism	going down the drain
70	commission; pilot marriage	not being able to get commission or fly	flying fighters	forced out of lose commission
71 W	go to West Point	that I may never reach my goals	we will still be one of the best armies in the world	cutbacks will weaken our military
72	graduate work & 15 years in AF		job in Air Force in Engineering	desk job not in engineering
73	good life & no worriss	life full of death	pilot; AF Capt.	family pilot training

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1.

361 -74 happy life; active no fear; I can flight instructor teaching ROTC H achieve beng & which there's and happy for said and added address fitted I an not sure I 75 happy; family; flunk out or no opinion marrying wrong girl job in NASA or AF want the military husband to love and what the world is I don't want 76* military is not military for me coming to. No W children support for family PARTICIA ad Bly o ton flunk out 77 military officer public respect and no respect and discipline continual public the million allow close it actions criticism of selene te avaides duesers make distante administration - wingiting been income pilot, family, no job; problem in major; flying 78 desk job; low rank own was contain main health family health 79 become self-suf- having someone stop major with command no promotion ficient me from reaching my and the second goals not liked and of 80 AF officer and good falling out of Lt. Col. in AF Christian well-liked low rank God's will Antonia harres and a start of * good job; family a military gov't bad job; poor marrihelp people; not 81* or dictatorship a analyts: hurt them; prevent age , test a horidant Arter dalat not be ware united your 和武治: 把你对 AF pilot; good job being separated from maintain present decrease in public 82 support. cut-backs family; retire at strength; be best family; bad job in world and not and low quality 40 as political in personnel the an align and the and the same date ficturate or my girl taking this dumb none 83 W. test Annaly Intelligible - nos stand anterior for the standard out the respect from others being led by 84 to love and be no one loves or someone I had no loved: set goals appreciates me respect for and try to accomplish them CALIFREN Jume Some Wasterfreet, 172-05 STRATE CONSELCT ansalanad

flunk out and leading develop scientifically something to a purposeless life benefit human race

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STUDY II

THE ATTRACTIVENESS OF THE MILITARY ORGANIZATION:

FIELD STUDY

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Study II was an attempt to borrow certain theoretical concepts from Marcia's definition of ego-identity status to identify the underlying factors responsible for the attractiveness of the military. In particular, the present investigators attempted to use the concepts of "crisis" and "commitment". It was reasoned that perhaps the concept of commitment could be defined in terms of multiple choice items which reflected answers that differed in levels of commitment. The items were written to closely resemble the coding used by Marcia in his interview procedure. The items referred to the degree of personal investment manifested by an individual with reference to occupational choice, religion, and political ideology. The investigators in an earlier pilot study found that the measurement of "crisis" produced such unreliable responses in interviews that a redefinition of the concept was necessary. Crisis was defined by Marcia as referring to a period in life during which an individual is involved in choosing among meaningful alternatives. To this end such a period should involve the examination of topics which are felt to be of major concerns and importance to the individual. On this basis, it was expected that the degree to which an individual has spent time in concentrated thought on certain issues may be an effective variable in predicting the attractiveness of the military organization. Based upon the data gathered from the semi-structured questions of Study I, a core of twenty factors which were predominant in the wishes and fears of freshmen cadets were extracted. In general the factors ranged from items of concern for personal future (having a family, choice of a spouse) to concern for the welfare of society (having a nuclear war, having a military takeover by the government). For the twenty factors, respondents in Study II indicated the extent to which each factor was of concern and importance to then.

Using a new sample of freshmen cadets and freshmen civilians from three major universities, Study II involved an examination of the extent to which the two redefined processes of commitment and concern were related to the attractiveness of the military. The latter concept was measured with a Semantic Differential Scale.

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Sample

The samples were obtained from three major universities. Two were located in the South and one in the Southwest. Of a total sample of 405 freshmen, 356 returned useable data. There were 252 freshmen cadets and 104 freshmen civilians. Of these, 44 cadets and 46 civilians were from one southern university and 119 cadets from the other southern university which had an all military population. From the southwestern university, there were sampled 89 cadets and 58 civilians. Instruments

The questionnaire was composed of three parts and is shown in Appendix 4.3. Part I required the subject to indicate the degree of concern and importance given to each of twenty factors regarding various aspects of his personal life and of society. Part II involved responding to thirteen multiple choice questions which measured degree of commitment. Of these questions, only items 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 10, 11, and 12 were used in deriving the Commitment scale. Part III involved four Semantic Differential Scales related to the concepts of military, religion, college, and government. Of these four, only the assessment of military was used in the present analysis.

To reduce Part I to subscales, the twenty factors were subjected to a multi-dimensional scaling program (POLYGON II) in which scales were constructed based upon the percentage of agreement across the four response alternatives between each and every factor. On the basis of this analysis, the following six scales involving eighteen factors were derived:

I. World Orientation

1 2010 1

1. Belief in God

7. Going to war and being killed

13. Having a nuclear war

18. Corruption in positions of authority

11.	Self-Orientation	
	16. Flunking out of college	24 CM
	19. Changing your present career plans after college	e sufficient sult in the
aës 70	20. Being unemployed	
' 111.	Future Personal	b. Mareta Bergar
811.5	2. Choice of a spouse	
ani tali	5. Having a family	n generations
IV.	Future Military	Level and entry and
	3. A career when you graduate	el tinta tan
der stab	11. Living in a society that is weak in national defe	ense
NF.C.3	13. Having a nuclear war	erstronger and
STRI I	17. Being a Leader	e la casa da se d
¥.	Negative Personal	te dellava to da
	8. Having to take a job that you did not like	interest and the physics
TTL d	9. Taking a job or position that did not offer any a	advancement
gravit	10. Having an unhappy marriage that might develop in	a divorce
	14. Having a military takeover of the government	ingention insigning
VI.	Positive Personal	Ling now yres211
1	1. Belief in God	igh muiden ist
(3) (A 4)	3. A career when you graduate	A construction for the
191972)	4. Being financially secure	isa ali ang Circ
ta snr	6. Choice of curriculum major	ton sing hadapp
	and the second second second second second second second	e gaivibrit sality
ta Anal	Lysis and Experimental Design	10 NEWS 11 20

The military attractiveness scores were computed for freshmen cadets and freshmen civilians on the Semantic Differential Scale and a 2 x 2 factorial design was used with two levels of Status (Cadets vs. Civilians) and two levels

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of Military Attractiveness (Low vs. High). The levels of Military Attractiveness were based upon military attractiveness scores which fell below (Low) or above (High) the mean military attractiveness score of 42.30 for the entire sample. There were 101 cadets in the low attractiveness group and 151 cadets in the high attractiveness group. For the civilians, there were 69 persons in the low attractiveness group and 35 persons in the high attractiveness group.

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Results

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Table 4.8 presents the means for the six derived response scales and the commitment scale for the four groups. A 2 x 2 factorial MANOVA was performed across the seven response variables and yielded a significant Status variable effect, Hotelling-Lawley Trace = .238, $\underline{F}(7, 346) = 11.75$, $\underline{p} < .01$. The Status x Military Attractiveness interaction failed to reach statistical reliability.

Separate univariate analyses performed on each response variable indicated that: (a) cadets were significantly more concerned with issues related to World Orientation (p < .01), Self-Orientation (p < .05) and Future-Military (p < .01) than civilians; (b) civilians had significantly (p < .05) higher commitment scores than cadets; and (c) persons who perceived the military as low in attractiveness were more concerned with Future-Personal factors (p < .01) than persons who had high military attractiveness scores. Finally, a check was made to determine whether the larger sample of all-military cadets might possibly have biased the above findings with regard to comparisons between cadets and civilians. Subsequent analyses revealed that with the exception of commitment this was not the case since the means of the cadets from the all-military institution were, in fact, slightly lower than other cadets. The all-military cadets showed significantly lower commitment scores than the other cadets and the civilians.

Since a specific purpose of the present study was to examine the <u>differences</u> within the <u>cadet</u> <u>sample</u> and because cadets were significantly (p < .01) higher than civilians in the mean Military Attractiveness score, an additional analysis

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Means for the Siz-Derived Scales and Commitment Measure

as a Function of Status and Attractiveness of the Military

and the	Cade	its a second of the	Civili	lans and and
	Low Military Attractiveness	High Military Attractiveness	Low Military Attractiveness	High Military Attractiveness
World Orientation	10.87	10.80	10.07	9.20
Self Orientation	6.82	6.68	6.07	6.49
Future-Military	11.75	12.37	9.81	9.83
Future-Personal	4.55	3.85	4.32	4.26
Positive Personal	12.49	12.69	12.31	12.06
Negative Personal	7.88	7.95	7.51	6.97
Counitment	27.55	28.58	29.28	29.71

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was computed on the differences between cadets who scored below and above the mean <u>cadet</u> Military Attractiveness score of 44.94. A Hotelling T^2 analysis was performed between the Low Military Attractiveness group (N=125) and the High Military Attractiveness group (N=127) and indicated that the two groups differed significantly over the seven measures, Hotelling-Lawley Trace = .083, $\underline{F}(7,244) =$ 2.88, $\underline{p} < .01$. With regard to the individual response comparisons, it was found that the cadets with Low Military Attractiveness scores were significantly more concerned ($\underline{p} < .05$) with Future-Personal factors and lower ($\underline{p} < .05$) in Commitment than cadets who had High Military Attractiveness scores.

A check for sample bias was made by repeating the analysis with cadet status (all-military institution vs. mixed institution) as a second variable in a 2 x 2 MANOVA design. The results indicated that <u>cadet status failed to interact</u> <u>significantly with military attractiveness</u> for any of the response variables. The main effects of Military Attractiveness were found to be the same as observed in the original analysis.

Discussion

The data reveal several striking results concerning those variables which underlie the attractiveness of the military. First, as expected, the sample of freshmen cadets showed <u>higher Military Attractiveness scores</u> than the freshmen civilians. Secondly, as a group, freshmen cadets <u>attributed more</u> <u>concern and importance</u> to factors dealing with: (a) war, being killed, belief in God, and corruption in positions of authority (<u>World Orientation</u>); (b) flunking out of college, changing career plans, and being unemployed (<u>Self-Orientation</u>); and (c) a career upon graduation, a society that may be weak in national defense, and being a leader (<u>Tuture-Military</u>). Third, freshmen civilians showed a significantly higher commitment to expressed religious and political ideology and also a career than did freshmen cadets. Finally, in determining factors which relate to the attractiveness of the military, those individuals, whether civilian or

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cadet, who placed importance and concern in choice of a spouse and having a family (<u>Future-Personal</u>) perceived the Military to be lower in attractiveness. Furthermore, cadets who were low in commitment also expressed lower Military Attractiveness scores than cadets who were high in commitment.

In its entirety, the above results clearly reflect a situation in which the freshmen cadet attributes importance and concern to a different constellation of factors than civilians. Those cadets who find the military to be high in attractiveness also are high in personal commitment and low in concern for personal factors such as choosing a spouse and having a family. Cadets show a higher attraction to the military and have less concern for the above personal factors than civilians.

Based upon Marcia's conceptualization of ego-identity status, high commitment is interpreted as indicating that an individual is committed to an occupational goal and also a religious and political ideology. Whether this commitment has occurred from a series of crisis and decision-making events or a direct manifestation of parental influence is problematic. The present data indicate clearly that attractiveness to the military is directly related to commitment and negatively related to concern for personal factors such as choice of a spouse and having a family.

Finally, the finding that the lower commitment scores for the cadets from the all-military institution biased the commitment comparison of cadets and civilian is puzzling. A possible reason could be that the demands and pressures placed upon a cadet at an all-military institution may infact result in lower commitment. At the present time, the authors feel that any hypothesis for this relationship would be speculative and that further research is needed to better understand the finding.

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APPENDIX 4.3

Dear College Student:

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You have been randomly selected to be part of a research project involving an attempt to understand how the typical college student views things like religion, education, politics, the military, marriage, and other institutions in society.

The project involves your completing a questionnaire which is ANONYMOUS and therefore we would really appreciate your frank and honest response. This questionnaire is being given in various parts of the country to a large sample and your responses will be grouped in with this sample.

It should take you approximately 35 minutes to complete the questionnaire. Please be sure to answer every item.

Thank you for your cooperation.

P.S. It is hard to overstress the importance of <u>your</u> responses for the validity of this survey. Unless you answer each item thoughtfully and completely, we cannot find meaningful answers to how college students feel about their past, present, and future environment.

PART I. General Data (Answer Yes or No)

____1. Are you a member of a fraternity or sorority?

- 2. Do you live on-campus?
- 3. Are you a member of ROTC or a Cadet Corps?
- _____ 3. Are you a member of ROTC or a Cadet Corps?
- 4. Are you a full-time student?
- 5. Age
 - 6. Sex

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PART II. Choose one of the following four REACTIONS for each aspect:

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a. Over the past few years, I have spent considerable time thinking and worrying about this topic and it is extremely important to me.

b. Over the past few years, I have thought about it but I am not worried about it.

c. I have just this year begun to seriously think about it and I suspect that it will be given deeper thought over the next year since it is important to me.

d. I have never really given it any deeper thought because I feel that it is not very important or really pertains to me at this time.

