

DISSERTATION

USING THE REACTIONS TO GROUP SITUATIONS TEST TO PROFILE HIGHER
EDUCATION ADMINISTRATORS RELATIVE TO TEAM BEHAVIOR
PREDISPOSITION AND DEMOGRAPHICS

Submitted by

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In partial fulfillment of the requirements

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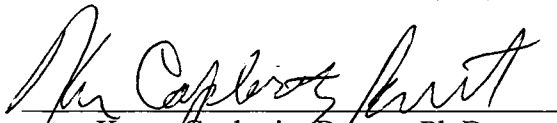
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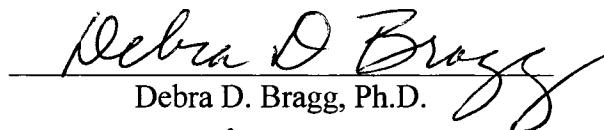
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WE HEREBY RECOMMEND THAT THE DISSERTATION PREPARED UNDER OUR SUPERVISION BY DOUGLAS C. BRAUER ENTITLED USING THE REACTIONS TO GROUP SITUATIONS TEST TO PROFILE HIGHER EDUCATION ADMINISTRATORS RELATIVE TO TEAM BEHAVIOR PREDISPOSITION AND DEMOGRAPHICS BE ACCEPTED AS FULFILLING IN PART REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY.

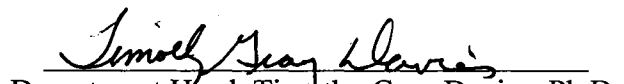
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ABSTRACT OF DISSERTATION
USING THE REACTIONS TO GROUP SITUATIONS TEST TO PROFILE HIGHER
EDUCATION ADMINISTRATORS RELATIVE TO TEAM BEHAVIOR
PREDISPOSITION AND DEMOGRAPHICS

This study facilitated the development of a profile of the predisposition for team behavior for community college administrators on the path to, or having, membership in an executive leadership team (ELT). The profile was based on emotionality and work (EW) variables, as defined by Basic Assumption Theory. The EW data were collected using the Reactions to Group Situations Test (RGST). The profile consisted of EW variable data examined in conjunction with demographic variable data, which included age, gender, time at institution, time in position, position title, educational level, race/ethnicity, social class of origin, and ELT membership status. The RGST instrument was used to collect data from community college administrators from the State of Illinois. From this, insight was gained to better understand the community college administrators' predisposition for team behavior as a discovery research step intended to lead to the identification of potential developmental interventions for individuals and ELTs to facilitate high team effectiveness.

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FOREWORD

This dissertation proposal was born out of a curiosity of what makes an executive leadership team effective. Of particular interest was team member group-relevant behavioral contribution to maximizing an organizational leadership team's ability to be effective. My experience-base in working with organizations and executive leaders from around the world fueled this interest in organizational leadership.

I am grateful for the guidance received from my dissertation committee; Clifford Harbour, chair; David Most, methodologist; Karen Caplovitz Barrett; and Debra Bragg (University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign). Each committee member provided valuable inputs and guidance making this study a unique learning experience. Kathleen Robertson (University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign) provided attentive proof reading and editing for the dissertation manuscript. A special thank you goes to Dr. Timothy Davies for creating a programmatic environment at Colorado State University that facilitated accomplishing this educational milestone.

I am indebted to my mentors and colleagues, in both education and business, which have played an important role in leading me to this point in my life. My parents, both of which were career educators, continue to reinforce the responsibility and joy that I find in learning and teaching. Also, Dr. Floyd Miller (University of Illinois at Chicago, Professor Emeritus) has provided unparalleled advisement, guidance, encouragement, and friendship throughout my graduate education and professional career. To my amazement, a significant source of motivation to complete this degree came from Professor Herbert Thelen taking the time to talk to me and granting me permission to use his RGST research outcomes to support this study to its conclusion. However, it is my immediate family (Laurie, Cheston, Caitlin, Courtnie, and Constance), which provided the foundational inspiration and support in completing this educational goal. Thank you all for your patience, tolerance, and understanding in empowering me to accomplish this goal.

