DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 232 538 HE 016 435

AUTHOR Bess, James L.
TITLE Faculty Perspectives on Administrator Effectiveness.
PUB DATE Apr 83
NOTE 60p.; Parts of this paper were presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association (Montreal, Canada, April 11-15, 1983).
PUB TYPE Information Analyses (070) -- Viewpoints (120) -- Speeches/Conference Papers (150)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC03 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS *Administrator Evaluation; Deans; Decision Making; Goal Orientation; Higher Education; *Organizational Theories; *Personality Traits; *Role Perception; *Teacher Administrator Relationship; *Teacher Attitudes

ABSTRACT

The sources of faculty perspectives on the personal effectiveness of administrators are analyzed. It is proposed that faculty will be predisposed to see administrators in different lights, depending on structural elements in decision making and the orientation of the faculty members. Attention is directed to Talcott Parson's theory for classifying the types of decisions that are made in all organizations: adaptation, goal attainment, and integration and latency. A schema for understanding and/or classifying different kinds of organizations is also considered, based on the typology of Jeffrey Pfeffer, who characterized organizations as one of four types: professional, collegiate, political/coalition and centralized/bureaucratic. The kinds of power that are available to deans, and conditions that influence faculty perceptions of different types of power as legitimate are also addressed. To examine the idiographic influences on faculty perceptions of administrator effectiveness, Kilmann and Herden's theory of faculty personality predispositions is analyzed. Finally, the role theories of Katz and Kahn and the path-goal theory of Robert House are employed to integrate the theoretical perspectives. (SW)

FACULTY PERSPECTIVES ON ADMINISTRATOR EFFECTIVENESS

James L. Bess
New York University

Parts of this paper were presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Montreal, 1983.

When others have authority and power to control important parts of our lives, we cannot help but be somewhat fearful, especially when we are not certain how much trust to ascribe to those others (Zander, Cohen and Statland, 1959). Hence, it is a rare administrator who is viewed with equanimity by faculty members. There are, however, a number of conditions which mitigate faculty anxieties about abuse of administrator power. Among these are the more stable, ongoing elements of organizational life. These include assumptions about the commonality of goals and values between faculty and administration; the authority structure (e.g., formal and informal constraints on the exercise of power); tradition (inviolable role boundaries of the faculty member set by tradition and organizational saga); an habitual pattern of comity in administrator-faculty relations; and grievance procedures known to work. There are also idiosyncratic conditions which allay faculty worries about administrator power, including the power of the individual faculty member (e.g., through his/her stature as a leader); exit and career alternatives; and, finally, the sheer force of faculty personality which may either overwhelm the opposition or be insouciant or uncaring. Each of these represents to the faculty member either a barrier to external intrusions on his/her prerogatives or a weapon for preserving the sacred, sacrosanct, existential work value so treasured by academics -- autonomy.[1]

Needless to say, administrators are seen not only as potential enemies (though in times of organizational woe and travail, particularly of the economic variety, their alleged ogre-like qualities are said to predominate). Administrators do, after

all, have some potential for creating conditions through which faculty can seek and find satisfactions by the efficient exercise of their professional responsibilities. Seen as resource providers, administrators can expand the boundaries of faculty opportunity. Here, too, however, the same conditions as noted above inhibit the possibilities for intervention by administrators in faculty lives.

It is clear that "perspectives" are important in understanding the dynamics of faculty-administrator relationships.[2] The effectiveness of administrators will be conceived by faculty in ways different from the administrator's own notions; and measurement of the degree of managerial effectiveness being exhibited will vary according to the different perspectives of faculty and administrators. It is the purpose of this paper to examine the perspectives of faculty members on administrator effectiveness, to explore the reasons for their particular conceptualizations, and to analyze the conditions which lead to their evaluation of administrator effectiveness as high or low. A better understanding of the dynamics of faculty perspectives on administrator effectiveness will permit each to appreciate the other and to modify their behavior accordingly.

The Concept of Effectiveness

It is necessary first, of course, to have in mind some definition of "effectiveness." While much recent literature has been devoted to a better understanding of this concept (Cameron, 1978; Cameron and Whetton, 1981; Ghorpade, 1971; Goodman and Pennings, 1977; Muchinsky and Morrow, 1980; Spray, 1976; Steers,

1977), it generally identifies the total organization as the focal system. Effectiveness, in other words, is most commonly conceived in terms of organizational achievement, particularly through success in exploiting its external environments (Katz and Kahn, 1978; Yuchtman and Seashore, 1967). While the definition of effectiveness of units within organizations might use some of the same terminology, the difficulty of circumscribing the boundaries of the subsystem makes it difficult (Hall and Fukami, 1979; Steers, 1975). Moreover, for the purposes of this paper, we are concerned not so much with unit effectiveness (e.g., the dean's office), as with personal effectiveness (i.e., the perceived effectiveness of the person occupying the role of office leader). Clearly, there is a connection between unit or office effectiveness and personal or leaderhip effectiveness (Fiedler, 1965). Indeed, faculty link intimately the administrator and his/her office. There is, however, a looseness in the coupling between the effectiveness of office leader and the office -- the latter being contingent on factors other than the administrator's competence as leader. For the purposes of this paper in judging managerial effectiveness, we will use the idea of "personal effectiveness" of administrators, as conceived by faculty (Calder, 1977).

Viewed in this light, personal effectiveness may be seen as both behavior and personal attributes which conform to several sets of expectations of criterion populations -- those persons with whom the focal person has reciprocally interdependent organizational contact (Jacobson, Charters and Lieberman, 1951). Such expectations are typically set in the theoretical context of

"systems" and "role." Faculty perceptions of the effectiveness of administrator role behavior are contingent on systemic conditions in the organization and its relationship to its environment, on the characteristics of the administrator and his/her behavior, and on the characteristics of the perceiver. In slightly different words, faculty will be conditioned by various factors to have certain expectations of appropriate administrator performance, and these expectations are a function of the faculty member's prior experience with administrators and their behavior. Importantly, the expectations are conditioned also by two key conditions in the organization's decision-making climate and its relative success in attending to environmental turbulence. In short, faculty will be predisposed to see administrators in different lights, depending on both structural elements in decision-making and the manner in which those structures are temporally employed. Finally, the orientation of the faculty member or members helps to determine how the administrator's behavior is viewed, particularly as that behavior may be different in different kinds of organizations.

Plan of the Paper

We begin the analysis from the organizational perspective. We discuss first a theory for classifying the types of decisions which must be made in all organizations -- the functional prerequisites of Talcott Parsons (1951): adaptation, goal attainment, integration and latency (AGIL). Having considered these prerequisites, we then turn to a schema for understanding or/and classifying different kinds of organizations in which these pre-

requisites may be said to operate (presumably somewhat differently in the different kinds of organization). Here we discuss the typology of Jeffrey Pfeffer (1977), characterizing organizations as one of four types -- professional, collegiate, political/coalition and centralized/bureaucratic.

Since organizations are not static -- varying internally and responding to outside changes -- we will need to classify the system states of the organization in order to understand faculty expectations at these times. We will be particularly concerned at this point, therefore, with identifying the constraints of the "dominant" phase in which the organization finds itself, since the phase will predispose the administrator to adopt orientations toward others (namely faculty) which are more characteristic of that phase (Cameron and Whetton, 1981; Parsons, 1953). We use the "pattern variables" of Parsons to explicate this phenomenon.

At this point in the paper, we turn to an analysis of the kinds of power that are available to deans and to a consideration of the conditions which make the use of one or another type appear to faculty as particularly appropriate to effect their desired ends.[3] Here we join the power theories of Bacharach and Lawler (1980) with the above discussion. With this section, we conclude the analysis of the organizational factors which legitimize in faculty eyes different kinds of administrator behavior.

It is necessary next to examine the correlative concern in the paper -- the idiographic influences on faculty perceptions of effectiveness. Here we employ still another theory -- that of Kilmann and Herden (1976). The discussion in this section allows us to analyze the faculty not as a monolith, but as a disag-

gregated congeries of persons or subcultures with personalities predisposing them to see administrator types and administrator behavior in quite different ways. The final section of the paper draws together the two strands set out to that point -- organizational perspectives of decanal effectiveness and faculty perspectives on the same subject. To accomplish this, we employ the role theories of Katz and Kahn (1978) and the path-goal theory of Robert House (1971). Figure 1 below describes the concepts of concern in the paper and their relationships.