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1. Belief in God

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- 2. Choice of a spouse
- 3. A career when you graduate
- 4. Being financially secure
- 5. Having a family
- 6. Choice of a curriculum major
- 7. Going to war and being killed
- _____ /. Coing to wat use being million
 - 8. Having to take a job that you did not like
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- 9. Taking a job or position that did not offer any advancement
- 10. Having an unhappy marriage that might develop in a divorce
- 11. Living in a society that is weak in national defense
- 12. Living in a society in which there is a communist takeover
- 13. Having a nuclear war
- 14. Having a military takeover of the government
- 15. Becoming physically disabled
- 16. Flunking out of college
- 17. Being a leader
- 18. Corruption in positions of authority
- 19. Changing your present career plans after college
 - 20. Being unemployed

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	Please choose that answer that best describes you.
	With respect to the extent of my political involvement, the following
Note Al	statement best describes me:
	a. I actively take part in at least one political group or organization
	and help campaign during elections. b. I am a member of a political party contribute to compaign funds and
	vote. c. I don't contribute to campaign funds but I do vote.
	d. I do not vote because I am just too busy.
	e. I do not vote because it does not matter whether an individual votes or not.
_ 2.	When I am a member of a group in which political issues are being discussed,
	I:
4) BBA	a. actively take part and express my political views, sometimes actually reaching the point of becoming angered during the course of the discussion
	cussion. b. actively take part and express my views but seldom become involved
	enough to get excited or angered over the discussion.
and the	c. will answer questions when asked my but do not express my views
and a bi	unless asked.
	d. as a rule do not discuss politics regardless of how I feel.
102/90	e. do not actively take part in discussion because I do not feel very strongly about any political issues.
3.	To change my political beliefs:
	a. would be almost impossible.
	b. would be difficult but not impossible.
	c. no more possible than impossible.
	d. would be fairly easy. e. would be very easy.
	A STATE OF A
4.	Since leaving high school, my political beliefs have:
	 a. changed considerably. b. changed somewhat.
1 223 1	D. Changed somewhat.
	 c. not sure how or if they have changed. d. remained basically the same.
21年1月1日	e. revained almost exactly the same.
5.	With respect to religion, I would classify myself:
(i and	a, devoutly religious.
	 athiest; I deny that a God exists. somewhat religious.
	d. I do not know how I would classify myself.
	e. agnostic; I do not know whether a God exists.
6.	The statement, "Religious beliefs, including the denial of God, are not
1	important anyway." would be:
	a. very inconsistent with my philosophy of life.
	b. somewhat inconsistent with my philosophy of life. c. neutral or irrelevant to my philosophy of life.
	d. somewhat consistent with my philosophy of life.

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- If someone asked me about the development of my religious beliefs from childhood, I would most likely state that:
- a. I have gone through periods of very deep thought concerning my religious beliefs, and through this process I have developed my present beliefs.

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- b. my beliefs have changed but with little deep thought.
- c. there has been little or no change in my beliefs.
 - d. my beliefs have simply become less important to me.
 - e. my beliefs are in a process of change at this time.

8. If I were in a group discussing religious beliefs I would:

- a. express my view and try to encourage others to accept it.
- b. defend my beliefs but not encourage others to believe them.
- c. remain silent because I seldom take part in group discussions regardless of how strong my beliefs are.
 - d. remain silent because I am not exactly sure of what my religious beliefs are and I do not feel confident enough to discuss them.
 - e. remain silent because the subject is not important anyway.
 - 9. In selecting a partner for marriage:
 - a. I would change my religion or denomination if my partner wished me to.
 - b. I would <u>not</u> change my religion or denomination if my partner wished me to.
 - c. both my partner and I would change to a different religion or denomination.
 - d. I would change my denomination but not change to a different religion such as changing from Protestant to Jewish.

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- 10. Five years from now:
 - a. I very likely will be pursuing a career or further studies in the major field I am studying now.
 - b. I probably will be pursuing a career or further studies in the major field I am studying now.
 - c. I am not sure that I will be pursuing a career or further studies in the major field I am studying now.
 - d. I most likely will <u>not</u> be pursuing a career or further studies in the major field I am studying now.
 - e. I do not know nor care what I will be doing with respect to a career five years from now.
- 11. If I were offered a chance to earn a substantially greater salary in an entirely different field or career (assuming such factors as job location, job difficulty, etc. remained the same), I would:
 - a. reject the offer without hesitation.
 - b. reject the offer but probably with a certain degree of regret.
 - c. probably encounter a great deal of vacillation and doubt.
 - accept the offer but certainly have some doubt about changing majors or careers.
 accept the offer with no doubts.
 - e. accept the offer with no doubts.
- If I could find an easier major in which I could succeed, I would:
 a. definitely not change majors.
 - b. probably not change majors.
 - c. not sure what I would do.
 - d. probably change majors.
 - e. definitely change majors.

- 13. I know that I can depend on myself in times of personal stress:
 - a. because I have previously gone through periods of personal stress and after much personal reflection resolved the problem and felt better prepared to cope with similar situations.
 - b. because other people told me I could.

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- c. I am not sure that I can because I have never been in a very stressful situation without help from my family.
- d. I am not sure that I can but I would say that I am at a point in my life that I shall soon find the answer.

PART IV.

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We are trying to find a way of measuring the meanings college students associate with certain concepts. Each of the following pages has two different names printed and underlined above 10 pairs of words. Each pair of words is separated by seven numbered spaces. We call these numbered spaces a scale.

You are requested to rate each of the concepts as they appear on the page using the scales which appear under the underlined word. For example, if you feel that a particular concept is best characterized by one or the other ends of the scale, or somewhere in between, you would circle that number that best describes what the concept means to you.

SAMPLE

			DEMOCRACY	
۸.	Freedom (1:2:	3:4:5:6:7	Slavery
B.	Rich	1:2:	3:4:5:6:7	Poor
с.	Few	1:2:	3:4:5:6:7	Many
D.	High (1:2:	3:4:5:6:7	Low

If each of the circled scale numbers best described what the concept democracy meant to you, you would mark 1 for item A, mark 4 for item B, mark 7 for item C, etc.

Please work at a fairly high speed through the test. Do not worry or puzzle over any item. It is your first impression that we want. LEWALL MANAGER

Please answer all items.

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	Selfish	1	:	2	:	3		4	:	5		6	:	7	Unselfish
	Sympathetic	1	:	2	:	3	•	4	:	5	:	6	:	7	Unsympathetic
	Unbiased	1	•	2		3	•	4	:	5		6	:	7	Biased
evelooses a lettito a saves	testerie a Bad	1		2		3	\$	4	:	5	. .	6		7	Good
	Polite	1	:	2	:	3	:	4		5	:	6		7.	Impolite
	Cruel				11-25-06		ange de				524 (3 (2)) 3 (7 (3 (3 (3 (3 (3 (3 (3 (3 (3 (3 (3 (3 (3	141.455 T. 1.54			Kind
test to:	Hypocritical	1		2		;3		4	:	5	:	6	:	7	Genuine

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Honest	1	:	2	:	3		4		5		6	:	7	Dishonest
Unjust										202				
Selfish	1 1		2	:	3	:	4	:	5	:	6	:	7	Unselfish
Sympathetic	1	****	2	:	3	:	4	:	5	:	6	:	7	Unsympathetic
Unbiased	1	:	2	:	3	:	4	:	5	:	6	:	7	Biased
Bed	1	:	2	:	3		4	:	,5	*	6		.7	Good
Polite	1	23 •	2		3		4	:	5	:	6	:	7	Impolite
Cruel	1		2		3		4		5	:	6	••	7	
Hypocritical	1		2	:	3		4	:	5		6		7	Genuine

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Polite 1:2:3:4:5:6:7 Impolite

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SECTION V

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INTRA-GROUP CONFLICT: INDIVIDUAL VERSUS UNIT OBJECTIVES

One of the most significant and challenging problems in the socialization of the individual is the development of social sensitivity and an awareness of the importance of group loyalty and group welfare. Early preoccupation with self-indulgence must gradually give way to social concern. The resolution of the conflict between individual and group needs is essential to the survival and integrity of the group. It determines to a great extent the effectiveness of group behavior. One of the major tasks of all leaders is to integrate these different objectives with a view toward reasonably satisfying all the demands. Each person must recognize the needs of others as well as the overall objectives of the group in which he is a participating member. Yet our knowledge on how to affect this resolution has been handicapped by the paucity of research data on the nature of the antecedent conditions determining the relative strengths of these objectives (Phillips and Devault, 1957).

A general knowledge of the nature of human needs is prerequisite to the specific task of management. As an infant, the individual is passive dependent, and unaware of self. As he matures he tends to become more independent and seeks to satisfy higher needs according to Maslow's hierarchy of needs. Flippo contends that "this process of maturation, as well as certain fundamental assumptions as to the basic nature of man, have a profound effect upon a manager's approach to his personnel. Sociologists, psychologists, and anthropologists differ as to the basic nature of man, whether he is essentially good and cooperative, or indolent and in conflict. Various practicing managers are also in conflict on these points; the point, however, is that their respective philosophies inevitably and drastically affect their managerial approach [1966, p. 177]." The process of merging individual and group needs has been

called the fusion process. Bakke defines this term as "the simultaneous operation of the socializing process by which the organization seeks to make an agent of the individual for the achievement of organizational objectives, and of the personalizing process by which the individual seeks to make an agency of the organization for the achievement of his personal objectives [1955, p. 5]." If both the unit and the person are satisfied, there is successful fusion. If either one is dissetisfied, there is a lesser degree of fusion. Flippo (1966) points out that perfect fusion is both impossible and undesirable since growth is enhanced by conflict as well as by cooperation. Argyris (1954) applied this fusion model to a study of a bank organization. He found that in the bookkeeping department fusion was low. The demands of the job did not meet the desires of the groups of young girls in the department. Their work restricted their desire to talk, visit, etc. The turnover in this department was very high compared to the tellers in the same bank who worked in a situation with high fusion. Obviously, workers will quit jobs where conflicts are most . experienced if opportunities are available for higher fusion in other job situations. Perhaps this might be one cogent reason for resignations and refusals to re-enlist in the Army. If freedom of movement does not exist because of pension arrangements, seniority system, and family ties, conflict and low fusion may be forced upon the organization and the person.

The proposed study attempts to assess some of the conditions leading to low fusion and high conflict between individual and group needs. In particular, the investigation focuses on personality (the level of moral development) and the organizational reward structure, promotive and contrient interindependent. In a conflict between self- and social-interest it would be expected that one's level of moral development would be relevant to the

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resolution of such dilemmas. Morality has been conceptualized as conscience, as a set of standards for social action which has been incorporated by the individual. Three different aspects of internalization have been indicated by various theories: the behavioral, emotional, and judgmental aspects of moral action. The behavioral criterion stresses intrinsically motivated conformity or resistance to temptation. The second criterion of internalization is the existence of guilt, that is selfpunitive, self-critical reactions of remorse and anxiety following violation of social standards. In Kohlberg's conception of the six stages of moral development, Stages 2 and 4 imply definite reactions to self- versus social-interest. Stage 2 is characterized by a naive egoistic orientation. Right action is that which instrumentally satisfies the self's needs and occasionally others'. Stage 4, on the other hand, is characterized as authority and social order maintaining orientation. Orientation to doing one's duty and showing respect for authority and maintaining the social order for its own sake. Regard for earned expectations of others is important. It is therefore predicted that Stage 2 subjects are more likely to be concerned for their own needs than for needs of the group while Stage 4 subjects will be more concerned with the needs of the group.

The reward structure of the organization is also most important in facilitating fusion. All too often, higher authority has used incentives of one sort or another to increase productivity. Competition has been the keynote of extracting maximum individual effort. Prizes, honors, bonuses, promotions, and symbolic rewards of one sort or another have been promised to those individuals who excel all others in the group. In situations where output depends on the individual's effort this rewarding procedure may increase production, particularly if conducted in an equitable manner,...

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but sometimes these procedures may be counterproductive. Particularly, in situations where the individuals have to work cooperatively, it is most doubtful whether emphasis on individual effort is beneficial, as for example, in a football team or military unit. Morton Deutsch (1949) has defined contrient interdependence as a condition in which the success of one person leads to the inevitable failure of another person (zero-sum game). In promotive interdependence, the interaction of participants is nutually beneficial. A cooperative motive is a mutual or shared one; the person who possesses a cooperative motive seeks the outcome that is beneficial to all participants. A competitive motive seeks an outcome that is most beneficial to oneself and most detrimental to the other participants. A reward structure of contrient interdependence ("competitiveness") places a greater premium on self-satisfaction and tends to decrease fusion while a reward structure of promotive interdependence ("cooperation") in a group situation tends to increase fusion. The purpose of the present study was to determine whether a relationship exists between level of moral development and satisfaction with various strategies for distributing rewards in small groups. Two strategies for distributing rewards were evaluated: a competitive strategy (contrient interdependent) and a modified competitive strategy (modified contrient) in which all members of the group got some part of the reward, but the most influential member got more reward. Two levels of moral development were assessed: preconventional and conventional. It was predicted that preconventional subjects would be more satisfied with a strategy emphasizing reward of individual efforts, whereas conventional subjects would be more satisfied by a strategy emphasizing reward based on group efforts.