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CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

Organizations have increasingly used team-based structures to cope with the growing complexity of the global environment in which they operate (Katzenback & Smith, 1993; Salas, Sims, & Burke, 2005). Herbert Thelen, as a researcher and professor at the University of Chicago, recognized this trend and its significance during his work in the 1950s and 1960s. Thelen and his colleagues noted that,

The current trend is not simply toward the proliferation of small groups but also toward their incorporation within elaborate productivity-oriented structures that contrast sharply with early informal personally-oriented social structures. Groups have ceased to be solely instruments of accommodation; they have also become agents of change. (Thelen, Hawkes, & Strattner, 1969, p. 1)

As agents of change, teams exist at all organizational levels in business and industry, as well as in higher education (Lawler, Mohrman, & Ledford, 1998). In recognition of the differing scope of teams throughout an organization, team types have been broadly categorized as work, parallel learning, cross-functional project, and executive (Cohen & Bailey, 1997). My study interest was with the executive team level and, specifically, those individuals on the path to, or having, membership on a community college executive leadership team (ELT).

As teams at the highest level in the organization, ELTs are means of enhancing strategic leadership effectiveness in complex organizations (Cohen & Bailey, 1997). Research has long suggested that teamwork in executive teams promotes the creation of

innovative ideas to address issues, enables executives to use their diverse experiences to solve problems, and increases organizational engagement and commitment of executive team members (Ancona & Nadler, 1989; Bauman, Jackson, & Lawrence, 1997; Nadler, 1996). While teams are often implemented to accomplish a specific task, in community colleges, the ELT is an ongoing team whose purpose is to ensure the overall “efficient and effective operation” of the institution (Boggs, 1995, p. 64).

At the community college, the ELT (or president’s cabinet) has been an accepted approach to leading the organization. Rather than working in isolation, presidents have used a work group composed of senior administrators for decision making. The ELT has facilitated development of a more collaborative form of leadership, but it has not necessarily challenged traditional organizational structures or notions of hierarchy, power, or control (Eddy & VanDerLinden, 2006).

Neumann and Bensimon (1990) reported that presidents who were proactive in their leadership actions and who were more connected to their institutions, successfully governed in more stable organizational settings. The critical factor in their success appeared to be an effective ELT. These authors also found that presidents who were more reactive in their leadership actions governed in less stable organizational settings. The critical factor in their lack of success appeared to be an in-effective ELT. In both cases, the ELT was recognized to play a pivotal role in community college organizational success and stability.

Those findings complemented Hambrick and Mason’s (1984) research, which found that the ELT, and not the community college president, has the responsibility for developing and implementing strategies that strengthen organizational performance. The

existence of the team, and not the individual team member, allows the chief executive to engage in a participative process with diverse team members to maximize strategic leadership effectiveness and organizational performance. Kakabadse and Kakabadse (2001) also indicated that ELT performance and effectiveness reflect the philosophy and attitudes of each individual team member, as well as the “collective spirit of the team” and the way in which team members relate and communicate (p. 9). For this reason, Boggs (1995) stated “among the most critical decisions that a college president makes is the selection of new ELT members” (p. 65).

Like Thelen, academicians and practitioners have continued to identify teams and team effectiveness as important areas for research (e.g., Cohen & Bailey, 1997). Thelen’s own research addressed the effectiveness of teams as affected by individual predispositions for team behavior. That line of research developed out of his role as the Director of the Human Dynamics Laboratory within the Education Department at The University of Chicago where, in 1950, he embraced Basic Assumption Theory (BAT) (Bion, 1948, 1961; Thelen, 2000). No less than fifteen Ph.D. dissertations resulted directly from that early work, and more have been completed since the 1960s.