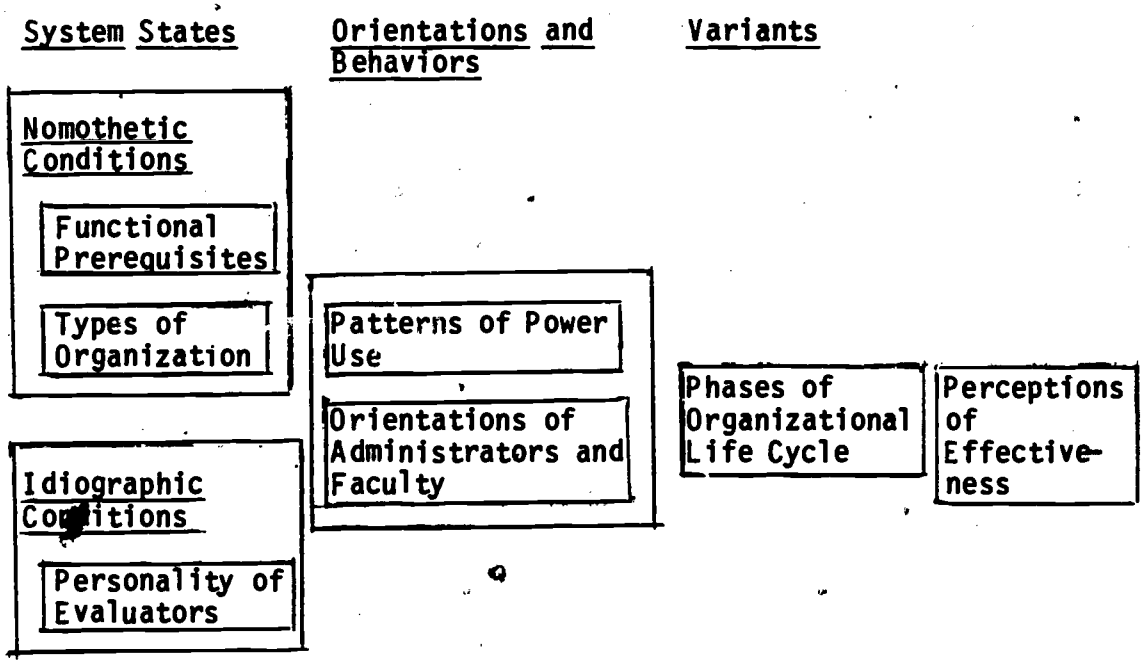

Figure 1 -- Sources of influence on faculty perceptions of decanal effectiveness

---

A Typology of Organizational Needs

Organizations as social systems have system-level problems which must be attended to if they are to survive. These problems are universal, regardless of the type of organization. To understand the faculty perspective on decanal effectiveness, there-

fore, we must look first to a conceptualization of the nature of the generic problems which each dean must face. The functionalist approach of Talcott Parsons (1960) provides a useful schema. According to Parsons (1960), all social systems qua organizations must satisfy four prerequisites in order to ensure their long-term survival. These prerequisites are set theoretically in a two-by-two format, the axes of which address, on the one hand, the boundaries of the activities satisfying the prerequisites, and, on the other, the instrumental versus consumatory motivation of workers (see Table 1).

Table 1

Functional Prerequisites of Organizations
According to Talcott Parsons

	Instrumental	Consumatory
Cross-Boundary	ADAPTATION	GOAL ATTAINMENT
Internal	LATENCY	INTEGRATION

The prerequisites are adaptation, goal attainment, integration and latency (AGIL). If all organizations (and each of their subsystems) must meet these prerequisites, then it can be argued that to some degree (as yet unspecified), administrative leadership is "responsible" for the activities associated with the prerequisites.[4] Different constituencies acting as role senders (e.g., trustees, presidents, alumni, faculty and students), formally or informally, hold administrators accountable for their effectiveness in each area.

A further explication of the prerequisites will help clarify

their importance in understanding the leader's role in addressing them.[5] Goal attainment refers to the necessity of every organization to establish a relatively stable relation with its environment through which the organization and environment can both achieve their ends. To some extent, the environment external to the organization must see the outputs of the organization as useful, and employees must derive some satisfaction from the sense of the organization's functional utility with respect to the environment. Decanal decisions addressing this prerequisite, then, would be concerned with cross-boundary conditions and with the problems of assuring the motivational commitment of both organization and clients in the environment to the consummation of the organization's outputs (such as, competent graduates, scientific research knowledge, etc.). Curricular design, student relations, and long-range planning are administrator activities subsumed in this area.

Adaptation is a prerequisite which reveals the organization's necessity to secure adequate resources from its environment and to distribute those resources internally in an efficient manner. A dean concerned with decisions satisfying this prerequisite would be occupied with recruitment of faculty, with securing and distributing funds through grants and the normal budget procedures, and with assuring an adequate supply of students.

The third prerequisite, integration, refers to the necessity for solidarity and mutual support among units within an organization Members of the system must accept the roles of others and derive satisfaction from the collaborative efforts of all. A

dean performing actions in this domain might spend time at faculty meetings describing and explaining the importance of various units to the overall functioning of the college. The fourth prerequisite is latency or pattern-maintenance and tension reduction. In every organization, there must be a continuity of relationships among units. Members must be enabled to rely on expectations of patterns of activities among units. Commonly these expectations are set in the context of an organization structure which describes the roles of the various participants. The expectations are also determined by the normative structure which evolves to guide behavior not covered through institutionalized role descriptions. Lacking stability of expectations, members of an organization will become tense, and their relations with one another will become less functional for the organization. A dean concerned with this prerequisite must attend to the formalization of relationships among member units (outlining the task requirements of each), as well as to the inculcation of values and norms which guide members in institutionally desired directions where roles are diffuse or ambiguous.

Organizational Types and Administrator Performance

Having considered the system prerequisites which obtain in any organization and to which a dean must attend, we need now to discuss how the satisfaction of the prerequisites might be accomplished in different kinds of organizations. Needed is a typology of organizations which will lend itself to this purpose.

A number of descriptive models of organization appear recurrently in the literature on higher education (e.g., Baldridge, 1978; Cohen and March, 1974; Millett, 1978; Mortimer and McConnell, 1978). With the exception of the Cohen and March approach, which suggests that large colleges and universities can best be described as organized anarchies, most of the models employ as central parameters the concepts of goal consensus and bureaucracy, at least as necessary to explain the more critical decision-making processes such as personnel, budget, and curriculum. If to these terms the concept of technology is added, a typology can be created which well describes the most typical of colleges and universities. This typology has been depicted by Pfeffer (1977) and is comprised of four different kinds of organizations; professional, bureaucratic, political/coalition, and centralized. The derivation of the types appears in Table 2.

Table 2

Typology of Organizational Forms

		Amount of Control Possessed by Organizational Authorities	
		Low	High
Amount of Consensus About Goals & Amount of Uncertainty About Technology	Goal Consensus/ Certain Technology	Professional Model (1)	Bureaucratic Model (2)
	Goal Dissensus/ Uncertain Technology	Political/ Coalition Model (3)	Centralized Model (4)

When this framework is applied to colleges and universities, the result is a fairly reasonable explanation of some of the

constraints on administrator decision-making. For example, where deans and faculty agree on goals and the means to achieve them, and also agree on the need for decentralized autonomy in decision-making, a "professional" type of organization arises. Under other conditions, a bureaucracy, a political/coalition, or a centralized model will best describe the system. In each case, a quite different set of expectations will govern perceived and enacted roles of both dean and faculty. In turn, the criteria for assessment of "managerial effectiveness" will be different. Faculty, for example, will expect different kinds of performance in each of the prerequisite directions from a dean operating in a bureaucracy as contrasted with a political/coalition type organization.

Structure and Process

To this point we have considered and linked organizational type and organizational prerequisites. It is necessary now to discuss the typical structures and processes which might be used by administrators to satisfy the prerequisites in each type of organization. This will provide a basis for understanding the behavior on which faculty make their judgments of administrator effectiveness. In this section we discuss four structural and processual aspects of organizations as they may characterize different types of organizations. What we will show is that because the dean's control over structure and process varies widely, ascriptions of responsibility (credit and blame) may be misdirected.

"Structure," according to Steers (1977)

> ....refers to the manner in which an organization organizes its human resources for goal directed activities. It is the way the human parts of an organization are fitted into relatively fixed relationships that largely define patterns of interaction, coordination, and task-oriented behavior (p. 59).

While there is a wide variety of indices of structure (e.g., specialization, formalization, span of control, organization size), for purposes of understanding the context of decanal decision-making in the four Pfeffer-type models we will concentrate here on four:

- Levels in the decision-making hierarchy (tall vs. flat)
- Staff/line personnel ratio
- Traditional vs. matrix form of hierarchy (i.e., single vs. multiple lines of authority
- Linking role responsibility (e.g., administrative staff vs. faculty committees)

Organizational "processes" refer to a number of kinds of activities in organizations, one of which is "decision-making." The latter ranges from individual speculation or cogitation to more active intervention in organizational life. Decisions as an organizational process have still another dimension. On the one hand, they can be "policy"-related; on the other, issue or task specific. Policy-related decisions have a continuing impact on the behavior of organizational members largely through the redefinition of roles. Task specific decisions affect members through their impact on performance in roles already defined. The decisions of deans specifically include both types. For examples, decisions about such matters as new criteria for promotion and tenure, policies with respect to new program formation and guidelines for student grading all affect the faculty member's concep-

tion and execution of his/her role. Annual budget allocations, on the other hand, are one-time decisions, which are more likely to have impact on roles which are at the margin of the majority of faculty role behavior. That is, the role activity of most faculty will not differ significantly unless the shift in budget is so great as to constitute a change in policy.[8]

A key to the understanding of how organizational processes such as decision-making may affect subordinate perceptions of the effectiveness of the administrator lies in the degree to which that decision-making is shared. Newer contingency theories now seem to suggest that there is a "zone of conditional acceptance" (Miles, 1981) -- an "area in which directives, orders, decisions, and so forth may or may not be accepted, depending on the office holder's leadership behavior (or lack thereof)":

> Within this area, subordinates do not "accept" orders or directives automatically, but may do so if (1)the leader is charismatically persuasive; (2)compelling information about the need for compliance is articulated; (3)subordinates are involved in the decision process and thus feel some ownership of the objectives being sought; or, (4)an implicit bargain is struck with the leader.