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Subjects. Seventy-eight males from Introductory Psychology classes at Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University volunteered to participate in a three-part study for extra credit. During the first session, subjects were given the Rest Defining Issues Test (Rest, 1974) which has been shown to assess the extent to which principled reasoning is used in evaluating moral questions. Data from the fifty-eight subjects who appropriately completed the Defining Issues Test (DIT) were used to provide the subject pool for the present study. The attrition rate was generally found to be high, because the test required careful attention to several questions for a period of about onehalf hour. It would appear, based on experience here, that many subjects are participating solely to gain extra credit and will invest themselves wholeheartedly in any difficult task.

The range of scores on the DIT was 9 to 37 with a mean of 24.2. The subjects were divided into two groups at the median score, which was 23. to form two groups with twenty-eight subjects having scores of 23 or less and thirty subjects having scores of 24 or higher. The groups were called "low principled" and low-moderate principled", respectively. Such designations were given, because the range of scores found in the sample replicated those of a previous sample taken at VPI&SU (number of subjects--83; range of scores--8-43; mean--25.1) and appeared to represent the lower half of the distributions found by Rest (1974) at eastern and midwestern universities.

Although the principled scores derived from the DIT do not conform exactly to the stages and levels presented by Kohlberg, they do adequately evaluate the level of principled or postconventional reasoning used by

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subjects, such that meaningful distinctions may be made among subjects. which approximate the Kohlberg stages.

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The data on small groups for this study were collected during the third session of the three part experiment. Although every effort was taken to equally distribute the subjects from each principled group into the two treatment groups, further problems of attrition and inappropriately completed data sheets prevented the assignment of equal numbers of subjects to each treatment group. Thus, the data analyses were completed using an analysis of variance for unequal n's. The number of subjects per cell ranged from 6 to 9.

<u>Procedure</u>. Subjects were telephoned approximately four to six weeks after the initial testing session and asked to return to participate in a small group experiment as the third session in which they had agreed to participate. Subjects were assigned to form six-person groups which consisted of equal numbers of low, low-moderate, or unclassified subjects who were used to fill up the groups.

When the subjects arrived at the experimental room, they were seated individually and given a 4" x 6" card to use to make a name plate and two copies of the problem which were separated by carbon paper. The experimenter told the subjects what they were to do and read them the instructions on the problem sheet. When all subjects had completed both the name plate and rankings, the experimenter collected the carbon copies of the rankings and sent the subjects to form a group at the table in the middle of the room. The subjects were then given an unused copy of the rankings form and were read the instructions appropriate to the treatment condition to which they had been assigned. The instructions were either those appropriate to developing a contrient interdependent ("competitive") or a mixture of promotive and contrient instructions called modified contrient (modified cooperative). The instructions read were as fol-

Contrient Interdependent -- Now we would like for you rank order the items for importance as a group. You may have up to 20 minutes to discuss the problem and arrive at a group decision. We have a bonus in real cash, which we will give to the person who has the most influence on the group's decision. The speed with which the group reaches its decision will determine the amount of money which will be awarded to the most influential member. If the group reaches its decision in 5 minutes or less, the most influential member will receive \$4.00. If more than 5 minutes but less than 10 minutes are required to arrive at a group decision, the most influential member will receive \$3.00. If more than 10 but fewer than 15 minutes are required, the most influential member will receive \$2.00. If more than 15 minutes are required, the most influential member will receive \$1.00. We have an objective method for determining the most influential member of the group called the "unrevealed difference technique," which I cannot discuss with you at this point. Do you have any questions? Modified Contrient -- Now we would like for you to rank order the items for importance as a group. You may have up to 20 minutes to discuss the problem and arrive at a group decision. We have a bonus in real cash which we will distribute to the group on the following basis. If the group reaches a decision within 5 minutes or less, we will give each member of the group \$1.00 and we will give the most influential member of the group 4 times that amount or \$4.00. If the group takes more than 5 minutes but less than 10 minutes, we will give each group member \$.75 and the most influential member \$3.00. If more than 10 minutes but

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less than 15 minutes is required, we will give each group member \$.25 and the most influential member \$1.00. We have an objective method for determining the most influential member of the group called the "unrevealed difference technique," which I cannot discuss with you at this point. Do you have any questions?

At the conclusion of the group session, subjects were given rating scales to determine their satisfaction with their group's performance and their attitudes toward both their own and other possible group strategies. During the time subjects were completing their forms, the experimenter in the contrient interdependent and modified contrient groups calculated the difference scores to determine which member had been the most influential by the "unrevealed difference technique" (Bodin, 1966; Hadley and Jacob, 1973).

When the subjects had completed their group ratings, the experimenter collected their data sheets and spoke to them as a group telling them how much money they had earned and who was the most influential member (where the latter was applicable). Then the experimenter gave the subjects another brief questionnaire and a receipt for the subjects to sign indicating acceptance of the monetary reward. When the subjects had completed these last acts, they were dismissed after all questions about the experiment had been answered.

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Two 3 x 2 between groups analyses of variance for unequal n's were completed to assess the influence of group instructions on low and low-moderate subjects' reactions to their group experience. A statistically significant interaction more group instructions and level of principled reasoning ($\underline{F} = 10.43$, $\underline{df} = 1$, .005) was observed on question 4, "Were you satisfied with the way we read as would distribute the rewards?" The analysis of variance summary table assess and standard deviations of the responses are shown in Tables 5.1

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and 5.2 respectively. An analysis of the interaction using Duncan's New Multiple Range Test indicated (p s < .05) that low principled subjects were reliably more satisfied with the competitive strategy than were low moderate principled subjects and that low-moderate principled subjects were reliably more satisfied with the modified cooperative strategy than were low principled subjects. Additionally, the low principled subjects in the competitive strategy were reliably more satisfied than the low principled subjects in the modified cooperative strategy and the low-moderate principled subjects in the modified cooperative strategy were more satisfied than the low-moderate principled subjects in the competitive strategy. store adoptentia set isselector zup/rg surround be there are incharged

An analysis of the responses to the question of how satisfied the subjects were with the actual distribution rewards yielded no main effects or significant interaction. The analysis of variance summary table and the means and standard deviations of the ratings are shown in Tables 5.3 and 5.4. arrively that estimat and who was the next infituences muchan (whate the latter

Discussion

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in said to incluse brief ques The general purpose of the study was to determine if there was a relationship between level of principled reasoning and satisfaction with reward distribution strategies which emphasized individual efforts (a competitive strategy) versus group efforts (a modified cooperative strategy). The prediction was made that low principled subjects would be more concerned with their own needs, whereas moderate principled subjects would be more concerned with the group's needs. The two reward distribution strategies selected were designed to emphasize individual effort and represented as either inequitable distribution of the rewards or group efforts with individual effort recognized by a larger share of the reward and represented an equitable distribution of the rewards based on a proportionality strategy. Given these conditions, it would be expected that low principled subjects would express greater satisfaction with the competitive

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Table 5.1

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Table 5.2

Means and standard deviations of ratings of satisfaction with strategies for the distribution of rewards

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2_{n=7}

3_{n=6}

4_{n=9}

5_{n=9}

	ebri ser gi	Subjects' Prin	cipled Level
Group Instructions	. <u>omoga a</u>	Low	Low-Moderate
Contrient In	terdependent	5.3 <u>+</u> 1.38 ²	3.5 ± 0.84^3
Modified Con	trient	$3.8 + 1.09^4$	$5.1 + 1.69^5$

¹Ratings were based on a 7-point scale with 1 equalling a rating of very dissatisfied and 7 equalling very satisfied.

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Table 5.4

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Means and standard deviations of subjects ratings of satisfaction, with the experimenter's distribution of the rewards.

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2 n=7

3 n=6

n=9

5 1=9

	Subjects Trines	
Group <u>Instructions</u>	Low	Low-Moderate
Contrient Interdependent	2.0 ± 0.82^2	3.7 ± 2.16 ³
Modified Contrient	2.4 ± 1.67 ⁴ and 10	2.0 ± 1.00 ⁵

weigh instructions a level of article led reasoning

Ratings were based on a 6-point scale with 1 equalling a rating of very satisfied and 6 equalling very diasatisfied strategy, whereas low-moderate principled subjects would express greater satisfaction with the modified cooperative strategy.

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Two questions were used as dependent variables to assess the satisfaction of the subjects with the reward strategies. The first question asked directly whether subjects were satisfied with the reward distribution plan. The data confirmed the prediction that low principles subjects would express greater satisfaction with a competitive strategy than low-moderate subjects and that low-moderate subjects would express greater satisfaction with a modified cooperative strategy than would low principled subjects. The second question asked about subjects' satisfaction with the actual distribution of rewards but did not support the predictions at a statistically reliable level. Thus, the basic arguments of the present study that a relationship between level of principled reasoning and satisfaction with strategies for distribution of rewards were supported by the direct question about satisfaction with strategies, but were not supported by the question as to satisfaction with the actual distribution of rewards. Tures analy is it at a start of the and an and a start of the start of the start of the start of the start of the

An implication of the present study is that although subjects may express satisfaction or dissatisfaction with particular reward strategies, they may or may not be satisfied with the actual outcome of reward distribution. Because there was no quantifiable product which each individual contributed that could be examined, it was not possible to determine the extent to which an individual's real performance was influenced by the strategy for reward distribution. However, it might be assumed that expressed dissatisfaction with reward strategy would lead sooner or later to dissatisfaction with the organization for which one is working and consequently to lowered production. Thus, one possibility for future studies would be to exemine the extent to which individual performance is actually influenced by satisfaction or dissatisfaction with a new reward strategy.

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VALUE CONFLICT AND THE LEGITIMACY OF AUTHORITY

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entries while the andified cooperative strates In the military, obedience to authority is one of the most valued the beauty to be a star a norms. From the moment the recruit enters the system, he is indoctrin-ANT STATE AND ated in the inviolacy of military authority. Differences in dress, w Lotticters and the wath increases with the privileges, living conditions, symbols, training all tend to accentuate and the prediction that differences in status. Instances of disobedience are most severely punished. Yet, despite all these forces, there are increasing signs of an erosion of the legitimacy of military authority. It is the purpose of this study to explore the conditions that may be related to the breakdown of authoritative influence, namely, conflicts in moral values and managerial conceptions of human nature.

French and Raven describe legitimate power as follows: "Legitimate power of O/P is here defined as that power which stems from internalized values in P which dictate that 0 has a legitimate right to influence P and that P has an obligation to accept this influence [1959, p. 159]." Three bases of legitimate power are cultural values, acceptance of the social structure, and designation of 0 as a legitimate power holder by some other legitimizing agent whom P accepts. Goldhamer and Shils (1939) noted that there are three major forms of legitimate power. Legitimate power is regarded as legal when the acceptance of legatime rests on a belief in the legality of the laws, decrees, and direct issued by the power-holder. It is traditional when it is derived from the belief in the sanctity of traditions by virtue of which the power-holder exercises his power and in the traditional sanctity of the orders which he issues. S. BALL Legitimate power is charismatic when the recognition of legitimacy rests on devotion to the personal qualities of the power-holder. Essential to these conceptions of legitimate power is the acceptance of the cultural

values and social structure by the subordinated individuals. Rejection would tend to erode the legitimacy of suthority and lead to disobedience. A classic study in obedience was conducted by Milgram (1963). He tried to determine how many persons would continue to obey the commands of an authority figure, even when they were endangering the lives of others. He required the subjects to administer increasingly powerful electric shocks to another subject whenever the latter made mistakes on an association test. The subjects were 40 males heterogeneous with respect to age (20-50) and occupation. Of the 40 subjects, 26 or 65 per cent continued to the end of the shock series. He concluded that obedience to commands is a strong force in our society. In studying the personal characteristics of those who obeyed and those who refused the authoritative commands. he found that those who followed orders had significantly higher scores on the F-scale than did those who refused to continue the experiment. Elms and Milgram reported that "significant attitudinal differences between these two groups were manifested towards one's own father, the experimenter, the sponsoring university, willingness to shoot men in wartime, and other concepts somewhat similar to 'authoritarian personalities' [1966, p. 282]." The decision to obey is also related to the level of moral development. Subjects who refused to continue in the experiment generally have more nature moral judgment scores than subjects who obey. Eight of the subjects were at the highest level of moral development; six, or 75 per cent of these, refused to obey orders. Twenty-four subjects were at conventional levels of moral development, and only three, or 12.5 per cent of these, refused to continue. Principled morality was strongly related to the refusal to collaborate in an act that inflicted pain upon another

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human being. These results support the conceptions of moral development proposed by Kohlberg (1963, 1969).