For Thelen, BAT presented a theoretical framework for studying groups and their effectiveness based on the concepts of individual and group emotionality and work (EW), identification of EW cultures, and individual predisposition for EW group behavior (Bion, 1961). Bion, in conceptualizing BAT, saw that the group at any time existed in some EW state and that over time each state gave way to the next through interaction of the team members’ EW predispositions. Emotionality reflected the individual and group operating modes in terms of the basic assumption states (i.e., pairing, dependency, fight,

and flight). Work reflected the individual or group state in terms of its ability to complete the task at hand. The BAT framework provided a means to identify the particular ways in which each group member would contribute to the development, maintenance, and dissolution of the variety of EW cultures, or behavioral states or situations, of the group.

At the core of BAT resided the notion that individual EW predispositions for group behavior affect the group's own predisposition for its governing behavior. It was envisioned that successful characterization of individual behavior would describe the individual's overall pattern of behavior expected in group situations and to identify the ways in which the individual would behave when the group was in different kinds of EW situations (Stock & Thelen, 1958, p. 22).

In studying this notion, Thelen and his colleague's research led to the development of the Reactions to Group Situations Test (RGST), which facilitated the understanding and application of EW concepts by quantitatively identifying individual EW predispositions for team behavior prior to individual engagement in team activity. This enabled researchers to develop a fundamental understanding of individual group-relevant personality traits for behavior in ELT situations, while still recognizing that the group-as-a-whole could take on a behavior disposition that may parallel or oppose an individual's predisposition.

My dissertation used the RGST to develop an EW predisposition profile of community college administrators on the path to, or having, ELT membership. This profile was developed for community college administrators (i.e., administrator group-as-a-whole, president, vice president, and dean) and described their EW predispositions for team behavior in conjunction with specific demographic variables (i.e., gender, age, time

in higher education, time at current institution, time in current position; position title, highest educational degree attained, race/ethnicity, social class of origin, and current ELT membership status).

My objective was to take an initial step to understanding EW concepts in the context of higher education, and, specifically, community college ELTs. Collecting and analyzing data regarding community college administrator EW group-relevant personality traits and associated demographics enabled me to begin answering these questions:

1. What are higher education administrator EW predispositions for team behavior,
2. How are EW predispositions related to specific demographics, and
3. How are EW predispositions associated with each other relative to demographics?

Answering these questions is an initial step in discovery regarding; first, associating higher education administrator EW predisposition profiles to ELT effectiveness and, second, suggesting developmental interventions for effective ELT membership.

In this dissertation, Chapter One presents the study background information, problem and purpose, rationale and significance, limitations, and researcher perspective. This sets the stage for addressing the research problem in the context of the community college and the effectiveness of ELT relative to its own ongoing operation, development, and composition. Chapter Two provides a literature review focusing on community colleges, BAT, team effectiveness, and the RGST. Chapter Three describes the methodology used to collect and analyze community college administrator EW

predisposition data relative to demographic factors. Chapter Four presents the data collection results. Finally, Chapter 5 interprets my findings, offers some discussion of salient points, and offers my conclusions and recommendations for further study.

Background

Management and academic publications have increasingly emphasized the importance of teams, at all organizational levels, for overall organizational success (Cohen & Bailey, 1997). Of focal importance for my study, the ELT, whether viewed in the context of higher education or business, consists of team members brought together to establish organizational strategic direction and manage organizational performance. Cohen and Bailey (1997) reported that the use of ELTs has expanded in response to a dynamic and complex global operational environment, which includes both higher education and business. The ELT helps organizations achieve competitive advantage by applying collective expertise, integrating disparate efforts, and sharing responsibility for the success of the organization (Mankin, Cohen, & Bikson, 1996).

Community colleges have served as a popular resource for research regarding leadership and teams. Contributing to this attraction has been the expected community college executive leadership availability shortages (Evelyn, 2001), the demand-response nature of the college (Boggs, 2003), and the frequent college organizational changes resulting from external demands (Gumport, 2003).