Other contingency theorists, most notably Vroom and Yetton (1973), consider the following of importance to effective decision-making: the level of expertise of the followers, the need for follower compliance, and the stake of the followers in the decision -- all of these leading to different kinds of decisions.

Generally, the decision-maker is faced with the dilemma of determining the degree of participation of subordinates which is appropriate. At one end of the continuum is a category of auto-

cratic decisions; at the other, decisions made exclusively by subordinates; in the middle, decisions by some combination of leader and led. It is this decision "process" which is of central importance to the discussion here. We are concerned with the nature of those participative processes in the different Pfeffer-type prerequisite decisions.[9] In Table 3, which follows, we have noted the structural and decision process variables which might be considered for each of the organizations in the Pfeffer model for each of the prequisite activities.

Unfortunately, the utility of this schematic depiction of the structures and processes waits for empirical research which reliably describes the actual conditions in these kinds of organizations. It is possible to speculate, however, on the patterns which might occur. In Table 4, below, we hypothesize the structure and participative process which might obtain in different organizations and describe the probable behavior of a dean acting out a "goal attainment" role such as curriculum change.

Table 3

Salient Structural and Process Variables in a Cross Tabulation Array of Organizational Types and Functional Prerequisites

Type of Organization (from Pfeffer)	Functional Prerequisites (from Parsons)							
	Goal Attainment		Adaptation		Integration		Latency	
	S*	P**	S	P	S	P	S	P
Goal Consensus-Certain Technology								
1.Prof. Organization-(low control by authorities)	DML= S/L= T-M= LRR=	DMP=	DML= S/L= T-M= LRR=	DMP=	DML= S/L= T-M= LRR=	DMP=	DML= S/L= T-M= LRR=	DMP=
2. Bureaucratic-(high control by authorities)	DML= S/L= T-M= LRR=	DMP=	DML= S/L= T-M= LRR=	DMP=	DML= S/L= T-M= LRR=	DMP=	DML= S/L= T-M= LRR=	DMP=
Goal Dissensus-Uncertain Technology								
3.Political Coalition-(low control by authorities)	DML= S/L= T-M= LRR=	DMP=	DML= S/L= T/M= LRR=	DMP=	DML= S/L= T/M= LRR=	DMP=	DML= S/L= T/M= LRR=	DMP=
4.Centralized-(high control by authorities)	DML= S/L= T-M= LRR=	DMP=	DML= S/L= T-M= LRR=	DMP=	DML= S/L= T-M= LRR=	DMP=	DML= S/L= T-M= LRR=	DMP=
Ambiguous Goals & Technology								
Anarchic (ambiguous control)	DML= S/L= T-M= LRR=	DMP=	DML= S/L= T-M= LRR=	DMP=	DML= S/L= T/M= LRR=	DMP=	DML= S/L= T=M= LRR=	DMP=

*S=Structures; P=Process

Note: See Table 4 for a sample of a cell from this table with the right sides of the equations filled in.

Table 3 (cont'd.)

Key to Cell Entries

DML=Number of Decision-making levels in the hierarchy: H=High; M=Medium; L=Low

S/L=Staff to line personnel ratio: S/I=High staff to line; s/I=Moderate staff to line; s/L=High line to staff

T-M=Traditional vs. matrix form of hierarchy: T=Traditional, single line of authority; M=Matrix, Multiple lines of authority

LRR=Linking role responsibility: S=Staff predominates S/L=mixed responsibility; L=line predominates (e.g., faculty committees)

Decision-Making Process

DMP=Decision-making process: A=Autocratic; A/L=shared; L=line dominated

Table 4

Hypothetical Description of Decanal Activity in the Goal Attainment Area in Different Types of Organizations

Organizational Types	Functional Prerequisites			
	Goal Attainment (e.g., Curriculum)	Adaptation*	Integration**	Latency***
Professional Organization DML=Flat hierarchy S/L=High line to staff T-M=Matrix LRR=Line predominates DMP=Line dominated	Dean asks faculty senate to instruct its curriculum committee to consider a new program			
Bureaucratic Organization DML=Tall hierarchy S/L=High line to staff T-M=Traditional LRR=Staff predominates DMP=Autocratic	Dean asks his/her own staff to develop a proposal to be submitted to the faculty on the subject of a new program			
Political Organization DML=Medium hierarchy S/L=Moderateline to staff T-M=Traditional LRR=Line predominates DMP=Line dominated	Dean meets with key department chairpersons to sound them out on the possibility of a new program. Dean seeks to establish coalitions with powerful faculty. Tests bargaining position with different constituencies			
Centralized Organization DML=Tall hierarchy S/L=High line to staff T-M=Traditional LRR=Mixed responsibility DMP=Autocratic	Dean announces new program to staff and faculty. Dean asks relevant personnel to implement program			
Anarchic Organization DML=Ambiguous S/L=Ambiguous T-M=Ambiguous	Dean aggregates forces indicating curricular problem and solution to problem when and if circumstances make it opportune			

*e.g., budget
**e.g., coordination
***e.g., personnel evaluation

Quite apart from the different strategies which a dean might take in different organizations, what is significant to observe from the hypothetical actions noted in each cell in Table 4 is the variation in the structural entities which serve the goal attainment functions. As Parsons suggests, for each function a different structural subsystem emerges to serve it. (cf. Lyden, 1975). Parsons indicates, for example, that the adaptation function in society is served largely by the economy, while the latency function is served by such structures as schools and religious institutions. Note that in Table 4, the same function, Organizational Goal Attainment, is served by quite different structural subsystems under the five model organizations. In the professional organization it is served by line personnel -- the faculty. In the bureaucratic organization, it is the dean's staff which attends to the function, while in the political organization, the department chairs and other power figures do the work. In the centralized college or university, the dean acts as the structure which serves the function.

This important shift in responsibility for the goal attainment function has implications for the understanding of faculty judgments of administrator effectiveness. Since goal attainment (and, equally important, latency) is a "consummatory" function, the ascription or attribution of success to the person or persons responsible will depend on the degree to which lower participants in the organization see the activity as gratificatory. If the dean is not directly identified as the responsible subsystem, it is quite likely that a major source or appreciation for his/her effectiveness will not be salient to faculty in their judgments

of effectiveness. As we will see later, there is associated with each phase of organizational movement an "appro-priate" or effective leadership orientation or pattern variable. Normally, we would expect that effective leadership presupposes a proper matching of style and contingencies. If, however, organizational type (per Pfeffer) is included as a contingency, and subsystems other than the leader's have primary responsibility for carrying out critical functions, the appropriate leader style may require a reconceptualization of the "system" toward which the leader is and must be oriented. The leader functions of the dean, that is, may be much more circumscribed in some types of organizations than is usually believed. Faculty evaluation of decanal effectiveness must, in turn, realistically consider these more limited domains of responsibility.

The Use of Power

Not only are the mechanisms of organizational action (structure and process) different across function and organizational type, but the modes of influence over compliance of others also varies. Administrators, such as deans, exercise their influence over their organizations and their subordinates, peers and superordinates in a variety of ways. In this section, we will be concerned especially with the ways in which the deans in the different types of organizations in the Pfeffer model attend to their leadership responsibilities through the use of power. Using some power typologies found in the literature, we will examine how power is likely to be distributed in the four types of organization, how it is exercised (using an adaptation of the

Parsonian pattern variables), and whether it is perceived by faculty as effective or not.[10]

We noted at the outset of this paper that in most social systems, resistance to authority and power stems from anxiety over possible loss of control. Faculty, who have strong needs for autonomy, are particularly sensitive to potential intrusions on their freedom to determine not only their work schedules but important parts of the work itself. Though they may recognize the primacy of institutional goals in organizations (Parsons, 1960), they prefer to elect to apportion their time in accordance with their own predilections, even within hierarchically circumscribed domains of activity. Faculty perception of loss of control is mitigated by the structural conditions and decision-making processes which the faculty member accepts on employment or learns to tolerate during the early socialization period of employment. Faculty members come to appreciate certain modes of decision-making as "legitimate" in a particular higher education setting. This process is often abetted through efforts of those in control.

Regardless of type of organization, however, there is always an asymmetry of power and authority between lower and higher level participants. Clearly, in professional type organizations, there is a more balanced distribution, but even there, authority rests ultimately with fiduciaries. In each of the types in the Pfeffer model, there is a strain toward individual and aggregate self control by lower participants which may be assuaged by judicious management by the formal authorities through the promulgation of a generalized belief in the legitimacy of the pro-

cesses of participation in decision-making. As leaders attend to the functional prerequisite of pattern maintenance, they seek to institutionalize the organizational decision-making structures which purportedly lead to the attainment of goals. Parsons refers to this as a "strain toward consistency."

Inevitably some part of this legitimation process involves the use of political processes. As Pfeffer (1981) observes:

> In the political processes within organizations, the task of the various political actors is to develop explanations, rationalizations, and legitimation for the desired activities and choices which are themselves frequently resolved through the use of power (p. 181).
>
> Political actors provide justifications and rationalizations that justify proposed decisions. These justifications serve to ensure support both inside the organization and from external groups, in that they are consistent with social norms, values, and expectations for organizational activity (p. 182).