As stated in Section II, the first stage of moral development is the punishment and obedience orientation. The consequences of action determine the goodness and badness of the action, regardless of the meaning of these consequences. Avoidance of punishment and unquestioning deference to power are valued in their own right. The second stage is the instrumental relativist orientation. Right action consists of that which instrumentally satisfied one's own needs and occasionally the needs of others. At the conventional level, which includes the next two stages, maintaining the expectations of one's own family, group, or nation is perceived as valuable in its own right, regardless of immediate and obvious consequences. The attitude is not only one of conformity, but also includes an attitude of loyalty. Emphasis is upon actively maintaining, supporting, and justifying the social order and identifying with the persons or group in it. On the third stage, good behavior is that which pleases, helps, or is approved by others. The fourth stage is made up of law-and-order orientation. Here the orientation is toward authority, established rules, and the maintenance of the social order. Right behavior consists of doing one's duty, showing that one respects authority, and maintaining the social order because it is the given social order. The post-conventional, autonomous, or principled level comprises the fifth and sixth stage of moral development. At the fifth stage (the social-contract-legalistic orientation), right action tends to be defined in relation to general individual rights and with respect to standards that have been critically examined and agreed upon by the whole society. Although the legal point of view is accepted, the possibility of changing the law in light of what seems best

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for society is emphasized (this approach contrasts with the fourth stage, which accepts law as right and does not seek to change it). The highest stage of development, the sixth stage, is the orientation of universal ethical principles. What is morally right is defined not by laws and rules of the social order but by one's own conscience, in accordance with selfdetermined ethical principles. These might include universal principles of justice, principles of the reciprocity and equality of human rights, and respect for the dignity of human beings as individuals.

If Kohlberg's conception of moral development is valid it would be expected that in our present society, very few individuals today, if any, of the highest level of moral development would voluntarily enlist into a "traditional" military organization, or, if they were inducted, they would be most likely to "leave" or refuse to re-enlist or defy military orders if such orders violated their principles. On the other hand, the conventional level person would adapt, obey without question, and be attracted to the military establishment. The second stage person (pre-conventional level) would volunteer if the system is made attractive in terms of the rewards but he would also "leave" if assigned unpleasant tasks or is asked to accept orders which may endanger his life.

The findings of Haan, Smith, and Block (1968) tend to support these predictions. They related student's moral-judgment stages to their political behavior, their participation in student protests, their backgrounds, their perceptions of their parents, and their self- and idealconcepts. About two-thirds of the man possessed conventional moral judgment and 28 per cent possessed post-conventional or principled morality. At stages 1 and 2, the man were found to be politically radical, active and

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protesting but they were more concerned with their personal fulfillment. Respondents at the conventional level were found to have modeled themselves after their parents, having accepted the traditional values of American society. They reported that their parents provided clear rules, punishments, and rewards. These respondents were found to have harmonious, nonskeptical relationships with institutions and authority figures. The students at the principled level were characterized by a firm sense of autonomy in their life patterns and ideological positions. The data on the extent of participation in the 1965 Berkeley Free Speech Movement sitin showed that among the preconventional level 1 and 2, 60 per cent participated and 40 per cent did not. At the highest stages, 41 per cent participated. On stages 3 and 4, only 18 per cent participated. It is significant to note that the reasons for participation are different for the preconventional and postconventional types. The preconventional stage 2 types see protest in terms of a power conflict in which they are out to improve their own status. The principled protesters (stages 5 and 6) are concerned about basic issues of civil liberties.

Flacks after reviewing a number of studies on obedience suggests that "under conditions where authority is defined by subjects as legitimate, they appear highly ready to do what is expected of them, highly likely to delegate processes of judgment to the authority figure--even when coercion and reward are virtually absent and the consequences of obedience are likely to be negative [1969, p. 130]." In the same article he points out that the "emergence of youthful opponents of militarism and of forms of protest based on civil disobedience and confrontation suggests the possibility of an opposing trend. Indeed, one of the more pressing tasks for social analysis is to attempt to understand which figure--Milgram's sub-

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ject or the conscientious resister--best symbolizes the central trends in individual-authority relations in American society [p. 131]." It is significant to note that legitimacy of a particular authority can be measured by the degree to which it can secure conformity without the use of positive or negative sanctions. Flacks enumerates three basic propositions concerning those features of an authority structure which are basic to the maintenance of its legitimacy. Relative to our predictions as to the importance of values, he states that "individuals tend to attribute legitimacy to authority when the exercise of that authority is perceived as beneficial to groups, institutions, or values to which the individual is committed [p. 131]." Later, he elaborates this proposition: "Legitimacy is in danger of erosion if, for example, there is a persistent pattern of inequity experienced by members of a particular class or stratum, if adherents of particular value systems or subcultures feel threatened, unrepresented, or disillusioned by the going system, if the established common values of the national culture are weakened by rapid social change and the national authorities are seen as incompetent to generate or support new values, or if members of particular institutions experience significant discontinuities between their collective goals and those of the authorities [p. 132]."

In addition to value conflicts, two other factors may have a bearing on the legitimacy of the system, that is, the degree to which the organization can adapt itself to meet the changing needs of its constituents and to provide the climate for personal growth. Maslow (1954) suggested that human needs are organized according to a hierarchy in which the lower level needs must be satisfied before higher needs can govern behavior. If the lower level needs are satisfied, the person will behave in accordance with each

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next higher level. From the lowest to the highest needs, Maslow identifies the major needs as physiological needs, safety needs, social needs, egoistic needs, and the need for self-fulfillment. McGregor (1960) has reasoned that since the first two needs are usually taken care of for the group members, the individual is influenced by the higher three need areas. If conformity will satisfy our social egoistic, or self-fulfillment needs, we will conform (Maslow, 1954). Recent events, however, demonstrate that it is doubtful that conformity to the current military system will satisfy these higher needs. Under such circumstances, man will seek alternative opportunities outside the military situation.

In somewhat similar fashion, McGregor (1960) has contrasted two managerial assumptions concerning the nature of man, theory X and theory Y. In essence, theory X sees the average human being as one who prefers to be directed, wishes to avoid responsibility, has relatively little ambition, and wants security above all. Theory Y, on the other hand, assumes that external control and the threat of punishment are not the only means for bringing about effort towards organizational objectives. Man will exercise self-direction and self-control in the service of objectives to which he is committed. Commitment is a function of the rewards associated with their achievement. The most significant of such rewards, e.g., the satisfaction of ego and self-actualization needs, can be direct products of effort, directed toward group goals.

The present section presents two studies directed mainly at the role of level of moral development as a determinant in the legitimacy of authority. Study I was a laboratory experiment which examined the relationship between level of moral development and ratings toward authority, willingness to

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participate in experiments for various incentives and willingness to work for organizations modeled under Theory X or Theory Y. Study II involved a field study performed with military cadets and examined the relationship between level of moral development and the attractiveness of authority.

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The taxes of manage on the Dir was 9 to 33 with a work of 26.2. The subjects more divided into two evolute as the Weltan ecote, which are 23, to pour two storme with two isother subjects having scores of 23 or ione and there subjects having average of 25 or sighter in other to provide a way to calculate subjects able of a storme sighter to the starts of tohiberg. The granes were called "tou and a stores of the starts provide the range found the the stores found to a store of the taxes of tohiberg.

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Authority: A LABORATORY EXPERIMENT

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On the basis of the above formulations on the level of moral development, the hierarchy of needs, and the managerial assumptions about the nature of man, Study I was designed to assess the relationship between level of principled reasoning, ratings of legitimacy of authority, type of needs, and acceptance of Theory X and Y managerial assumptions.

Method

<u>Subjects</u>. Seventy-eight males from Introductory Psychology classes at a large southern university volunteered to participate in a three part study for extra credit. During the first session, subjects were given the Rest Defining Issues Test (Rest, 1974) which has been shown to assess the extent to which principled reasoning is used in evaluating moral questions. Data from the fifty-eight subjects who appropriately completed the Defining Issues Test (DIT) were analyzed to evaluate the predictions of the present study. The attrition rate was generally found to be high, because the test required careful attention to several questions for a period of about one-half hour.

The range of scores on the DIT was 9 to 37 with a mean of 24.2. The subjects were divided into two groups at the median score, which was 23, to form two groups with twenty-eight subjects having scores of 23 or less and thirty subjects having scores of 24 or higher in order to provide a way to categorize subjects in a menner similar to the stages of Kohlberg. The groups were called "low principled" and "low-moderate principled" because the range of scores found in the sample replicated those of a previous sample taken (range: 8-43; mean: 25.1; number of subjects: 83) and appear to represent the lower half of the distribution found by Rest (1974) at the eastern and midwestern universities. It is important to note that all conclusions generated by the present study must be limited to lower levels of principled reasoning.

Apparatus and procedure. During the first testing session of the experiment, all volunteers were assembled in one location and given a consent form which explicitly stated the conditions for participation in the study, the Rest Defining Issues Test, a Semantic Differential which included the concepts of priest, father, judge, military officer, army policeman, and teacher, and a questionnaire which assessed willingness to participate in experiments for five different possible reasons. At the conclusion of the first session, subjects signed up for one of several possible testing sessions in which "transcripts". of conversations between an organization leader and his district salesman were presented and evaluated.

The Rest Defining Issues Test was used as the index of principled reasoning or the level of moral development achieved by the individual subject. Although the principled scores derived from the test do not conform exactly to the stages and levels presented by Kohlberg, they do adequately evaluate the level of principled or postconventional reasoning used by subjects, such that meaningful distinctions may be made among subjects which approximate the Kohlberg stages. The total scores earned by subjects on the different concepts of the

Semantic Differential were used to evaluate attitudes toward authority figures and were taken as an index of acceptance of the legitimacy of the various authority figures. Low total scores indicated a favorable attitude toward authority, whereas high scores indicated an unfavorable attitude toward authority.

The "Questionnaire on Experimental Participation" was used to evaluate the

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level of needs to which the subjects would respond. The questionnaire was given under the instructions that a survey was being run to devise alternative strategies for enlisting the aid of students in psychology experiments. The items on the questionnaire were designed to assess responsiveness to material needs, social needs and self-fulfillment needs.

During the second session, subjects were given transcripts of conversations which had been previously rated by naive, lower level psychology students to be representative of the assumptions of Theory X and Y management. The order of transcripts was counterbalanced randomly across subjects within testing sessions. Subjects were asked to rate each of the transcripts separately on questions as to whether the organization and their leaders would successfully achieve their goals and whether they would be willing to work in the organization. In addition, subjects were asked to rate the organization and its leaders on several adjectival dimensions. Finally, subjects were asked to compare the corporations on a relative basis by stating which of the two they felt would be more effective in raising sales and for which they would prefer to work.

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The relationship between level of principled reasoning and favorability of inver visiteerosa uh eset 白袋带雪的 增长线路 ratings toward authorities (low scores are favorable) is shown in Table 6.1. Distances list wave an action of action that the insertioners in being The means and standard deviations of the ratings of the subjects are shown in expansion inter erreters Statistics States The correlations between the variables show that the total ratings Table 6.2. subsects of the different concepts for all the legitimate authorities are related at a statistically reliable level a company of heav star faligers (p < .01). However, the relationship of the ratings to level of principled reasoning was not statistically reliable with two exceptions: the higher the DICERCIMET & Less wipled reasoning the more unfavorable the rating for military officer level 49 che more unfavorable the rating for Army (p < .01). Thus the data (p < .05) The The Lot Jun 9 大学の学 provide strong evidence that the semantic differential did tap consistent attitudes

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toward authority, but that the level of principled reasoning was not related to acceptance of authority with the two stated exceptions. The means reveal that the Army and military authority are the least favorably rated authority concepts.

The relationship between level of principled reasoning and willingness to participate in experiments for various incentives is shown in Table 6.3. The means and standard deviations of the ratings of the groups are shown in Table 6.4. No statistically reliable relationship between principled score and any of the incentives ware found. The means show that subjects are most interested in working for extra credit or money.

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NERRA

The relationship between level of principled reasoning and ratings of effectiveness of organization and willingness to work for organization under Theory X and Y assumptions are shown in Table 6.5. Means and standard deviations of the scores by principled group are shown in Table 6.6. Again, no reliable relationships between level of principled reasoning and approval of the two sets of managerial assumptions is in evidence. The means reveal, however, that Theory Y is strongly preferred over Theory X.

As a post hoc analysis, the relationship between ratings of willingness to work under Theory X and Y assumptions and ratings of Army and military officer were computed. The correlation coefficients were -.15 and .07 between ratings of military officer and willingness to work under Theories X and Y respectively and .30 (p < .05) and -.05 between ratings of Army and willingness to work under Theories X and Y respectively. Thus, a statistically reliable preference for persons rating the Army favorably to be accepting of Theory X assumptions was observed.