In the context of community college leadership for the twenty first century, Boggs (2003) indicated that the time was growing near for the most significant transition in leadership in the history of America's community colleges. A survey of community college presidents conducted by the American Association of Community Colleges

(AACC) in 2001 indicated that forty-five percent of them planned to retire by 2007 (Shults, 2001). Another survey by Weisman and Vaughan (2002) found a planned rate of presidential retirement heading to seventy-nine percent by 2012. In conjunction with these anticipated changes, the administrators who report to the presidents (and likely on an ELT) were also approaching retirement (Boggs, 2003). However, with this period of leadership transition comes “a window of opportunity to bring greater diversity, new energy, and new ideas to community college leadership” (Boggs, 2003, p. 15).

This study was conducted within the community college boundaries of the State of Illinois. Illinois has served as a rich location regarding the history of community college growth and development. In 1901, under the guidance of William Rainey Harper, as president of the University of Chicago, the first publicly funded junior college (or community college) was founded in Joliet, Illinois (Boggs & Cater, 1994). Illinois has continued to sponsor a state-wide comprehensive community college system consisting of over fifty individual institutions, which bridge the gap between secondary and higher education, between adult and higher education, and between industrial training and formal technical education (Ratcliff, 1994).

Basic Assumption Theory

The foundation of BAT was derived out of Bion’s work with therapy groups (Bion, 1961), where he observed: (a) group members “individually contribute toward, acquiesce in, or react against, a given, current group culture” (p. 50) and (b) group members form relationships with one another based on their affinities for a preferred operating mode, or “culture of the group” (p. 55). It was from this that Bion developed the idea that the group could be thought of in terms of a series of emotional states, or

basic assumption cultures, in which some individual need was inextricably associated with the work the group was trying to do.

In the context of BAT, a team's activities can be described in terms of emotional and work components that are in dynamic interrelation (Stock & Thelen, 1958). There are four possible emotionality states that individuals may exhibit in small group or team settings. These states include: (a) pairing to develop intimacy (pairing), (b) dependency on external authority (dependency), (c) fighting to create stress (fight), and (d) fleeing from stress (flight) (Bion, 1961). From the individual perspective, a predisposition for pairing indicates a need to express warmth freely and to wish to establish close relationships. A predisposition for dependency indicates a need to rely on others or objects for support and direction. A predisposition for fight indicates a need to express hostility in the group. Finally, a predisposition for flight indicates a tendency to avoid, in some way, the team interactive situation.

Co-existing with the emotionality variables is the predisposition for doing work. The work variable is the "consciously determined, deliberative, reality-bound, goal-seeking aspects of the group's activities" (Stock & Thelen, 1958, p. 13), which impacts team effectiveness. The work variable, in contrast to emotionality variables, is governed by rationality and task orientation (Miller, 1998).

The BAT concept of the group-as-a-whole culture highlights that the existence of individual personality traits that are team-relevant rather than only individual-relevant (Bion, 1961). That is, individual EW predispositions collectively "combine" to support or cooperate with team members enabling the group-as-a-whole to develop, maintain, or move away from the various EW cultures (Stock & Thelen, 1958, p. 15).

Bion used the term “valency” to describe the strength of an individual’s EW predisposition for “instantaneous and involuntary combination of one individual with another for sharing and acting on a basic assumption” (Stock & Thelen, 1958, p.15). Although, Bion never developed a tool to quantitatively measure EW valency, Thelen and his colleagues developed the RGST, which was used in this study to measure Illinois community college administrators’ EW predisposition for ELT behavior.

Team Effectiveness

A common measure of how well a team works is effectiveness (Cohen & Bailey, 1997; Halfhill, Sundstrom, Lahner, Calderane, & Nielsen, 2005; Sundstrom et al., 2000). Cohen and Bailey (1997) defined team effectiveness as the team’s impact on: (a) performance effectiveness assessed in terms of quantity and quality of outputs, (b) member attitudes, and (c) behavioral outcomes. In his research with BAT (and the RGST), Thelen and colleagues (Thelen et al., 1969) used effectiveness as the outcome indicator of a “working” team (Bion, 1961, p. 26). A team being distracted by a basic assumption, or emotionality, state was indicative of a nonworking state, which, subsequently, led to lower team effectiveness.