As noted earlier, administrators in different types of organizations exercise their power in different ways, each of which may or may not fit faculty expectations of appropriateness in the satisfaction of either organizational prerequisites or personal prerequisites. That is, the manner by which the dean defines the participative system in, say, a professional or political/coalition type organization and the ways he/she introduces and forwards substantive matters is critical to the faculty perception of effectiveness. One way of conceiving of administrator behavior under these differing conditions is to look at influence processes in which they engage (Carzo and Yanouzas, 1967, pp. 197-ff). Bacharach and Lawler (1980) have suggested that power as such a process can be divided analytically into "sources," "types," and "bases" as shown in Table 5. By source, these

authors mean the modes by which actors come to control power. Type of power distinguishes between the zero-sum and non-zero-sum (i.e., continuous) manifestations of power, while basis of power refers to the currency employed in power use (e.g., money or information).

Table 5

Relationships of Sources, Types and Bases of Power[a]

Source	Bases	Type
Structure	Authority	Coercion Remunerative Normative Knowledge
Personality	Influence	Normative Knowledge
Expertise	Influence	Normative Knowledge
Opportunity	Influence	Coercion Knowledge

[a] From Bacharach and Lawler (1980), Power and Politics in Organizations

---

As Bacharach and Lawler note, "coercive power" is the control of punishment, "remunerative power" is control of rewards, "normative power," the control of symbols, and "knowledge power," the control of information. While some previous research on the use of power by administrators in higher education has been conducted (Bachman, 1968; Coltrin and Glueck, 1977; Cope, 1973; Hill and French, 1967; Neumann, 1978), it does not deal explicitly with the concept of administrator effectiveness from the

faculty perspective. The value of the Bacharach and Lawler conceptualization is that it permits a diagnostic understanding of what kinds of power are likely to be used, under what conditions and to what effect. In organizations where faculty have relatively more alternatives to depending solely on decanal decisions or/and have lower stakes in them, power sources, types and bases will differ from organizations in which faculty are heavily dependent (as in centralized institutions).

For example, refer again to Table 4 and the illustration of curriculum planning. To reiterate, the dean in this case is attending to goal attainment functions in a political/coalition type organization.[11] One could argue reasonably that in this instance the dean would use at least three bases of power -- knowledge, remunerative, and coercion, but would find normative power (manipulation of symbols) a rather impotent base in this kind of organization. Coercion as a base might stem from his/her formal "authority" in the given "structure" of the organization, although in a university with many tenured faculty, coercion may have a limited force.

Remunerative power would also be derived from the position structure. Here, the dean would promise -- or more likely imply -- the increased availability of rewards if the chairpersons agree to a curriculum revision desired by the dean. It is equally likely, however, that the dean will seek to exercise power through influence, rather than authority. Hence, he/she will take advantage of personality and opportunity. Charismatic leadership, for example, may induce some department chairs to comply, and the particulars of the curriculum change may provide oppor-

tunities for the dean to work his/her influence through friendship networks already established in the organization. It is not likely, however, that expertise as a source of influence will be invoked, since the dean will probably not possess any superior knowledge or skills in curriculum building to which claim can be laid. Indeed, it could be argued that expertise over curriculum matters rests more solidly among the affected faculty -- or, perhaps more importantly, is perceived to reside there. From the faculty perspective in this type of organization, such decanal activity would probably be viewed as legitimate and effective, even by those faculty members who are the losers in the political battles for control over their working lives. In another type of organization, say the "professional" type identified in the Pfeffer model, it would not. In the latter case, we might hypothesize (again, quite speculatively) that a different pattern of power sources, types and bases would be employed. We might expect a much heavier reliance on normative and knowledge bases, with coercion and remunerative bases less operative. In common with the political/coalition type organization, the dean would rely on personality and opportunity to influence the faculty, and again, expertise would be subordinated.

We should reiterate here that the dean's authority or/and influence, potential or actual, refers not only to the substance of curriculum change (or any other matter), but also to the process itself. Thus, decanal power will be exerted in directions meant either to legitimize the decision-making process (the "governance" mechanism in postsecondary institutions) or to subvert it -- which one depending on the type of organization. For

example, whereas constitutionally in a university a faculty may have "authority" over curriculum matters, a dean in a political/-coalition organization may attempt through power to undermine that authority, while in a professional organization, he/she may strive to support its legitimacy. Importantly, in both cases faculty may see the activity as both legitimate and "effective" when successful. Indeed, to the extent that the dean conforms to these faculty expectations, they will view him/her as furthering their own objectives and are likely themselves to act in ways congruent with the dean's (and presumably the organization's) goals (House, 1971).

Organizational Life-Cycle Phases

We must at this point add one more contingency to our predictions of faculty assessment of administrator effectiveness. Earlier, we suggested that evaluations of effectiveness are related to the time frame in which the objectives of the administrator are to be accomplished. Here we wish to point out another time related dimension of organizational politics. As organizations proceed through various cycles of development, change, decline and rejuvenation (Kimberly, Miles and Associates, 1980), more or less attention is paid to one or another of the prerequisites (Parsons, Bales and Shils, 1953). In Parsons' terms, these "phases" are changing states of the system through some interval in time, when, in ipsative fashion, more organizational energy is addressed to one prerequisite at the expense of the others. Most important for our discussion here is the assertion by Parsons that in each phase, there are dominant

modes of orientations of the actors in the system and dominant modalities or meanings that the actors attach to others in the system. Both orientations and modalities constitute what Parsons calls the "pattern variables," each of which has four possible values.

The modes of orientation describe the systematic, patterned ways that actors in social systems such as organizations have interests in or related to other persons or objects in the system. Parsons suggests that one can categorize the interests in others in social situations through two dichotomous variables -- (1) the degree to which the actor desires a "specific vs. rather more "diffuse" relationship; and, (2) the degree to which the actor wants to become involved in and derive satisfaction from relationships versus the desire to remain neutral toward others. For example, an actor such as a faculty member or dean may see others in instrumental terms (specificity-neutrality) -- in other words, how others can be of assistance in forwarding his/her own ends. Another example might be a dean who sees a particular faculty member as a source of personal satisfaction (specificity-affectivity). Hills (1966) illustrates the alternatives in the following two-by-two table (Table 6):

Table 6

Modes of Orientation

	Neutrality	Affectivity
Specificity	Need for instrumental utilization	Need for consummation
Diffuseness	Need for commitment	Need for solidarity

The "modalities" or categories of meaning to the actor are also subject to dichotomous classification (Hills, 1966, p. 5). Another two-by-two table (Table 7) describes these categories:

Table 7

Modalities of Meaning

	Universalism	Particularism
Performance	Objects of Utility	Goal Objects
Quality	Objects of Generalized Respect	Objects of Identification

To give one illustration, a highly research oriented faculty member might view the dean largely in terms of universalism and performance -- i.e., solely in terms of what the dean (irrespective of his/her personality or special context of action) can do in the role .

As noted above distinctive orientations and modalities can be seen to be operative in each of the phases. In what follows, we will be concerned with the ways in which the phase of the organization affects the dean's orientations toward the faculty as dean's roles are executed politically in each of the types of

organizations identified earlier. The focus will also be on how these different attitudes in different phases affect faculty interpretation of the effectiveness of the dean.

There are five kinds of pattern variables. Only one of the four (the fifth is not relevant) will be seen to suffuse the orientations of the actors each time one or another prerequisite becomes dominant. The particular orientations which obtain when any one of the prerequisites is salient is noted in Table 8 below.

Table 8

Pattern Variable Characteristic of the Functional Prerequisites[a]

Adaptation	--	Specificity (vs. Diffuseness) Universalism (vs. Particularism)
Goal Attainment	--	Affectivity (vs. Affective Neutrality) Performance (vs. Quality)
Latency	--	Affective Neutrality (vs. Affectivity) Quality (vs. Performance)
Integration	--	Diffuseness (vs. Specificity) Particularism (vs. Universalism)

[a] Adapted from Bess, "Patterns of Satisfaction of Organizational Prerequisites and Personal Needs in University Departments of High and Low Quality," 1971, p. 83.

While all of the phase orientations of the dean cannot be illustrated here because of space limitations, let us take one as an example. Most colleges and universities in the 1980's must be especially attentive to accommodating the institution to changing environmental conditions. Such a situation requires an active

concern for the transformation of the organization to attend to the new external realities. In Parsons' conception, this new orientation is reflective of an increased concentration on the successful satisfaction of the adaptation prerequisite:

> The eventual mastery of the external situation through instrumental activity necessitates "realistic" judgments in terms of generalized predictions concerning the behavior of objects. Hence, the relation of actors to objects needs to be universalistic, that is, cognizant of the characteristics of the object in relation to other objects' characteristics. It is necessary, moreover, if the situation is to be "mastered" and not simply "accommodated to" for these universalistically defined properties to be perceived and dealt with in specific contexts of relevance to given goal-interests. Hence the character of the attitude tends to be marked by specificity of interest (p. 183).