Discussion

The data and conclusions in the present study are restricted to low and

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Correlation matrix of relationship between principled scores and ratings of favorability of legitimate authority figures or concepts.

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-.07 Teacher .41 . 52 .44 .38 .41 . 52 OT BRADE

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Table 6.2

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				Pe	rsonality			
Concept		Low principled (n=25)			Low-Moderate Principled (n=25)		Overall Means	
Priest			15.8 ± 4.77			16.0 ± 6.5	15.9 ± 5.7	
Father			23.4 ± 7.6	20		21.1 ± 7.3	22.3 <u>+</u> 7.4	
Judge		***	25.8 <u>+</u> 9.3	21	çî,	26.1 ± 8.4	25.9 <u>+</u> 9.0	
Military Officer	·	65	30.5 ± 7.8	18.	01.	35.8 ± 6.9	33.2 <u>+</u> 7.6	
Army	8. ⁶ .	21.+	34.1 <u>+</u> 10.6	\$6.	-11.	41.6 ± 8.7	37.9 <u>+</u> 8.9	
Policeman			25.9 <u>+</u> 10.7			28.4 <u>+</u> 11.1	27.2 <u>+</u> 10.8	
Teacher			27.1 ± 9.2			26.1 ± 7.6	26.6 ± 8.5	

26.1 + 9.9 Overall Means

27.9 +11.4

Table 6.3

Correlation matrix of relationship between principled scores and willingness to participate in experiments for various incentives

	P	score	Science	Extra Credit		Other Students	Knowledge
filstay0 anubi	P Score store and			beigiosiją so. (1842.)	1		Concept
چ <u>+</u> ۴. د	Science 2.0 ± 0.01 Extra	.20	-	15.6 ± 8.27			Petest
22.34.4.95	Credit 1.12	23	03	25.4.2			Pather
1.8 4 8.022	Money 6 - 1.85	.12	19	8.8 2 ⁰⁸ .81			ageat.
1.5 ± 3.86	Other + 2.20 Students	.10	.61	9.7 :02 .00	29	-	Milleary Officery
.6 <u>2 9.78</u>	Knowledge	.17	.64	0.014 1 20 17	15	. 48	Start .
05- 2.15	1.11+ 4.85			25.9 £10.7			reseation.
.e ± 0.0%	28.11 ± 2.6			\$.9 ± 1.15			29dose3

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Table 6.4 Table 5.4 instruction of the sector of the secto

Means and standard deviations of willingness to participate in experiments for various

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Incentive Low Principled	Low-Moderate Principled	Overall Means
and techn needed the true and will any officer as	and and the second	COLUMN S
For the sake of science 2.8 ± .66	3.2 ± 1.33	3.0 ± 1.07
the stream seens to which being a these concepts and	equary find to	AN WILLIAM
For extra credit in a 4.9 ± .12	4.7 <u>+</u> 0.41	4.8 ± 0.31

For money 4.4 ±1.28 4.7 ± 0.30 4.6 ± 0.65

For the sake of being able to work with other students and 3.0 ± 1.54 3.3 ± 1.11 3.2 ± 1.23 professor/scientists

For the sake of learning about $3.3 \pm .68$ 3.6 ± 1.43 3.4 ± 1.65

Overall Means 3.7 ±1.28 3.9 ± 1.39

sizes builds has availing of attern bots wash to appropriate and the senset were atterned to

low-moderate principled subjects who approximate the preconventional and conventional levels of moral development. In general, the data failed to show any relationship of any of the variables with level of principled reasoning with the exception of differences between low and low-moderate principled subjects in attitudes toward military officer and Army. It would appear that although the attitudes of low principled subjects toward the Army and military officer are more favorable than those of low-moderate principled subjects, the overall attitudes of both groups are <u>less</u> favorable toward both of these concepts than toward all other concepts of legitimate authority.

One possible explanation of the differences obtained between low and lowmoderate subjects toward military officer and Army is that low principles subjects would be more accepting because of the attractions currently offered by the military. An alternative explanation may be offered, however, based on the arguments laid out in a previous report by Cravens and Worchel (1975). The propositions offered at that time were that preconventional individuals would be most likely to conform to the demands of a physically present authority, whereas conventional subjects would generally conform to the demands of an authority figure who was physically present (but would conform less than preconventional subjects), and postconventional subjects would be least inclined to conform under any circumstances. In the present study, the alternative explanation for the results is that the experimenter, in discussing the procedures and conditions of the experiment with possible subjects to obtain full informed consent, told the subjects that the studies were being conducted as part of a contract to the Army. Under these circumstances, it could be argued that with the presence of the experimenter who was openly representing the Army, the low principled subjects would be likely to conform to the demand characteristics of the implied endorsement of the experimenter for the concepts of Army and military officer and would rate

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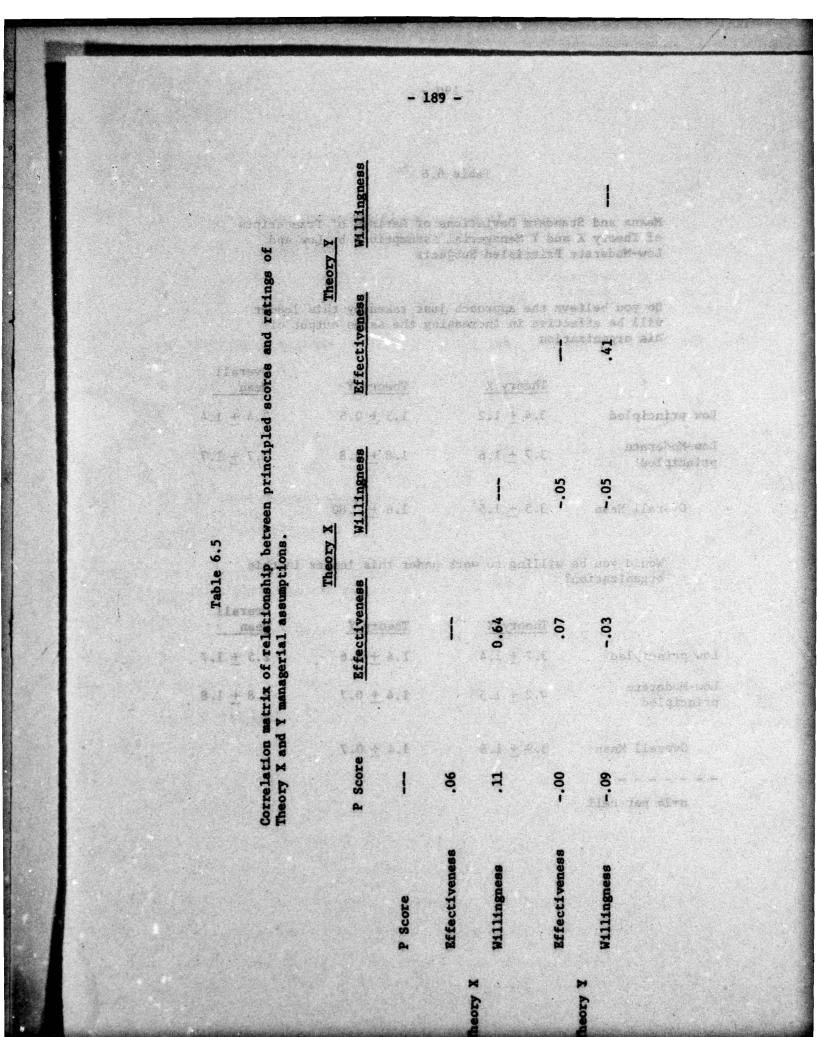


Table 6.6

Means and Standard Deviations of Ratings of Transcripts of Theory X and Y Managerial Assumptions by Low and Low-Moderate Principled Subjects

Do you believe the approach just taken by this leader will be effective in increasing the sales output of his organization

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	Theory X	Theory Y	Mean
Low principled	3.4 <u>+</u> 1.2	1.5 <u>+</u> 0.5	2.4 <u>+</u> 1.4
Low-Moderate principled	3.7 <u>+</u> 1.6	1.8 <u>+</u> 0.8	2.7 <u>+</u> 1.7
E .	E AL		
Overall Mean	3.5 <u>+</u> 1.5	1.6 <u>+</u> .80	

Would you be willing to work under this leader in this organization?

	Theory X	Theory Y	Overall <u>Mean</u>
Low principled	3.7 <u>+</u> 1.4	1.4 <u>+</u> 0.6	2.5 <u>+</u> 1.7
Low-Moderate principled	4.2 <u>+</u> 1.5	1.4 <u>+</u> 0.7	2.8 <u>+</u> 1.8
Overall Mean	3.9 <u>+</u> 1.6	1.4 <u>+</u> 0.7	
	8 2 8		
n=26 per cell			

it more favorably than conventional or low-moderate subjects. It is presumed that if high principled subjects had been available, they would have rated the Army less favorably, both from the standpoint of not being attracted to the Army and from the standpoint of being unwilling to conform to the demand characteristics of the experiment.

No differences were observed in willingness to participate in experiments for different incentives as a function of level of principled reasoning. Thus, no indications were observed that low principled subjects were more willing to work for material rewards or that low-moderate subjects would prefer to work for social rewards. However, the data did indicate that both groups were most willing to work for extra credit and/or money.

The data for preference of Theory Y management over Theory X management was so overwhelming that it is unlikely that any personality variable would have been shown to have influenced the subjects' choices. Personality tends to operate at a maxmial level when circumstances are ambiguous. In a situation where clearly discrepant alternatives are offered and one of the alternatives represents a social ideal, personality should not be expected to influence choice and in the present study it did not influence choice. However, an evaluation of the ratings of Theory X which was the less preferred alternative did yield an interesting fact: Persons rating Army favorably were more accepting of Theory X transcripts of managerial assumptions by indicating greater willingness to work under these conditions than those rating the Army less favorably. In many respects it is not surprising that those who accept the Army are also more accepting of Theory X assumptions of management which is the Army's traditional style. However, the present empirical confirmation, which took place over two entirely different testing sessions, does suggest that a simple device designed to test

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acceptance of an authoritarian structure could produce better selection results than a detailed analysis of personality. Thus, one implication of the present study is that further efforts to directly assess attitudes toward authority and styles of leadership rather than personality should be more fruitful in predicting success in the military.

No differences were observed in villingness in participate in experimentafai different intentives as a furnition of tayel of principled fedgoning. Thus, is indications which observed shat ion principled subjects which may be vork for material remarks of that ion moderate addicts model prefer to wart for social reserves, the date the fedicare that boil suppose were need willing to example the face the fedicare that boil suppose were need

The first properties of history is announced to be any one hashing the sould have and as reached ing that is is withinky one any one mainly warbicks would have been boom to have lifting the is a withinky one and the situation with the set of a second term is the reaches are othered and cos of the situation were and theat, personality should and he expected to follows and the situation and the person atual term is the matches are othered and cos of the situation and the situation of theat, personality should and he expected to follow the situation and the situation of theat, personality should and he expected to follow the situation and the situation of theat, personality should and he expected to follow the situation and the situation of theat is an information of the situation the situation of the situation is present at the second sources the taxe presented to granter and the trajet and the personality is an information is to the situation of the situation is the second time is an information of the situation of the situation is the situation of the situation of the situation of the situation is the situation of the situation of the situation of the situation is the situation of the situation of the situation of the situation is the situation of the situation

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AUTHORITY: A FIELD STUDY

Margor, and American, 1974). From the rationale presented in the introduction to Section VI, it was he Leadership Behavior Description (heat format predicted that: 1) The military life-style of the Corps of Cadets would attract codets to describe the behavior of that ranad issier of predominately those persons who rely upon conventional moral reasoning. Those Personaton, fulliaring Stracture, Frendom, Consideration, 1 at the conventional level would have a lower turnover rate in the corps and 1997). Bach diamanidara concatas su Control Boo Lilbon Willies would gain greater satisfaction from their life-style than those of both the preine cater cares said states shiel describe lands and post-conventional stages; 2) The cadets in the conventional stage, those with to his leader's behavior on a 网络雷尔尔 网络古尔哈 the lower P-scores, would have an overall more positive attitude towards the Necastocally, Select military than those of higher P-scores; 3) The reasoning level of a cadet leader would be related to the cadet subordinate's perception of different ments that describe seven aspects of cadet life including the manner in which the cadet describes the case, of the cadors' corces. The icens are eithar day leader's behavior. tion of dispatistaction. House, the result of the 304 is a store in

Method

and maintain and fleating . entrant and theries with bach lob aspects In order to determine the relationship between a person's moral-judgment stage and his attitude toward authority in a military type of situation, 231 freshmen cadets and their squad leaders completed the Defining Issues Test. The cadets also completed the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire referring to their squad leader, the Job Descriptive Index modified to measure satisfaction derived from their leader, duties, and fellow cadets. In addition, No edd ... ville bittlogof AT AMA the cadets rated their overall satisfaction with cadet life on a five-point 并容易了素良学说。为我们这一地也的 New locking as scale, and completed two Cantril attitude-anchoring scales. A cadet's ont no visition and datum was included in the analysis only if he had completed all the measures of concern to the hypothesis test. Hence, sample size varies between analyses.