Thelen’s research pointed to team effectiveness being affected by the total group culture, which could be influenced by team composition. Similarly, numerous researchers have recognized that demographic variables, which serve as design elements for team composition, provide a point of leverage to influence team effectiveness (e.g., Foushee & Helmreich, 1988; Levine & Moreland, 1990; Morgan & Lassiter, 1992). In response to this recognition, for my study, in addition to EW data, demographic data were also collected from participants.

Reactions to Group Situations Test

Thelen's (1954, 2000) research focused on quantitatively assessing individual EW predispositions for team behavior so this information could be used to facilitate the ongoing effectiveness of teams (e.g., via team composition or development/operational interventions). For my study, the RGST instrument (see Appendix A) developed and validated by Thelen and his colleagues (Stock & Thelen, 1958; Thelen, 1954; Thelen et al., 1969) was used. The evolution of the RGST, in conjunction with subsequent group observation (Thelen et al., 1969), has made it a stand-alone instrument for providing insight to community college administrator individual EW predispositions for team behavior. In this light, the RGST served as a tool for easily and quickly identifying and relating EW predispositions for the community college application.

The RGST, as a forced-choice instrument, provides the study participant with incomplete sentences that describe common occurrences in team situations. Each sentence is completed by selecting one of two alternatives, which are designed to reveal an individual predisposition for the five EW variables. The frequency of selecting each EW variable indicates the relative strength of a participant's predisposition for likely behavior in an actual group situation. That is, the higher the score for each variable the greater the predisposition for acting out that behavior in a team situation.

Identifying a participant's predisposition for likely behavior in an actual group situation is important under BAT because, as stated earlier, it holds that in an actual team situation individual predispositions collectively combine to affect the effectiveness of the team. A fundamental assumption underlying my research was that BAT provides a foundation for identifying individual group-relevant personality traits, and that the RGST

provides a valid picture of such traits in terms of individual EW predispositions for team behavior.

Study Problem and Purpose

In employment settings where individuals are selected for membership on ELTs, individual preferences for team behavior are not typically identified, using a structured instrument, before a person joins the organization. Because individual predispositions for group behavior can impact the effectiveness of ELTs, this lack of knowledge on the part of community college ELT members can be problematic (Cohen & Bailey, 1997; Thelen et al., 1969). The ELT and its members may be more effective if they are aware of and can respond to individual predispositions for group behavior. My study took an initial step in the systematic examination of such individual predispositions by collecting and analyzing data that describes the group behavior preferences for a select group of Illinois community college administrators. In short, I wanted to collect and analyze this data and then explain how it could be used to assist ELTs in selecting team members.

Research on team effectiveness (e.g., Cohen & Bailey, 1997; George, 1990; Klimoski & Mohammed, 1994; Weick & Roberts, 1993) has highlighted the need for further study of individual behavioral traits. For this study, the focus was on individual group-relevant personality, or behavioral, traits (i.e., predispositions) that were covered by the EW concept as defined by BAT (Bion, 1961) and advanced by Thelen.

I used the RGST to collect data for the emotionality variables (the predisposition for pairing, dependency, fight, and flight) and the work variable (the predisposition for undertaking and completing a cognitive task or goal). Demographic data were collected concerning participants' age, gender, time in higher education, time at current institution,

time in current position, position title, highest educational degree attained, race/ethnicity, social class of origin, and current ELT membership status.

Data were solicited from community college administrators (i.e., deans, vice presidents, and presidents) who were employed by the Illinois Community College System. The targeted study participants were surveyed via email using a third party host service. I analyzed the data to identify relationships between the EW data and demographic data, which enabled developing community college administrator profiles (as presented in Chapter Five) reflecting EW-based predispositions for individual and team behavior.

Rationale and Significance of the Study

An understanding of individual EW predisposition provides a means for enhancing our understanding of ELT composition, development, and functionality. As a tool, the RGST provides a means to gain insight to individual EW predispositions that may ultimately affect ELT effectiveness. This study used the RGST to initiate discovery in relating community college administrator individual EW predispositions to demographic variables.