Translated into more practical terms, these authors are suggesting that when organizations under stress become more concerned with successfully mastering the adaptation of their organization to external and internal changes, the actors in those organizations tend to become more performance-oriented and to view others in the organization from a more cognitive perspective. For example, quantitative standards come to predominate. Moreover, affective or emotional reactions are inhibited, since those attitudes tend to be more appropriate to the activities required in other prerequisites. Perhaps most important for this paper is the observation that for some types of organizations, there may be a time lag between the recognition of administrators and the awareness of faculty that the organization has moved into a new phase. Hence, faculty tend to expect the predominant orientations of a prior phase and are not prepared for the shift to the new. In terms of rated effectiveness of administrators, therefore, faculty will apply standards which are "out of phase" with

the needs of the institution as a whole. As will be shown, however, not all types of organizations are as subject to changes in decision-making climates and modes as others.

Let us illustrate this, again referring to the three organizing principals discussed thus far: type of organization (Pfeffer), prerequisite (Parsons), and power (Bacharach and Lawler). A dean attending to a curriculum decision (goal attainment prerequisite) in a political type organization which was experiencing a relatively affluent period might use knowledge, remuneration and coercion, as noted earlier. As Table 8 indicates, however, the dominant orientation of actors in goal attainment decisions (and in organizations whose phase is weighted toward goal attainment) is "affectivity" and "performance." The norms of the organization and the politics of the situations, then, require the dean's activities to be framed in terms of affectivity and performance. He/she must relate to faculty in expressive ways and must symbolize achievements of the unit of organization in very concrete terms so that their meanings can be appreciated or "consumed" by the faculty. The political modes commonly employed in political type organizations do not, however, lend themselves to such decanal orientations. Thus, we find frequently the formation of various informal coalitions and the suboptimization of goals by formal units, partially as accommodations to the prescribed behavior of the formal leader. Too, as noted above, other subsystems than the dean's office may be called upon to serve the goal attainment function.

If we look, on the other hand, at the same type of organization -- political -- under a different phase, say in a period of

decline, we can characterize the dominant mode as "adaptation." Note that here the expectation is that the dean's orientations toward faculty will reflect specificity and universalism. In this case, the political power source, type and base more closely "fit" the expectation. In part, this explains the orientations of actors in many political type organizations. There is a strain to treat the system as having an economy of scarcity, even when resources are ample. The proclivity stems from the inertia of the organization's political ethos or saga, which, in turn, requires a continual legitimation of the modes of decision-making extant. In short, an organization once politicized tends to remain so (Nadler, Hackman and Lawler, 1979, p. 227; Pfeffer, 1981, p. 32). The "phase," then, in a political type organization may not be as critical to the evaluation by the faculty of the dean's effectiveness.

Such is probably not the case in another of the Pfeffer type organizations. Let us examine, more briefly, a "professional" organization. Recall that in such an organization there is a high degree of consensus about goals and about the means of achieving them, as well as agreement about the legitimacy of decentralization of authority. In a goal attainment phase, occasioned by slack resources, the dean of a professional organization would be likely to rely on influence rather than authority as the type of power and on personality and opportunity as sources of power (see Table 5 above). (Again, expertise as a source would be unlikely, since the faculty might be expected to have more knowledge in curriculum matters than would a dean unfamiliar with a particular field.) While coercion as a power

base would be unlikely, the dean might use special knowledge gained opportunistically in his/her position and would use and manipulate norms to effect the changes he/she desires.

In a phase dominated by goal attainment, we would predict, according to Parsons, that the orientation of actors would be dominated by affectivity (vs. affective neutrality) and performance (vs. quality) -- see Table 8 above. Deans, for example, concerned with making manifest the consummatory character of the organization's achievements, would find themselves willing to express their affective orientation. They would see the achievements as unique performances of faculty and not as manifestations of static work expectations. In such good times, in a professional organization, faculty would be responsive to decanal behavior of this sort. Here again, there is a "fit," as there was for the political type organization in the adaptation phase. Moreover, as noted earlier, in a professional type organization, the structural subsystem primarily responsible for the goal attainment activity is the faculty itself, not the dean's office, so questions of maladaptation or misfit are not critical.

In times of decline, on the other hand, when the adaptation phase predominates, the expectation is that persons in this (as in the political) organization will be dominated by specificity (vs. diffuseness) and universalism (vs. particularism) in the interests of attending to the instrumental nature of activities concerned with adaptation. While a dean in the professional type organization would still rely on knowledge and normative power bases, he/she would relate to each faculty achievement primarily as a means to an organizational end, not as a pleasurable source

of cathexis, either for the dean or faculty member. In contrast to the goal attainment function, the dean and his/her office is the subsystem seen to be responsible for adaptation. Hence, faculty members will look to the dean for leadership.

An important distinction must be made here between faculty as line workers and faculty as managers (Parsons, 1959). Insofar as faculty perform the basic work activities of research and teaching, they view the dean according to his/her capacity to facilitate those processes. In their managerial functions, the subsystem of faculty views the dean as colleague or competitor for power and authority, depending on the particular type of organization. In an adaptation phase, faculty in a professional type organization may find their resources for performing their line functions reduced. In this case, they will tend to be oriented toward the dean from the same perspective as the dean is toward them -- i.e., in terms of specificity and universalism. They will see the dean and his/her office as an instrument serving them. They will consider the dean specifically as a means of providing resources and will have expectations that those resources will be provided without bias. Since the model of a professional type organization requires that both faculty and dean be committed to the decentralization of power, faculty will continue, even as the organization shifts from a goal attainment phase to an adaptation phase, to serve as the subsystem responsible for goal attainment and, in its managerial capacity, for adaptation. It is entirely possible, then, that the dean in such an organization serves more as a figurehead than an executive. Faculty evaluations of the dean's effectiveness apparently are

not affected by the efficacy of the dean in either of these two crucial functional prerequisites. Rather, the dean will be viewed as effective to the extent that he/she serves the two internal prerequisites of integration and pattern maintenance. The phase through which the professional organization goes, then, is also not critical to the evaluation of the dean's effectiveness. Other kinds of organizations (e.g., political/coalition, bureaucratic, and centralized), on the other hand, will tend to be much more sensitive to phase movements with concomitant shifts in responsibility for prerequisite functions and changes in expected behaviors and attitudes of organizational actors.

The Ambiguity of Structure and Phase

The Pfeffer four-fold organizational schema speaks in part to the issue of governance in institutions of higher education, but the definition of "authority" is complicated in this field, particularly at the higher end of the institutional complexity scale. That is, the more complex the institution, the more authority for the execution of different functions is spread traditionally across both administrative and faculty personnel. Moreover, with complexity there arises an increasing diffuseness in the boundaries of decision-making -- a diffuseness having both functional and dysfunctional consequences. The organization under these conditions inevitably becomes more politicized, even when there is consensus on goals and technology and especially when consensus is absent, as in the other two Pfeffer categories of institution.

What is critical to understand here is that whereas the functions identified by Parsons must still be satisfied, the authority structures in complex institutions like universities are often ambiguous (Cohen and March, 1974). While faculty handbooks and constitutions frequently identify what seem to be clearcut jurisdictional authority domains, in reality, decisions are often made sub rosa either by dominant coalitions of faculty or of faculty and key administrators working toward common goals which may not be those of the majority (Cyert and March, 1963; Mortimer and McConnell, 1979). Under these differing conditions of institutional differentiation, the role of the dean thus may shift frequently from administrative manager to political leader and back. As this occurs, faculty expectations of the dean also shift. As Ryan (1980) notes:

> ...organizational members may hold one set of expectations for the dean's role in the administrative organization and another set for his role in the academic organization. While the two structures appear to serve different institutional functions and thus be conceptually independent, in practice there may be a blurring of responsibilities.

Perhaps most interesting in this ambiguity is a concomitant shifting of faculty orientations from concerns with the administrator's effectiveness in creating organizational conditions which permit the faculty member to maximize his/her ego satisfactions (via teaching or research) to the administrator's effectiveness in maximizing the faculty member's lower-order needs -- e.g., for job continuity (e.g., tenure) and financial security and well-being. To follow the Parsons framework (using the "person" as the system), faculty members will shift from attempts to satisfy the consummatory prerequisites (goal attainment and

integration) to efforts addressing their instrumental prerequisites (adaptation and pattern maintenance and tension reduction). With this change in orientation come changes in expectations of decanal behavior.

When faculty are oriented toward deans acting as political leaders in an academic governance structure characterized by shared power and decision-making with respect to organizational goal attainment or the integration of units, they expect quite different behavior and attitudes than when they see the dean as an evaluator of their prospects for tenure or salary advancement. As Hills (1968) notes:

> Thus, from the system phase perspective, we may say that (1)if the primary functional problem of the system is adaptation (the production of generalized facilities) the actors are expected to adhere to norms which incorporate the universalistic categorization of objects and specificity of interest; (2)if the primary functional problem of the system is the attainment of a goal for the system, then actors are expected to adhere to norms which incorporate performance categorization of objects and affective interest; (3)if the primary functional problem of the system is integration, then actors are expected to adhere to norms defined in terms of particularism and diffuseness; and (4)if the primary functional problem of the system is pattern-maintenance, then actors are expected to adhere to norms which call for quality categorization of objects and neutral basis of interest.

In other words, when the dean acts to make decisions on how the institution can better achieve its goals (e.g., through curriculum change), faculty norms permit him/her to categorize and define the nature of the proposal concretely and specifically to indicate its probable effects, and to express openly his/her feelings about the matter. On the other hand, when the dean acts in an evaluative function, faculty expect norms of quality and neutrality. As noted above, as organizations fluctuate in phases

requiring attention to different prerequisites, there is a lag in the "appropriate" shift in faculty expectations of decanal performance and an accompanying confusion over whether the dean can be judged an effective administrator.