The Defining Issues Test is an objective instrument for the determination of a person's stage of moral reasoning which follows closely to Kohlberg's stages

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of moral development. The result of scoring the DIT is the P-score which reflects the extent to which a person relies upon principled, or post-conventional, reasoning in order to resolve a moral dilemma (Rest, 1974; Rest, Cooper, Coder, Masanz, and Anderson, 1974).

Log soligableric bels or herman The Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) required the the of Cadely would attract into Herry cadets to describe the behavior of their squad leader on six-dimensions:

sentional movel regenitary These Persuasion, Initiating Structure, Freedom, Consideration, Production, and Responhow Fores and hi susy rayor sibility (Stogdill and Coons, 1957). Each dimension contains several statements to secul made of tanattat which describe leader behavior. The cadet rated each statement as it applies the conventional stages, those of to his leader's behavior on a five-point scale from Always, through Often,

the lover Percess, could have to overall more possibly accitede rowards the Occasionally, Seldom, to Never. TODES

to lavel salma The Job Descriptive Index (JDI) required the cadet to check off state-中方四世之門 ments that describe several aspects of his or her job (Smith, 1967), in this and nodificito ants Achilde Mr. Taketta case, of the cadets' corps. The items are either descriptive of job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Hence, the result of the JDI is a score for satisfaction with each job aspect: Leader, Duties, and Cadets. Overall satisfaction relationable between a reaction a morel-judgement was measured by asking the cadet to respond on a five-point scale, from very satisfying to very dissatisfying, to the statement: "Overall, I would say that my reaction to the military system at my school is one of :::."

subministered the Lagrandy Schevic Description Constraints

The Cantril type attitude-anchoring scales required the cadet to place his present and future perception of the military on a 10-point "ladder", or nivralar catisfaction derived from their leader, duties, and feilow cadets, in addition, scale. Specifically, the questions asked are:

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- the coders rated that's overall carlafacting with cases life on a five-point 1) Now looking at the ladder, suppose your greatest hopes
 - " for the military are at the top; your worst fears at
 - the bottom. Where would you put the military on the

sympasyladder at the present time? . That atevines and it beliefted see succes

2) Just as your best guess, where do you think the military will be on the ladder five years from now?

Placing the military high on the ladder means that the cadet has a positive second so which for stands and lost active of herein attitude towards the military. A low ladder-score implies a negative attitude. An experimental corps policy of squad-leader rotation approximately every 2-weeks created a problem of leader identification. Some cadets rated leaders who did not complete the DIT and some leaders had cadet followers who did not correctly complete the DIT, LBDQ, JDI, or the Cantril . Hence, for the leadership analyses there were 28-cadet leaders with a mean of 4.3-cadets per squad. Psychometric Properties of the DIT

Before directly testing the hypotheses, several psychometric properties of the DIT were explored in order to determine the validity of the P-score. This check on internal validity is presented first in the following section.

The psychometric properties of the DIT were assessed with a correlation matrix constructed in the fashion of the multitrait-multimethod matrix (Campbell and Fiske, 1959). This correlation matrix employed all the subjects in this study who had completed the DIT; N=381. As shown in Table 6.7 the matrix consists of correlations between stage scores within and between the six-dilemmas. Stage-score reliabilities could not be assessed, hence the diagonal is blank. The bold-face coefficients refer to homostage-heterodilemma correlations, or validity coefficients. These should all be positive and significantly large to demonstrate convergent validity of stages between dilemmas. In addition they should all be greater than the coefficients in the row and column of the same dilemma combination. These heterostage-heterodilemma coefficients should be small and nonsignificant in order to demonstrate divargent validity between stages and between dilemmas. The italisized coefficients below the diagonal are the correlations between stages within a dilemma.

The intra-dilemma correlations were all negative and to a great extent, significantly large. This is expected because of the ranking of issues in a dilemma as the basis for the computation of the stage scores. To the extent that a subject ranks an issue of a particular stage as most important, he must rank other issues lower. The three stage scores were summed between dilemmas.

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Table 6.7 e by Dileme etion Matrij tio b c c c b c c c c c c c c <td>The second secon</td>	The second secon
Table 6.7 Stage by Dilem Trelation Marti C	
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The overall correlation matrix in the upper right-corner of Table 6.7 shows that the relationship between the P-score and each of the two lower stages is such that subjects who score high on one will score low on the other. This matrix suggests that the sample consists of two sub-populations, those at the conventional level and those at the principled level and that the P-score can discriminate between these groups: Low and High. The insignificant correlation between the pre-conventional and conventional stages suggests that either very few subjects rank pre-issues high or that the pre and conventional dimensions are independent. Because the ranking imposes a zero-sum-gain for the stages, the first possibility is most probable.

Some combinations of dilemmas show more convergent and divergent validity than others. The dilemmas giving validity to the stage scores are: Heinz and Student, Heinz and Newspaper. Student and Prisoner, and Prisoner and Webster; some of the other combinations are suggestive. Because the P-score is recommended by Rest (1974), it is interesting to note that the post-conventional, or P-score, stages show the greatest validity between the different dilemmas; 11 out of 15 meet the criteria for convergent and divergent validity compared to 7 out of 15 for the conventional stage and 3 out of 10 for the pre-conventional stage. Therefore, the P-score is relatively the best score to reflect the underlying dimension of the DIT. Presumably, it measures the extent to which a person depends upon principled reasoning. As a result, the P-score was used in all subsequent analyses involving the DIT.

To test for the predominance of the conventional level, 231-cadets were staged-typed according to the criteria given by Rest (1975): 1) Stage-P, a P-score greater than or equal to 27; 2) Stage-4, a P-score less than 27 and a stage-4 score greater than or equal to 15; 3) Stage-3, neither of the above conditions but a stage-3 score greater than or equal to 10. Three cadets were

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unclassified. Stage-3 contained 12% of the cadets, Stage-4 was 66%, and Stage-P was 22%. Since stages 3 and 4 represent the conventional level, these cadets represent 78% of the sample whereas only 22% represent a post-conventional level. No method yet exists for reliably classifying pre-conventional persons with the P-score. The data demonstrated that the majority of cadets exhibit a conventional mode of reasoning.

Rest et al. (1974) presents the appropriate statistics to compare the present sample with a high school and a college sample. Under the null hypothesis that there is no difference between P-score means, two <u>t</u>-tests were calculated between the present sample and each of the other samples according to Hay's (1973) formula for pooling estimates of the population variance parameter (p. 408). Table 6.8 presents the results. The P-scores in Table 6.8 are transformations of the raw P-score into a percentage of responses to principled-level reasoning: raw P-score divided by 60, multiplied by 100 for the percentage. This P-score can range from 0 to 95 percent. The significant difference between the cadets and the college students is expected as the P-score correlates in the .60s with age (Rest, 1974). The cadet sample are freshmen and the college sample consist of juniors and seniors. No difference exists between the cadet sample and that of the High school Sample with the two-tailed test, although this difference approaches significance (p < .10).

The three additional samples are included in Table 6.8 for comparison; the absence of the standard deviation presents a test of statistical significance. It is interesting to note that the samples which consist of freshmen and sophomores have mean P-scores in the low 40s. These samples are most comparable in age and academic level to the cadets. The final sample of students are comparable on a regional basis, their reported P-score is low (24.5) although it is possible that it is a raw P-score. As a percentage, it would be 40.8 which is comparable to the other college samples. There is a lack of standari-

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alle and another the particular telle 6.8 states of anitoper a opilia Differences between sample means on the P-score aute for these caders who remained and the restand sp (a) Mean 34.13 difference is not 11.4 10. A. A. A. 264 Cadets-freshmen, male, 18-19 date 2.4 aideT a sussitions vilasijetikje sod at bas sortoarie Senior High School- 40 37.4 15.4 -1.6 male & female, sand some tingis hasoines mensalite and to soll alass civilian los ve seres reseltes into at the low of high f-score by an Rest et al. 1974 tors & Seniors 40 54.9 13.6 -10.4* College Juniors & Seniors male & female, level a dobos a visualized anta anticontariosa-listore ten civilian the protocolly peaks proma reliable tex and fuelts to be new Rest et al. 1974 is a pulsedy paintain of mone block noticeletrative for farmi a avait agente legentinaviers set to states reducte test of College Freshmen-New Zealand Univ. McGeorge, 1973 clabes to bigane off , gratilis and braund blackets aviitant College Freshmen and same in 113 inne in . no41.0 itels success all in any Sophmores - a midwest and the state out and secure and team of the secure community college Krause, 1974 161 24.5 ereas busbasis bas seens off ... 161 College students-. Of a ald f on because an table 6110. southern U.S. college - measury suff . SELOW, tim. > go CB. The part of an inclusion operations - the second s northeast constraints a contractor we admitted treating aross & dillo (220. > a CI. Te natisterio (a) uncorrected standard devistion (see Hays, 1973, p. 408). * p < .05 two-tailed test for difference between means with and included a perception of the mailtery link within the thirde and dec

the cadet sample.

late that enterities in a minister shall a second to the later the second

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sation in reporting the psychometric properties of DIT samples. Hence, the data is suggestive and no conclusion may be drawn that the cadet sample differs from comparable civilian samples on the P-score.

The difference in mean P-score for those cadets who remained and who resigned within 2 years is presented in Table 6.9. This difference is not in the predicted direction and is not statistically significant. Table 6.9 also presents the mean satisfaction for the dimensions on the JDI and the overall-satisfaction scale. None of the differences approach significance. In addition, the cadets were classified into either Low or High P-score by splitting the distribution at the mean. No differences approached significance for the JDI and overall-satisfaction scales. Obviously, a cadet's level of moral development did not effect his satisfaction among these dimensions. Neither moral level nor satisfaction would seem to determine whether a cadet would resign.

To test whether cadets of the conventional stage have a higher overall positive attitude toward the military, the sample of cadets were split at the mean of the P-score distribution. An analysis of variance was performed on each of the Cantril questions across the two levels of P-score. The presentmilitary question yielded a $\underline{F}(1, 230)$ of 4.6, ($\underline{p} < .05$) and the future-military question yielded a $\underline{F}(1, 230)$ of 4.0, ($\underline{p} < .05$). The means and standard deviations are presented in Table 6.10.

In addition a correlational analysis was performed. The two Cantril military-attitude questions correlated at .65 (p < .01), N=232. The presentattitude question has a correlation of -.17 (p < .01) with P-score and the futuremilitary attitude question has a correlation of -.15 (p < .025) with P-score.

To test the influence of a squad leader's level of moral reasoning upon cadet follower's perception of the military life-style, the cadets were divided into four categories in a two-way ANOVA design involving leader P-score (Low vs.

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Table 6.9

Differences in P-score and satisfaction

on the JDI for Remained vs. Resigned and

High	and	Low	P-sco	pre.
		Conceptual States of South	and the second second	de la constanti

влук Зенсото		Resigned (a)	Low P-score	High P-score
Measure	Stayed N=177	N=55	N=114	N=118
8.4		5.4	, X	casaeri -
P-score		6.0	021	WEBERS ME
Ī	34.9	31.6		-
SD	11.6	10.6		
Sat. Leader		6.6		STO 197"
6.5		E.S.	- 68	Wikzli 10
Ĩ	41.4	43.0	42.3	41.2
SD	8.1	8.4	7.7	8.6
Sat. Duties				
ž	35.2	33.3	35.5	34.1
SD	8.4	8.4	8.6	8.2
Sat. Cadets				
ī	41.4	41.4	41.8	40.9
SD '	7.5	7.9	7.5	7.7
Overall Sat.				
Ī	2.5	2.5	2.6	2.5
50	1.4	1.6	1.4	1.4
	And The Constant			

(a) Resigned within 2-years after data was collected.

Table 6.10

1.

Differences in P-score on the

Present and Future Military Attitude

Real and Line President.

Attitude	<u></u>	Low P-score <u>N=114</u>	14171 14171 14171	High P-score <u>N=116</u>
Present	x	5.4		4.8
Military	SD	2.3 Butt	Rape -	2.3
Future	x	6.6	6.11	5.9 5.2
Military	SD 2.89	2.5 0184	4.14	2.9
ð.8	1.5	A.6	1,8	10 A
				servad - ife
1.00	E.CE	. č.č.	5.6	
£.8	. 7.8	and the second	0.8	
				Sal. Course
R.04 ·	2.10	A.14	4.48	
5-8 8-1	25	2.5	2.5	
				Weralt Sat.
2.5	2.2	2,5	54	
h.I	4.6	8.1	A.F	

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High) and cadet subordinate P-score (Low vs. High). There are two levels of each factor: high and low P-scores determined by a split at the mean of the corresponding factor.