Study Limitations

There were several issues limiting the generalizability of the study results. First, the study explored EW variables in conjunction with specific demographic variables. Second, the research data collection scope was narrowed to collecting EW data from community college administrators working for institutions in Illinois. Accordingly, my findings may not be directly relevant to understanding the EW predispositions of higher education administrators throughout the State of Illinois or the United States. Third, EW

preferences were identified via the RGST instrument. Although the RGST has demonstrated an ability to predict actual individual group behavior, it was not presented as an error-free tool. Fourth, there was no post RGST completion direct observation of participants or ELTs incorporated into the study, which could lead to an assessment of RGST higher education-specific validity. Finally, the scope of behavioral traits (or group-relevant personality traits) addressed only included the EW variables.

Researcher Perspective

This study grew out of my professional career involving leadership experience in executive roles in global business and industry, as well as an assignment as the Dean of Workforce Development and Community Services at an Illinois community college. These roles have contributed to my interest in understanding EW as it relates to ELT design relative to facilitating the effective and efficient leading, directing, and managing of the organization. In fact, my introduction to BAT and the RGST came as a member of TEC (The Emerging CEO) International, an international society for CEOs.

Relative to this study, my personal biases included my beliefs that: (a) ELT effectiveness is affected by individual EW predispositions, (b) the ability to communicate and establish strong relationships is essential to high performing teams, (c) teams exhibit their own unique personalities and behavioral patterns, which reflect the team members' own personalities and group behavioral preferences, and (d) ELTs can be designed and developed to maximize effectiveness using data from a study such as mine.

Summary

The objective of my study was to answer the research questions defined. As an output of this, developed was a community college administrator profile based on EW

predisposition and demographics. To accomplish this, two fundamental assumptions derived from BAT underlined this study. First, “a group’s activities could be described in terms of emotionality and work variables that are in dynamic interrelation” (Stock & Thelen, 1958, p. 14). And second, “an individual’s predisposition to act combines with others’ in support of some overall group EW culture” (Stock & Thelen, 1958, p. 15). That is, individual EW predispositions for team behavior collectively combine to affect the overall team effectiveness.

My intent was to take an initial step in using the RGST for understanding individual community college administrator EW predispositions relative to various demographic variables. The RGST developed by Thelen and his colleagues (Banet & Hayden, 1996) was the instrument used for collecting EW data from Illinois community college administrators. As a carefully constructed and repeatedly applied instrument (Stock & Thelen, 1958; Thelen, 2000), the RGST provided the means “to produce an improved understanding of how to maximize team effectiveness” (Lewis & Beck, 2000, p. 466). However, it must be recognized that the use of the RGST, in conjunction with the lack of an accepted community college definition for ELT effectiveness, does not lead to any specific implications for the selection and development of ELT members.

CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW

Organizations have increasingly turned to team-based structures to contend with the growing complexity of a global operational environment (Katzenback & Smith, 1993). This globalization has also impacted higher education, as pointed out by Alfred and Rosevear (2000), in that the market in which colleges and universities function has changed dramatically with the challenge that new competitors (e.g., corporations, for-profit institutions, and internet-based online programs) pose. To deal with such challenges in higher education, similar to business, teams have the potential to offer greater adaptability, productivity, and creativity than any one individual can offer (Gladstein, 1984; Hackman, 1987; Neumann & Bensimon, 1990) and provide more complex, innovative, and comprehensive solutions to organizational issues (Sundstrom et al., 1990).

In the community college context, as noted by Eddy (2005), the ELT has taken a foothold in community college leadership. Kezar (1998) reported that teams have had a long history in higher education leadership, which includes committees, collegial decision-making, shared governance, and the presidential cabinet (or ELTs). Necessarily, the community college's emphasis on its own leadership, and, particularly, the role of the ELT, has responded to changing conditions, such as "internationalism, interdependence, and growing diversity" (Kezar, 1998, p. 58).