What is important to recognize here is that the ambiguity in many kinds of colleges and universities, particularly the more complex ones of the political/coalition types, leaves a normative gap in the organizational culture. It is not easy to determine either what the structure of decision-making is or what phase the institution is moving through. The result of this is that faculty must themselves interpret both. Since such interpretation may not be accurate, there arises an inevitable potential for erroneous evaluation of the dean's effectiveness.

In the next section we will show the basis in the idiographic dimension -- aggregate faculty personalities -- for their interpretations.

Faculty Subcultures

Thus far we have considered the relationship of the dean to the faculty as if the latter were a monolith. From research evidence and practical experience we know that such is not the case. Faculty differ not only individually but in manifest and latent identities and orientations (Bess, 1982; Biglan, 1973; Gouldner, 1957-58; Thompson, Hawkes and Avery, 1969; Kelly and Hart, 1971; Peters, 1979; Smart and Elton, 1975; Smart and McLaughlin, 1978). Hence, it is necessary to partition the faculty in ways which help to understand the differential perceptions of administrator effectiveness held by faculty of different

persuasions. Doing this will permit a better appreciation by the dean of the political tactic and strategy, which best matches the largest number of faculty leadership style preferences while allowing simultaneous execution of duties in the most effective way. It is, of course, unlikely that any administrator will be able always to satisfy all faculty all the time (just as Mann et al., 1970, found that no teacher could maximize his/her effectiveness all the time, given the diversity of students in a classroom).

There are an infinite number of ways in which faculty can be divided. The most common are into the traditional disciplines and schools. Much research points to the differences in psychological orientations which obtain across faculty in different fields. Hence, to some extent, faculty appraisals of administrator effectiveness will be a function of the similarities in disciplinary backgrounds between faculty and administrator. If there is a managerial style associated with the personality of a dean, then it would follow that faculty with similar personality dispositions would tend to find the style of the administrator more acceptable, and might in turn be predisposed to find his/her actions more effective.

Kilmann and Herden (1976) cf. Mitroff and Kilmann (1978), have suggested that "evaluators will process information in a way that is congruent with the perception component of their personalities." Moreover, "they will formulate a conceptual model for the evaluation, based upon their perceptions and congruent with the judgment component of their personalities." Kilmann and Herden call these two dimensions the "input data dimension" and

the "decision-making dimension."

Faculty, according to this theory, would be disposed to consider information they receive (the first dimension) according to one of two personality functions (stemming from Jungian psychology): either sensation or intuition. Sensation is a perceptual orientation that focuses on details and facts, particularly in a "now" orientation to situations. Intuition, on the other hand, has a holistic, global flavor occurring when people tend to use hunches, imagination, and futuristic means of understanding phenomena.

In processing data received (making decisions based on them -- the second dimension), faculty are disposed to use one of two other personality functions: thinking or feeling. Thinking "is the judgmental function concerned with formulating impersonal rules, logical procedures, and analytical approaches for making decisions," while "feeling as judgment is concerned with extreme individual cases and with personal and subjective value judgments for decisions making" (Kilmann and Herden, 1976).

When each perception function is combined with each judgment function, four psychological types are created:

ST -- sensation-thinking

NT -- intuition-thinking

SF -- sensation-feeling

NF -- intuition-feeling

Individuals who fall into these four categories tend to define and solve problems in quite different ways. Kilmann and Herden go on to suggest that the goals of persons evaluating the effectiveness of others vary according to the psychological type into

which they fall. For example, ST's tend to be concerned with "internal efficiency" or the establishment of optimum levels of quantity, quality and efficiency. Faculty with this orientation would expect the dean to be superior in maximizing the ratio of outputs to inputs. A "good" dean for this group would be concerned, for example, with making sure that student and faculty interaction in and out of class was carefully planned, organized, and directed.

Intuition-thinking faculty (NT's), on the other hand, would look at the dean in terms of the latter's overall effectiveness in securing adequate resources for them, either from the central administration (through shrewd bargaining) or through the facilitation of grant proposal writing. These types of faculty, in other words, would view the dean as effective when he/she fights successfully for resources on their behalf or who creates imaginative new programs which can be funded. A third type of faculty, sensation-feeling faculty (SF's), take another approach to evaluation, looking for detailed facts but putting highly personal judgments on those facts, particularly as they affect interpersonal relations. A good dean in this faculty member's opinion is one who can create a warm, close-knit, collegial community of scholars who truly care for one another as individuals. He/she is also one who addresses each faculty member individually and is successful in attending to the faculty member's sources of motivation.

Finally, the intuition-feeling faculty members (NF's) take a broader view of thproblems of human society, viewing their organizational lives "through the gestalt, by synthesis and per-

sonalistic value judgment" (Kilmann and Herden, 1976). An effective dean for this group would be one who successfully leads the college he/she leads to significant improvements in the society outside the institution.

The four different perspectives on evaluation of the dean are set in the context of internal-external orientations and effectiveness and efficiency, according to Kilmann and Herden. Their model, with some modifications, appears in Table 9 below.

Table 9

A Model of Organizational Effectiveness[a]

	Internal	Cross-Boundary
		T
Instrumental	Internal Efficiency (ST) (Maximize energy output, energy input)	External Efficiency (NT) (Maximize bargaining position in environmental exchange)
S		N
Consummatory	Internal Effectiveness (SF) (Maximize member motivation)	External Effectiveness (NF) (Maximize societal satisfaction)
		F

[a] Adapted from Kilmann and Herden, "Towards a Systemic Methodology for Evaluating the Impact of Interventions on Organizational Effectiveness," 1976.

The similarity of this typology to that of Parsons appears accidental (no reference to Parsons appears in the Kilmann and Herden bibliography), but it is striking, nevertheless. What

this suggests is that ST'S will be concerned primarily with integration, NT's with adaptation, SF's with latency, and NF's with goal attainment. Perhaps more important, as the organization proceeds through different phases, any one dean will be successively matched and mismatched with the phase (i.e., the dean's own personality disposition itself falls into one or another of the Jungian categories). Hence, the faculty's evaluation of the dean will be made in terms of (1) whether the dean's personality (and associated behaviors) matches the phases; and, (2) whether the dean's personality (and behaviors) matches the particular subgroup's personality type -- and, related expectations of decanal behavior. In other words, since the phase dictates the expectations of the actors in an organization (according to Parsons), faculty will anticipate that the dean will act symmetrically with those phase expectations. If the dean is mismatched to the phase, having been appointed during another phase, for example, then he/she may not be able to conform to those expectations, and the faculty may view him/her with disfavor. Further, if a subgroup of faculty finds itself dispositionally different from the dean regardless of phase, it will also view the dean unfavorably. (The corollary to this, of course, is that some faculty will always be out of synchronization with the phase, though they may be isomorphic with the dean.)

Lacking empirical evidence at this date, we cannot determine whether "matched" personalities (deans and faculty subgroup) will always result in higher evaluations, or whether all faculty, regardless of subgroup (which, incidentally, are doubtless linked

to traditional disciplines), will rate the dean highly if he/she has a personality appropriate to the phase. To put the discussion into somewhat less abstract terms, it is not clear whether the economics department will rate the dean highly only when the latter has the "economics personality" regardless of phase, or whether economists will view the dean as effective when dean and phase are matched, regardless of whether the dean is an economist. In sum, views of managerial effectiveness may be a function of matched phases and deans, or matched deans and disciplinary faculty, or some combination of both.

There remains the final merging of these notions of faculty subculture and Parsonian phase with the earlier discussions of different types of organizations in the Pfeffer framework. The question must be asked as to whether in different kinds of organizations which proceed through different phases faculty subcultures differ from one another in their evaluations of the dean. For example, does an NT subculture in a political/coalition type organization in a goal attainment phase differ from an NT subculture in a professional type organization undergoing the same phase? Again, the answer awaits empirical validation, but it would appear that the dimensions in the Pfeffer typology -- goal consensus and amount of control -- are vital stimuli to the faculty. They will differentially affect faculty subcultures of different types. Sensation-thinking types (ST's) will doubtless feel more comfortable in a bureaucratic organization, regardless of phase and regardless of the dean's personality type. Conversely, it would seem reasonable that deans whose personalities do not "fit" the organizational type will be viewed unfavorably

by all faculty, but by the subcultures somewhat closer to the deans' somewhat less unfavorably. In sum, the "culture" of the organization demands a matched dean.

Summary

We have attempted in this paper to conceptualize the meaning of "managerial effectiveness," as conceived by faculty in institutions of higher education. Clarification of the term will help in understanding how administrators can behave more effectively since in the exercise of their power(s), administrators presumably have some discretion.

The paper began with a discussion of alternative ways of conceiving of institutions of higher education. The Pfeffer model was employed, since it lent itself to an analysis of distinct hypothetical differences in the kinds of behavior which faculty might conceive as "effective" administration. We then turned to a more precise conceptualization of these behaviors. The Parsons AGIL functionalist perspective was employed for this purpose. This section of the paper considered how in the different Pfeffer-type organizations, deans might be expected to attend to the four functional prerequisites faced by the institution. We noted here especially how in the different types, actual responsibility is carried out by offices or persons other than the dean, though the dean may be praised -- or, more likely, blamed -- for effectiveness in executing the function.