An ANOVA was calculated for each of the JDI scales as the dependent variables. This revealed that the leader's P-score had an effect on the cadet's satisfaction with the leader. This finding in part replicates that of Rest, Turiel, and Kohlberg (1969) who found that persons prefer others who have a higher P-score, or are more morally mature. The cadet leaders who had higher P-scores had cadet followers who were more satisfied with their leaders than leaders with lower P-scores; F(1,91)=4.1, (p <.05). No other effects were found for the JDI scales.

All the ANOVAs for the LBDQ yielded no effects. Obviously, the P-score of the leader is reflected in cadet satisfaction with the leader, but the Pscore of the leader does not effect the manner in which the cadet describes the leader's behavior.

The first hypothesis was only partially confirmed. The majority of cadets are of the conventional level of moral reasoning. This is not a surprising finding for several reasons. First, from Kohlberg's theoretical base, a conventional reasoning person must accept traditional social rules and conventions and also feel comfortable in a structured life-style in order to be attracted to the military. Secondly, from a methodological standpoint, the cadetfreshmen are at the age level where conventional moral reasoning is most predomimant. Whether the cadeta differ from civilian males of the same age and academic level has yet to be substantially demonstrated. Thirdly, from a scrutiny of the DIT, there are predominately more issues in the dilemmas which if chomenby the cadet as important would categorize him at a conventional level.

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The null finding of turnover and P-score and satisfaction suggests that neither moral reasoning nor satisfaction are relevant factors that a cadet considers when making a decision to resign. Indeed, most cadets feel that the educational benefits of the Corps are the most salient for such decisions.

The second hypothesis was fully confirmed. Overall, the present-attitude toward the military is inversely related to a cadet's level of moral reasoning. The earlier findings do not demonstrate a manifestation of this attitude in satisfaction or turnover. This would seem to imply that some of the cadets, those with high P-scores, must be in a state of cognitive-dissonance. They describe the military in the same manner as those with low P-scores but they express a more negative attitude toward the military. A post-hoc analysis does not show this dissonance manifesting itself in turnover. Those that resigned showed a slightly less positive attitude toward the military, but this difference does not approach significance.

In order to locate the source of the negative attitudes, the responses to the present and future military-attitude questions were correlated with the satisfaction scales; see Table 6.11. A positive correlation is interpreted as higher satisfaction and a more positive attitude, or lower satisfaction and a more negative attitude. In Table 6.11 present and future attitude is related to satisfaction with fellow cadets. Recall that satisfaction with cadets was unrelated to P-score in the ANOVA of P-score with high and low levels. Conversely, the more sensitive statistic, the Pearson product-moment correlation, demonstrates a significant relationship. Hence, four variables are significantly correlated to each other: satisfaction with fellow cadets, P-score, present and future attitude toward the military. From the theoretical position stated earlier and in the hypotheses, a theoretical network of these variables can be constructed. This network may be tested for appropriateness in an exploratory fashion with

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Table 6.11 aska has regulated) stayland itel Correlations of Present and Future Military Attitude with Satisfaction constituted theoretically to be a stable frame in the second tract it is repreerchap wells? offer entrophythe addate double with the strong or as herres Scale Present Attitude Puture Attitude P-score discontenants is that a variable which concerns fragmants will affect the with LEADER saidists has said gaigrap of rabes of barerssons has baregood at Satisfaction with Fellow annether of the set with or flatitation, what's practic state CADETS are municaled to determine attitudes covered the future aven if such attitud with DUTIES meistifican-disk . assessing and the (4) atmosfilling -disk bawlish and -.03 Overall . (Ere:

Satisfaction

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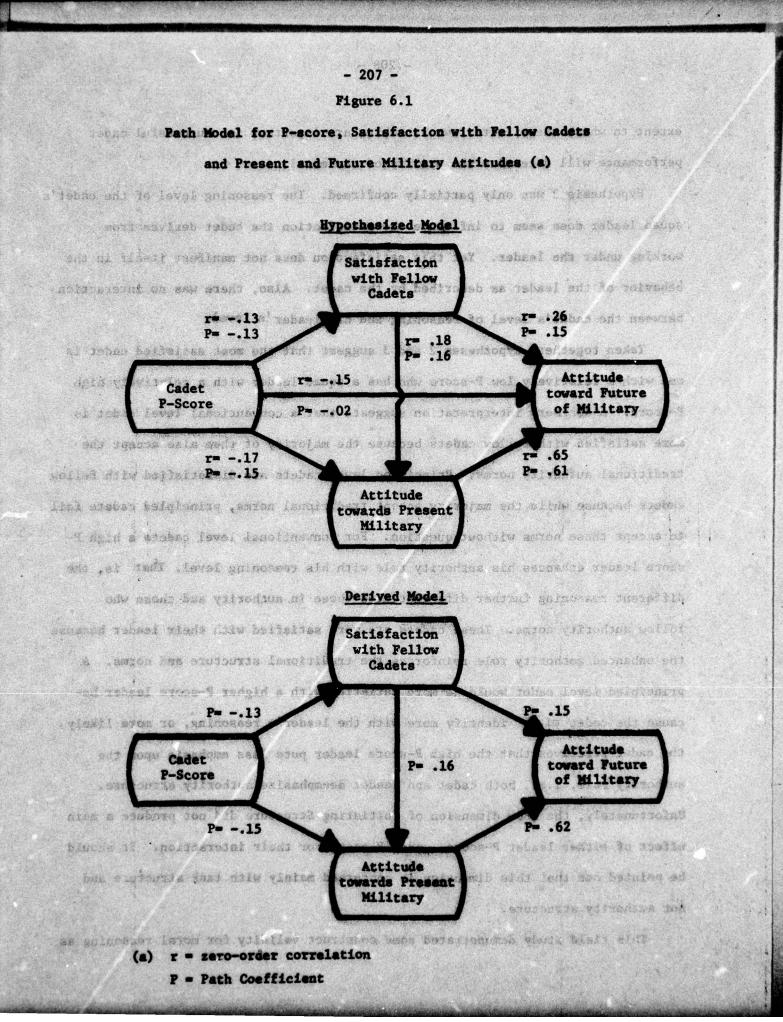
Path Analysis (Kerlinger and Pedhazur, 1973).

The diagram in the upper portion of Figure-1 presents the theoretical network of recursive causal linkages. Because level of moral reasoning is considered theoretically to be a stable personality type of trait, it is represented as an exogenous variable which effects satisfaction with fellow cadets and the present and future attitudes toward the military. The logic for this directionality is that a variable which concerns reasoning will affect the reasoning employed by a cadet to derive "ideals" with which "perceived reality" is compared and contrasted. in order to develop likes and dislikes such as satisfactions and attitude formations. In addition, the satisfaction measure preceeds the attitude measures assumming that attitudes are formulated upon experiences which are satisfying or disatisfying. Finally, present attitudes are hypothesized to determine attitudes towards the future even if such attitudes are speculation. Figure-1 shows the correlations (r) among the variables and the derived path-coefficients (P) of the linkages. Path-coefficients are standarized regression coefficients, or Beta-weights (Kerlinger and Pedhazur, 1973). noisberelted

Note that the P-score direct-influence on future attitude is reduced to an insignificant amount. P-score does exert a total indirect influence on future attitude of -.13 via satisfaction with cadets and present attitude. In turn, satisfaction with cadets exerts a total indirect influence of .11 on future attitude via present attitude.

The purpose of the model in the lower portion of Figure-1 is to illustrate the result of the Path-Analysis and where moral reasoning fits into the scheme of attitude formation towards the military. Essentially, it suggests that cadets in the conventional levels will gain greater satisfaction with their fellow cadets and have a better, or positive, attitude towards the military. The

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extent to which these latter two variables are important for successful cadet performance will determine the utility of the model.

Hypothesis 3 was only partially confirmed. The reasoning level of the cadet's squad leader does seem to influence the satisfaction the cadet derives from working under the leader. Yet this satisfaction does not manifest itself in the behavior of the leader as described by the cadet. Also, there was no interaction between the cadet's level of reasoning and his leader's level.

Taken together, Hypotheses 2 and 3 suggest that the most satisfied cadet is one with a relatively low P-score who has a squad leader with a relatively high P-score. A Kohlberg interpretation suggests that a conventional level cadet is more satisfied with fellow cadets because the majority of them also accept the traditional authority norms. Principled level cadets are dissatisfied with fellow cadets because while the majority accept traditional norms, principled cadets fail to accept these norms without question. For conventional level cadets a high Pscore leader enhances his authority role with his reasoning level. That is, the different reasoning further differentiates those in authority and those who follow authority norms. These cadets are more satisfied with their leader because the enhanced authority role reinforces the traditional structure and norms. A principled level cadet would be more satisfied with a higher P-score leader because the cadet might identify more with the leader's reasoning, or more likely, the cadet perceives that the high P-score leader puts less emphasis upon the authority role, i.e., both cadet and leader deemphasize authority structure. Unfortunately, the LEDQ dimension of Initiating Structure did not produce a main effect of either leader P-score, cadet P-score, or their interaction. It should be pointed out that this dimension is concerned mainly with task structure and 如何如此 是 長 下部 not authority structure.

This field study demonstrated some construct validity for moral reasoning as

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measured by the Defining Issues Test. Most importantly, the concept of moral reasoning was found to exert influence upon a cadet's satisfaction with his fellow cadets and indirectly influence the cadet's attitude toward the military.

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Field Study. The messen and eventh to investigate: (1) the measure of the beforemult tenseeve cades easistaction and perpetent leaderenty strict (2) the secare of the relationship between rates easistantion, eader form-of-defined and permitted mergins feminently mixing and (3) the dature of the relationship hethem leader investor and perpetented leadership and a

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SUMMARY

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The present section serves to summarize the findings of the previous six sections.

SECTION I - Coercive and Persuasive Power: Determinants and Reactions

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Laboratory Study. The reactions of internal and external locus of control subjects to leaders using reward and coercive power were investigated in a group setting. It was predicted that internals would react more negatively to the use of coercive power than externals and that externals would react more positively to leaders' feedback of success and failure than externals. Male undergraduate volunteers met with a confederate who was selected by lot as leader of the group involved in a simple manual task. The results indicated that internals less frequently complied with leaders demands than externals regardless of power used, and complied least frequently under coercive power when feedback was given. No relationship between vote to retain the old leader and locus of control or power was observed. However, the data indicated that externals may have utilized success and failure feedback better than internals by more realistically calculating the amount of bonus for their leaders.

<u>Field Study</u>: The present study sought to investigate: (1) the nature of the relationship between cadet satisfaction and perceived leadership style; (2) the nature of the relationship between cadet satisfaction, cadet locus-of-control and perceived coercive leadership style, and (3) the nature of the relationship between leader locus-of-control and perceived leadership style.

The Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ), Rotter's Locus of Control scale and a measure of cadet satisfaction toward leaders were completed by 206 freshmen cadets in Sample A and 80 freshmen cadets in Sample B.

The results indicated that: (1) cadet satisfaction with leaders was determined

primarily by the degree of persuasion and consideration exhibited by the leader; (2) in Sample A, low internal control cadets were more satisfied with low perceived coercive leadership style than either high or medium coercive leadership and no differences existed for high control cadets; (3) in Sample B both low and high internal control cadets were more satisfied with low than high perceived coercive leadership style; and (4) no significant relationships were found between the locusof-control of the leader and perceived leadership style.

The results were discussed with regard to situational variables which might account for the findings. SECTION II - Self- Versus Group-Oriented Leadership

The purpose of the present study was to evaluate the relationships between group-oriented and personalized uses of power and one personality factor, level of moral development, which might influence the use of power by a leader and the reactions of group members to the use of power. Male introductory psychology students were identified as low or low-to-moderately principled moral reasoners. Subjects in groups of 5 or 7 participated in a group decision making experience. After the group decision was reached, group members were given bonus feedback that their leader had either given them (including himself) an equal share of the bonus or had taken half of the bonus for himself and left the remaining half to be shared among the group members. The dependent variables were the amount of the bonus subjects would give to their leaders and whether they would vote to keep the same leader for another group problem. An analysis of the data indicated that subjects were willing to give more of the bonus to a leader who had kept half of the bonus than to a leader who had shared equally. An interaction further revealed that low principled subjects were willing to give more money to a leader who kept half than the low-moderate principled subjects. No statistically reliable difference in vote to retain the same leader were observed.

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The fact that both low and low-moderate subjects gave more money to leaders who kept half of the bonus than to leaders who shared equally and that low principled subjects did so more than moderately principled subjects supported the hypothesis that both low and low-moderate subjects would be conforming with lowprincipled subjects being more conforming than low-moderate subjects. Interestingly, neither group of subjects attempted to replace him as leader for a new group. SECTION III - Interpersonal Trust and the Delegation of Authority and Responsibility

Laboratory Study. The delegation of items to staff members for investigation by subjects varying in interpersonal trust (Rotter, 1967) was studied in a roleplayed law firm. It was predicted that high trusters would delegate more items than low trusters when no information about staff members' capabilities was known and that both high and low trusters would delegate more items to a staff member who was identified as competent and trustworthy than one identified as having made errors of judgment. Twenty male and female college students received no information and twenty received complete information before delegating responsibility. The results failed to support the prediction that high trusters would delegate more items under no information conditions but did show that high trusters delegated more items to an untrustworthy staff member when information was known. The data supported Garske's (1975) conclusion that low trusting might lead to more adaptive behavior than high trusting.