But it is not merely the administration of the function which is critical. As we noted in the next section, it is the perceived legitimacy of different kinds of power which also

determines whether faculty see the dean as effective. Further, in different types of organizations deans may accomplish the same function using different power sources, types and bases (using the Bacharach and Lawler typology).

Having identified the variables of organizational type, required functions and legitimized power, we then noted that perceptions of the dean's effectiveness would vary further depending on the particular life-cycle phase in which the institution found itself. In this section of the paper, we pointed out that organizational members change their expectations of appropriate behavior as the organization attends to one or another prerequisite. We illustrated how this might take place in two different types of organizations and how the dean's failure to shift his/her behaviors might lead to negative evaluations of effectiveness. A brief section of the paper next dealt with the ambiguity of structure and phase, pointing out how this ambiguity tends to leave to the faculty member or subgroup the interpretation of organizational condition and, further, to expect behavior which conforms largely to the faculty's prototypical dispositions.

At the outset of this paper, we noted that the managerial effectiveness of the dean might be determined not so much on the basis of actual performance as by ancillary qualities. We noted that "personal effectiveness" which involves the dean directly with the faculty may not be as important to the "impressions" that faculty receive as are other roles played in the course of satisfying organizational needs of his/her office. That is, faculty views of administrator effectiveness in resource alloca-

tion, curriculum revision, personnel matters, and fiscal concerns may not be as relevant as the image of the dean as he/she plays out power options. Indeed, it is in the realm of "integration" and "latency" that the dean has most impact on the faculty sense of themselves as autonomous professionals. While the provision of conditions whereby faculty can act as professionals (i.e., in goal attainment and adaptation phases) may in fact be more crucial in the long-run attainment of ego satisfaction of faculty, there is some reason to believe that in a political environment, faculty will be more attentive to "stroking" (particularly in phases of the organizational life cycle characterized by decline). If this is true, faculty perceptions of the dean's effectiveness will be more determined by the dean's activities in areas quite different from those normally associated with "effective" behavior. Decline, for example, as we have noted, typically calls for orientations and modalities of meaning which are not assuaging to faculty sensitivities.

In the long run, of course, we might consider whether organizations which are "political" in character, as defined in the Pfeffer model, have the potential for being as effective as they might. Much energy is expended in such organizations in conflict adjudication. Though some theorists would assert that such conflict is functional for organizational adaptation (Deutsch, 1973), others suggest that proper organizational design may mitigate non-functional dissipation of energy in politically conflicted organizations. If organizations move toward the professional model, we might expect that the dean's effectiveness might more properly be associated with substantive organizational

and task design, instead of with affective concerns, since a climate of trust would permit faculty to be more task oriented. The activities of a dean in this kind of organization might require yet a different personality disposition than one would need in a political system.

To conclude, it appears that effective administration depends importantly on the type of organization, its phases, kinds of power used, and on the personalities of both administrator and faculty. Understanding the appropriate "fit" among these will lead to more productive leadership and to more favorable impressions of that leadership. Reid (1972) suggests that evaluation of administrators still lacks conceptual as well as empirical clarity, despite a recent increase in publications on the subject. The integration of the theories noted in this paper may contribute to that clarity.

Notes

1. These conditions are not necessarily perceived as adequate, of course. See Cotton (1976).

2. The use of the term "administrator" here is to suggest that the analysis applies equally well to virtually any head of a faculty unit. In the paper, we illustrate by substituting the term "dean."

3. The choice of the "power" variable rather than the more classical "leadership style" is a considered one. While "consideration" and "initiating structure," for example, might well influence perceptions of effectiveness, it is felt that power as a concept is a more telling variable in the loosely coupled administrator-faculty relationships which characterize collegiate institutions.

4. There is some considerable murkiness in the explications of the dimensions of leadership and leadership effectiveness in the literature. This has led us to turn instead to the functionalist approach which, in fact, has many parallels to the typical concepts proposed.

5. As Kerr and Jermier (1978) note, "substitutes for leadership" may replace direct leader responsibility for some parts of these roles.

6. This approach, while useful in understanding decisionmaking, does not lend itself to an understanding of faculty perceptions of administrator effectiveness in organizations with variations in control strategies.

7. These types are "pure" abstractions. In reality, in all organizations some mixture occurs (cf. Childers, 1981).

8. It is, of course, conceivable that gradual increments or decrements in budgets will, over time, constitute real, if inarticulated, changes in policy (Lindblom, 1958).

9. Both actual and perceived participation in each condition affect subordinate evaluations of administrator effectiveness (Calder, 1977).

10. We should note, by the way, that we refer here not to the concept of "satisfaction." Though a large volume of literature deals with the relationship between leader behavior and subordinate satisfaction (particularly in the "job facets" tradition), and though there is doubtless a strong relationship between satisfaction and biases in the evaluation of the superordinate by the subordinate, we are attempting here to restrict the analysis to the "impression" of administrator performance by faculty. The faculty, in other words, are considered here apart from their own satisfactions with a variety of features in their work and organ-

izational environments (cf. Neumann, 1978, Bess, 1973). Effectiveness judgments of faculty as they are affected by power used by administrators turn largely on the perceived legitimacy of the particular combination of power source, type and base employed in service of a functional prerequisite in a distinctive kind of institution.

11. As will be quite obvious, because of the absence of empirical data, hypotheses on the source, type and base of power used in this instance are speculative, to say the least.

References

1. Abdel-Halim, Ahmed A., "Personality and Task Moderators of Subordinate Responses to Perceived Leader Behavior," Human Relations, January, 1981, 34, 1, 73-88.

2. Allen, Robert W., Dan L. Madison, Lyman Porter, Patricia A. Renwick & Bronston T. Mays, "Organizational Politics: Tactics and Characteristics of Its Actors," California Management Review, Fall, 1979, 32, 1.

3. Bacharach, Samuel B. & Edward J. Lawler, Power and Politics in Organizations, San Francisco, Jossey-Bass Publishers, 1980.

4. Bachman, Jerald G., "Faculty Satisfaction and the Dean's Influence: An Organizational Study of Twelve Liberal Arts Colleges," Journal of Applied Psychology, 1968, 52, 1, 55-61.

5. Baldridge, J. Victor, D. V. Curtis, G. Ecker, & G. L. Riley, Policy Making and Effective Leadership, San Francisco, Jossey-Bass Publishers, 1978.

6. Bess, James L., "Patterns of Satisfactions of Organizational Prerequisites and Personal Needs in University Academic Departments," Sociology of Education, Winter, 1973, 46, 1.

7. Bess, James L., "Patterns of Satisfactions of Organizational Prerequisites and Personal Needs In University Departments of High and Low Quality," Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, University of California-Berkeley, 1971.

8. Bess, James L., University Organization, New York, Human Sciences Press, 1982.

9. Biglan, Anthony, "The Characteristics of Subject Matter in Different Academic Areas," Journal of Applied Psychology, , 1973, 57, 3, .

10. Bragg, Ann Kieffer, "The Socialization of Academic Department Heads: Past Patterns and Future Possibilities." Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Association for the Study of Higher Education, Washington, D. C., 1981.

11. Brown, Martha A., "What Kind of Leaders Do Faculty Members Want," College Management, January, 1973, 8, 1.

12. Calder, Bobby J., "An Attribution Theory of Leadership," in Barry M. Staw & Gerald R. Salancik, (eds.), New Directions in Organizational Behavior, Chicago, St. Clair Press, 1977.

13. Cameron, Kim S. & David S. Whetten, "Perceptions of Organizational Effectiveness over Organizational Life Cycles," Administrative Science Quarterly, December, 1981, 26, 4, 525-544.

14. Carzo, Rocco Jr. & John N. Yanouzas, Formal Organizations: A Systems Approach, Homewood, Illinois, Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1967.

15. Coltrin, Sally & William F. Glueck, "The Effect of Leadership Roles on the Satisfaction and Productivity of University Research Professors," Academy of Management Journal, March, 1977, 20, 1, 101-116.

16. Cope, Robert G., "Bases of Power, Administrative Preferences and Job Satisfaction: A Situational Approach," Journal of Vocational Behavior, 1973, 3, 1, 1-9.

17. Cotton, Chester C., "Measurement of Power-Balancing Styles and Some of Their Correlates," Administrative Science Quarterly, June, 1976, 21 2, 307-319.

18. Cyert, Richard M. & James G. Marsh, A Behavioral Theory of the Firm, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, Prentice Hall, Inc., 1963.

19. Dahl, Robert, "The Concept of Power," Behavioral Science, July, 1957, II, 201-215.

20. Day, Robert & Day, JoAnne V. "A Review of the Current State of Negotiated Order Theory: An Appreciation and a Critique," Sociological Quarterly, 1977, 18.

21. Deutsch, Morton, The Resolution of Conflict, New Haven, Yale University Press, 1973.

22. DeVries, David L., "The Relationship of Role Expectations to Faculty Behavior," Research in Higher Education, 1975 3, 2, 111-129.

23. Etzioni, Amatai, A Comparative Analysis of Complex Organizations, New York, The Free Press, 1961.

24. Filley, Alan C. & Robert J. House, Managerial Process and Organizational Behavior, Glenview, Ill., Scott, Foresman and Company, 1969.