<u>Field Study - Part I</u>. The present paper attempted to determine the extent to which a subordinate's perceptions of leader behavior would be related to interpersonal trust. The trust level of the member as well as the trust level of the leader were munipulated. Since interpersonal trust was considered to be a generalized expectancy of the degree to which persons may be relied on (Rotter, 1967, 1971), leaders who are trusting should be perceived as allowing greater freedom of action and initiative in their subordinates.

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The Rotter interpersonal trust scale was given to 153 military cadets and their leaders at two southern universities. The cadets were classified into three levels of trust (Low, Medium, High) and their leaders were also classified into three levels of trust (Low, Medium, High). The cadet members were then "equired to evaluate their leaders on the Ohio State Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) and the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) for satisfaction with supervision (in this case leadership).

A 3 x 3 MANOVA was performed on the six scales of the LBDQ and the JDI. The results revealed that the scales of Consideration, Freedom, and JDI-Satisfaction were found to be positively related to Leader Trust. The subordinate trust variable was not significant as well as the Subordinate trust x Leader trust interaction.

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Field Study - Part II.

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The present study sought to investigate whether cadet satisfaction with leaders would vary as a function of cadet locus-of-control and perceived delegation and freedom of authority and responsibility.

Freshmen squad members completed the Rotter Locus-of-Control scale (LOC), the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) and a satisfaction with leader scale.

The results indicated that codet locus-of-control was not a significant variable and that codets were most satisfied with leaders who allowed freedom, authority, and responsibility. The data are explained on the basis of the situational variables and the sulitary/college setting. SECTION IV - The Attractiveness of the Military Organization

<u>Field Study - Part 1</u>. The procent study was simed directly at assessing the attractiveness of the military organization and gaining insight into those variables which are responsible for the adjustment of freshmen cadets to the

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military setting in the academic community.

Freshmen cadets in Sample A (N=311) and Sample B (N=102) were administered the Self-Anchoring Scale of Cantrill and Semantic Differential ratings related to authority concepts. Included in the Cantrill Scale were essay questions regarding the hopes and fears for the military and personal life of the cadet. After two years (end of sophomore year) data was collected regarding those cadets that had withdrawn from each institution.

The data were factor analyzed for each sample and the following results were obtained: (1) For Sample A, the attitudes toward the present and future of the military were loaded on the same dimension as self-rating of the cadet's present and future. (2) For Sample B, the present and future ratings of the military were loaded on a different factor than the self-rating of the cadet's present and future.

Sample A showed significantly lower ratings for self-ratings of present and future and more positive attitude toward the authority concepts than the Sample B. Regarding withdrawal data, cadets in Sample A who resigned showed significantly lower present and future self-ratings than those cadets who remained. No difference existed within the Sample B.

The essay questions were related to the statistical findings and the data were discussed in the framework of situational variables which existed within each setting.

<u>Field Study - Part II</u>. The second study was a Field investigation conducted with 252 freshmen cadets and 104 freshmen civilians from three universities. The subjects were required to complete a questionnaire dealing with the variables of Commitment, Concern, and Attraction of the Military. Statistical analyses indicated that relative to civilians, cadets were significantly more concerned with Factors of World Orientation, Self-Orientation, and Future Military, and had less

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concern with future personal issues such as choice of a spouse and having a family. SECTION V - Intra Group Conflict: Individual Versus Unit Objectives

The reactions of subjects who were low or low-to-moderate in their usage of morally principled reasoning to small group experience in which reward was based either on a strictly competitively or a modified cooperative strategy were assessed. As predicted, subjects who were low in their use of principled reasoning less favorably rated a competitive reward strategy in which the most influential group member was given all the reward than did low-to-moderate principled subjects. Conversely, low-to-moderate principled subjects more favorably rated a reward strategy in which all group members shared in the rewards, but the most influential group member was given more of the reward than other group members. Similar predictions for the actual earned distributions of the rewards were not confirmed. Thus, it was established that level of principled reasoning influenced group members' approval of reward strategies, but not their satisfaction with actual reward distribution. Because of the nature of the experimental task, it was not possible to adequately assess individual group members' levels of performance as a function of approval of reward strategy; however, it is assumed that a relationship should exist and should be studied. SECTION VI - Value Conflict and the Legitimacy of Authority

Laboratory Study. The relationships between usage of level of morally principled reasoning and respect for legitimate authority figures, willingness to participate in experiments for various incentives, and endorsement of Theory X and Theory Y assumptions of management were assessed. In general, no relationship between any of the variables and principled reasoning was observed with the exception that the higher the level of principled reasoning used the more unfavorable was the rating of Army and military officers. Possible explanations for

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these findings were (1) that low principled subjects are more attracted to today's Army because of the incentives offered for enlistment and (2) low principled subjects may more readily conform to the demand characteristics of an experiment. A post hoc analysis of the relationship between acceptance of Theory X assumptions of management and favorability of attitudes toward the Army revealed a statistically reliable correlation which accounted for almost as much of the variance as did the relationship between principled reasoning and ratings of the Army. This finding suggested that the more economical and less difficult evaluation of attitudes would be nearly as efficient in predicting acceptance of the Army as would the more detailed process of evaluating level of principled reasoning.

<u>Field Study</u>. This study examined the relationships between a cadet's level of moral reasoning as measured by the Defining Issues Test, and level of satisfaction with various dimensions of the cadet life-style. The P-score of the Defining Issues Test was found to be relatively the best measure of the test. The majority of cadets (78%) were staged-type at the conventional level but no conclusion could be reached that the cadets differed in moral reasoning from civilian freahmen students. Level of moral reasoning was not found to be related to turnover. But, moral reasoning was found to be inversely related to the cadets present and future attitude toward the Military. A path-model was presented to evaluate where moral reasoning fit into the scheme of satisfaction and attitude variables. In addition, the squad-leader's level of moral reasoning was positively related toward cadet satisfaction with the leader. A Kohlberg interpretation, although not totally inclusive, accounts for these results.

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SECTION VIII CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS AND LIMITATIONS

This final section is concerned with the conclusions, implications, and limitations of the research reported in the present paper. For clarity, each section will again be reported separately.

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SECTION I: Coercive and Persuasive Power: Determinants and Reactions The basic question in Section I was whether the locus-of-control personality variable would moderate the reactions of a subordinate toward his leader's use of coercive and persuasive power. In general, it was found that cadet subordinates prefer persuasive and considerate leaders. The locus-of-control variable was a more complex variable than originally hypothesized. In the laboratory study, the locus-of-control variable did not moderate satisfaction with different leader use of power, but did moderate the performance of the cadet subordinates. In the latter finding, internals were less responsive to the demands of the leaders than externals.

The major finding that should be recognized for possible generalization to an operational setting is that <u>cadet subordinates are most satisfied with a leader</u> who is perceived to be considerate and persuasive and that the perceived behaviors of structure, production, and responsibility are not predominate variables. A limitation that warrants consideration is that such a generalization may be confined to a situation in which the leader has limited power and the task is very structured. This limitation is dictated by the situational confines of a military college setting.

SECTION II: Self- versus Group-Oriented Leadership This section was basically oriented toward the examination of the effect of differential patterns of reward allocation on subordinates who differ in level of moral development. It may be concluded that if subordinates are at the conventional level of moral reasoning, a reward allocation by a leader that distinguishes between the amount given to the leader himself and to the subordinate will be more effective for a valued leader than an allocation which does not make such a distinction.

The major implication is that if highly principled subordinates were included, they should act independently of authority and not conform as easily to the personalized use of power as did moderate and low principled (conventional) subordinates.

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SECTION III: Interpersonal Trust and the Delegation of Authority This section involved one laboratory study and two field studies divided toward an investigation of the role of interpersonal trust as a variable in the delegation of authority and responsibility. In the laboratory study, it was found that when the low and high trusting allocators did not know the trustworthiness of the recipients, delegation of responsibility was equal. However, when a specific expectancy was established, low trusters delegated more responsibility to a trustworthy recipient and high trusters delegated more responsibility to a untrustworthy recipient. The implication is that low trusting delegators are more conservative in their assessment of the worthiness of the recipient regardless of prior knowledge of the recipient. On the other hand, high trusting delegators would be so liberal in their assessment of recipients that quite possibly an untrustworthy recipient might receive responsibility that might be abused.

The field studies <u>carry the direct implication that the trust level of a</u> leader does affect his interaction with his subordinates. In this case, the leader's behavior <u>will reflect characteristics of his lack of trust</u>. Cadet subordinates perceived cadet leaders who were low in interpersonal trust as being less persuasive, less considerate, and tolerating less freedom than cadet leaders who were high in interpersonal trust. In addition, cadet subordinates were less satisfied with cadet leaders who were low in interpersonal trust.

A second major finding of the field studies was that the locus-of-control of the cadet was not an important determinant of the manner in which the cadet responded to the leader's use of delegators of authority and responsibility. Regardless of the cadet subordinates' level of locus-of-control, they are satisfied with leaders who are perceived to allow more authority, responsibility and

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SECTION IV: The Attractiveness of the Military Organization TRUCTION OF Taken together, the field studies indicate two major findings that have direct bearing on those variables that underlie a cadet's perception of the attractiveness of the military. First, at a university which is all wilitary, a cadet is apt to withdraw if he has a low self-concept for both the present it anthought later to level and future status. A major limitation of this conclusion is that it is possible Track Barris WZ MH that two alternative implications are possible. First, it may be that 和 动鸟主 的复数的 TTOBAL TO a cadet enters with is responsible for withdrawal or that the self-concept that the recruitment of military we once he enters the program, he is apt to develop a low self-concept as a function of the stress imposed upon him during the first year. The second major finding and one that should be headed by those responsible for the recruiting of cadets is that those individuals who are most attracted to the military have a strong commitment to an occupational choice and a political and religious ideology. In addition, they are not concerned with future domestic issues such as choosing eliterry society in a companyies are as a persons at the convers a spouse or having a family. elaber islaator mous areas also is present in a second spectra

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SECTION V: Intra-group Conflict: Individual versus Unit Objectives

This section involved a laboratory study which focused upon level of moral development and satisfaction with reward distribution strategies which emphasized individual efforts (competitive) versus group efforts (cooperative). Low principled subjects expressed greater satisfaction with a competitive strategy than low-moderate subjects, and low-moderate subjects expressed greater satisfaction with a cooperative strategy than did low principled subjects. No difference existed, however, when satisfaction with the actual distribution of rewards was considered. Although no performance measure was included, a definite implication

of the present study is that expressed dissatisfaction with a reward strategy would eventually interfere with progress toward a group goal. To this end, a leader should select group members who have a level of moral development which would be compatible with the reward distribution strategy used in the particular group.

- writtly lie al dothe viltiget attractiveness : SECTION VI: Value Conflict and The Legitimacy of Authority received for both the present e hit toble a The laboratory study implies that student level of moral reasoning is there is the had 120 inversely related to favorableness of military authority figures, and of those students who rate the Army favorably, there is a preference for Theory X managerialo Inseri assumptions. Hence, a major implication is that the recruitment of military personnel should focus upon persons of conventional reasoning and those who prefer antiviti Justices in ady spirash and aven inpoor) search of Theory X. In general, these persons would require a structured life-style which security and althistophest spaces with babasis of blocks faith one ber provides security.

The field study demonstrated that the best method for scoring the Defining issues test is the P-score. The study also carries the implication that the military setting in a university attracts persons at the conventional level of reasoning. Thus, recruitment should focus upon potential cadets of the conventional level. It is suggested that these cadets will adapt to the military life style with ease and should be most satisfied, get along better with fellow cadets, and have a more positive attitude toward the future of the military. A further implication is that cadet-leaders should be selected on the basis of a relatively

higher level of moral reasoning than the majority of cadets. With the majority of cadets at the conventional level of reasoning, the enhancement of authority structure with differential levels of reasoning will increase the attractiveness of the organization by increasing satisfaction with the leader.

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In any experiment, whether it be laboratory or field study, there are limitations that cannot be avoided. Within laboratory studies such as reported in the present paper, the limitation of generalization to real life settings is relevant. At the same time, the very nature of the scientific method allows a most precise statement of the systematic variation between variables. The major limitations to field studies is that while the empirical findings have generality, Contra State their applicability is restricted to populations that are similar in both personal and situational similarity. Such is the case in the present data. 1 contermat The samples were drawn from military college settings in the South and Southwest. Whether similar findings may be obtained from schools in other regions of Marcals the country are problematic and can only be substantiated by further research. Furthermore, the underlying reasons for the relationships discovered in the field studies carry a number of possible alternatives. The present investigators have suggested particular reasons throughout the paper. It should be remembered, TTE TROUT BUT however, that their notions are suggestive and are by no means the only alter-generalized extension of control. Journal of

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