25 Frank, Andrew G., "Administrative Role Definition and Social Change," Human Organization, Winter, 1963, 22, 238-242.

26. French, J. R. & B. H. Raven, "The Bases of Social Power," in D. Cartwright (ed.), Studies in Social Power, Ann Arbor, University of Michigan Press, 1959.

27. Getzels, Jacob W., James M. Lipham & Roald F. Campbell, Educational Administration as a Social Process, New York, Harper and Row, Publishers, 1968.

28. Ghorpade, Jaisingh, (ed.), Assessment of Organizational Effectiveness, Pacific Palisades, Calif., Goodyear Publishing Company, Inc., 1971.

29. Goodman, Paul S., Johannes M. Pennings & Associates, New Perspectives on Organizational Effectiveness, San Francisco, Jossey-Bass Publishers, 1977.

30. Gouldner, Alvin, "Cosmopolitans and Locals: Toward and Analysis of Latent Social Roles - I, II," Administrative Science Quarterly, December, 1957 and March, 1958, 2, Nos. 3 and 4.

31. Hall, Douglas T., & Cynthia V. Fukami, "Organization Design and Adult Learning," Research in Organizational Behavior, 1979, 1, 125-167.

32. Hill, Winston W. & Wendell L. French, "Perceptions of Power of Department Chairmen by Professors," Administrative Science Quarterly, March, 1967, 2, 4, 648-574.

33. Hills, R. Jean, Toward a Science of Organization, Eugene, Oregon, Center for the Advanced Study of Educational Administration, University of Oregon, 1968.

34. Homans, George C., The Human Group, New York, Harcourt Brace and Company, 1950.

35. House, Robert, "A Path-Goal Theory of Leader Effectiveness," Administrative Science Quarterly, 1971, 16, 321-338.

36. Jacobson, Eugene, W. W. Charter, Jr. & S. Lieberman, "The Use of the Role Concept in the Study of Complex Organizations," Journal of Social Issues, 1951, 3.

37. Katz, Daniel & Robert L. Kahn, The Social Psychology of Organizations, 2nd edition, New York, John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1978.

38. Kelly, Richard & B. Darrell Hart, "The Role Preferences of Faculty in Different Age Groups and Academic Disciplines," Sociology of Education, Summer, 1971, 44, 3.

39. Kerr, Steven, "Substitutes for Leadership: Some Explications for Organizational Design," Organization and Administrative Sciences, 1977, 8, 1, 135-146.

40. Kerr, Steven & John M. Jermier, "Substitutes for Leadership: Their Meaning and Measurement," Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 1978, 22, 375-403.

41. Kilmann, Ralph J. & Richard P. Herden, "Towards a Systemic Methodology for Evaluating the Impact of Interventions on Organizational Effectiveness," Academy of Management Review, July, 1976, 1, 3, 87-98.

42. Kimberly, John R., Robert H. Miles & Associates, The Organizational Life Cycle, San Francisco, Jossey-Bass Publishers, 1980.

43. Lenning, Oscar T., Yong S. Lee, Sidney S. Micek & Allen L. Service, A Structure for the Outcomes of Post-Secondary Education, Boulder, Colorado, National Center for Higher Education Management Systems, 1977.

44. Lindblom, Charles E., "The Science of Muddling Through," Public Administration Review, 1958, 19, ,79-88.

45. Lyden, Freemont James, "Using Parsons' Functional Analysis in the Study of Public Organizations," Administrative Science Quarterly, March, 1975, 20, 1, 59-70.

46. Mann, Richard D. & Associates, The College Classroom, New York, John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1979.

47. March, James G. & Harbert A. Simon, Organizations, New York, John Wiley & Sons, 1958.

48. Miles, Raymond E., "Governance of Organizations: Leader-Led Roles," in George W. England, Anant R. Negandhi, & Bernhard Wilpert (eds.), The Functioning of Complex Organizations, Cambridge, Mass., Oelgeschlager, Gunn and Hain, Publishers, Inc., 1981.

49. Millett, John D., New Structures of Campus Power, San Francisco, Jossey-Bass Publishers, 1978.

50. Mitroff, Ian & Ralph Kilmann, Methdological Approaches to the Social Sciences, San Francisco, Jossey-Bass Publishers, 1978.

51. Mortimer, Kenneth P. & T. R. McConnell, Sharing Authority Effectively, San Francisco, Jossey-Bass Publishers, 1979.

52. Muchinsky, Paul M. & Paula C. Morrow, "The Applicability of Middle Range Theories to the Study of Organizational Effectiveness," in Craig C. Pinder & Larry F. Moore, (eds.), Middle Range Theory and the Study of Organizations, Boston, Martinus Nijhoff Publishing, 1980.

53. Nadler, David A., J. Richard Hackman & Edward A. Lawler III, Managing Organizational Behavior, Boston, Little Brown, 1979.

54. Neumann, Yoram, "Predicting Faculty Job Satisfaction in University Departments," Research in Higher Education, 1978, 9, 3, 261-275.

55. Parsons, Talcott, The Social System, Glencoe, The Free Press, 1951.

56. Parsons, Talcott, "General Theory in Sociology," in Robert K. Merton, Leonard Broom & Leonard S. Cottrell, Jr. (eds.), Sociology Today, New York, Basic Books, 1959.

57. Parsons, Talcott, Robert F. Bales & Edward A. Shils, "Phase Movement in Relation to Motivation, Symbol Formation, and Role Structure," in Talcott Parsons, Robert F. Bales, & Edward A. Shils, Working Papers on the Theory of Action, The Free Press, New York, 1960.

58. Parsons, Talcott, Structure and Process in Modern Societies, New York, The Free Press, 1960.

59. Parsons, Talcott, "Pattern Variables Revisited: A Response to Robert Dubin," American Sociological Review, August, 1960, 25, 4, 467-483.

60. Paxton, Dan R. & Darwin L. Thomas, "College Presidents' Role Performance and Faculty Satisfaction," Research in Higher Education, 1977, 7, 4, 341-353.

61. Peters, Diane S., "Temporal Perceptions and University Faculty," Research in Higher Education, 1979, 11, 2.

62. Pfeffer, Jeffrey, "Power and Resource Allocation in Organizations," in Barry M. Staw & Gerald R. Salancik (eds.), New Directions in Organizational Behavior, Chicago, St. Clair Press, 1977.

63. Pfeffer, Jeffrey & Gerald R. Salancik, "Determinants of Supervisory Behavior: A Role Set Analysis," Human Relations, 1975, 28, 2, 139-154.

64. Pfeffer, Jeffrey, Power in Organizations, Marshfield, Mass., Pitman Publishing Company, 198 .

65. Reid, John Y., "Politics and Quality in Administrator Evaluation," Research in Higher Education, 1982, 16, 1, 27-40.

66. Rubin, Irene S., "Retrenchment, Loose Structure and Adaptability in the University," Sociology of Education, October, 1979, 53, 4, 211-222.

67. Ryan, Doris W., "Deans as Individuals-in-Organizations," in Daniel E. Griffiths & Donald J. McCarty (eds.), The Dilemma of the Deanship, Danville, Illinois, The Interstate Printers and Publishers, Inc., 1980.

68. Smart, John C. & G. W. McLaughlin, "Reward Structures of Academic Disciplines," Research in Higher Education, 1978, 8, 39-53.

69. Smart, John, C. & Charles F. Elton, "Goal Orientations of Academic Departments: A Test of Biglan's Model," Journal of Applied Psychology, 1975, 60, 5,

70. Spray, S. L. (ed.), Organizational Effectiveness: Theory, Research and Application, Kent, Ohio, Kent State University Press, 1976.

71. Steers, Richard M., "Problems in the Measurement of Organizational Effectiveness," Administrative Science Quarterly, December, 1975, 20, 4, 546-558.

72. Steers, Richard M., Organizational Effectiveness, A Behavioral View, Santa Monica, Goodyear Publishing Company, Inc. 1977.

73. Strauss, Anselm, Negotiations, San Francisco, Jossey-Bass Publishers, 1978.

74. Thomas, Kenneth, "Conflict and Conflict Management," in Marvin D. Dunnette (ed.), Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology, Chicago, Rand McNally College Publishing Company, 1976.

75. Thompson, James D., Robert W. Hawkes & Robert W. Avery, "Truth Strategies and University Organization," Educational Administration Quarterly, Spring, 1969, 5, 2.

76. Tichy, Noel M., Michael L. Tushman & Charles Frombrun, "Network Analysis in Organizations," in Edward E. Lawler III, David A. Nadler & Cortlandt Camman (eds.), Organizational Assessment, New York, John Wiley and Sons, 1980.

77. Van Sell, Mary, Arthur P. Brief & Randall S. Schuler, "Role Conflict and Role Ambiguity: Integration of the Literature and Directions for Future Research," Human Relations, January, 1981.

78. Weick, Karl, "Educational Organizations as Loosely Coupled Systems," Administrative Science Quarterly, March, 1976, 21, 1, 1-19.

79. Weick, Karl, The Social Psychology of Organizing, Reading, Mass., Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, 1969.

80. Zander, Alvin, Arthur R. Cohen & Ezra Stotland, "Power and the Relations Among Professions," in Dorwin Cartwright (ed.), Studies in Social Power, Ann Arbor, University of Michigan, Institute for Social Research, 1959.