As a catalyst in addressing community college leadership needs, "effectiveness" has received a great deal of attention due to the variety of external forces making major

demands on these institutions (Wharton, 1997, p. 15). Wharton (1997) broadly defined effective community colleges as “those that satisfy, preferably delight, the key stakeholders they serve”, which include students, faculty, staff, and the community (p. 15). A focus on the ELT as key to organizational and institutional effectiveness has been reflected in the changes in the leadership “shapes and structures assumed by community colleges as organizations and the new governance and inclusive management philosophies being employed there” (Bragg, 2000, p. 76).

However, a potential disruption to the ELT and its potential effectiveness, and likely, its overall organizational and institutional effectiveness, is an impending significant personnel transition in community college leadership. Results from a survey conducted in 2001 by the American Association of Community Colleges indicated that forty-five percent of presidents plan to retire by 2007 (Boggs, 2003). A similar survey by Weisman and Vaughn (2002) confirmed that the rate of presidential retirement appeared to be seventy-nine percent by 2012. In parallel with these retirements are the impending retirements of the administrators who report to the president, and which are commonly members of the ELT (Boggs, 2003).

The impact of these looming retirements on the ELT is coupled with the fact that there is, on average, a thirty percent turn-over of community college presidents every two years (McFarlin, Crittenden, & Ebbers, 1999). That means that approximately one-quarter to one-third of all community college presidents are in some stage of leaving or thinking of leaving, voluntarily or involuntarily, during a two year period.

In light of these significant changes impacting the ELT effectiveness, a focus on ELT composition and its development takes on a heightened sense of urgency. This focus

is warranted due to the fact that community colleges enroll fifty-two percent of all undergraduates, making them the largest single group of higher education students (Bragg, 2000). Bragg has noted that “the community college today is the single largest and most important portal into higher education” (2000, p. 77).

Numerous researchers, such as Harris, Banach, Cohen, Brawer, Hammer, and Vaughn (McFarlin et al., 1999) have indicated that developing a new generation of senior leadership for community college’s is imperative if these institutions are to successfully operate in increasingly complex global environments. Ideally, this new leadership will willingly embrace the ELT as an effective form of participatory leadership.

Numerous studies have illustrated that ELTs almost always result in “more effective decision-making, increased ownership of decisions, greater cognitive complexity of ideas, more creativity and innovation, peer support, and an increase in accountability” (McFarlin et al., 1999, p. 60). Not surprisingly, most of these positive results emanated from “healthy, functional teams” (p. 60).

Leadership shows itself uniquely in each community college, but has important common elements, the most important of which is the connection of leader behavior to leadership (Wharton, 1997). Wharton (1997) explains this to refer to “behavior that starts at the root of what leaders feel and how they act it out” (p. 16). To be successful in today’s community college environment and that of the future, the ELT should include members that effectively work together to make the ELT a leadership catalyst for the community college (Boggs, 1995).

This study’s literature review focused on small teams, specifically the ELT, which was consistent with similar studies and research (e.g., Webber & Donahue, 2001; Cohen

& Bailey, 1997; Guzzo & Dickson, 1996). The remainder of this chapter provides a brief background for my study's ELT focus and a review of pertinent literature addressing BAT, team effectiveness, and the RGST.

Background

Teams and their effectiveness play an important role at all levels within an organization. For example, in community colleges, the success of the president has often been dependent on the effectiveness of the ELT (Boggs, 1995; Neumann & Bensimon, 1990). Cohen and Bailey (1997) reported that team effectiveness was intimately linked to the nature of the team. They broadly identified four types of teams: (a) work, (b) parallel, (c) project, and (d) executive leadership (or top management). Other researchers offered slightly different typologies (e.g., Katzenbach & Smith, 1993; Mohrman, Cohen, & Morhman, 1995; Sundstrom et al., 1990), which have been consistent to those presented by Cohen & Bailey (1997).

Work teams are the type of team most people think about when discussing teams. Work teams are continuing work units responsible for repetitive, ongoing activities in an organization such as producing goods or providing services. Their membership is typically stable, usually full-time, and well-defined (Cohen, 1991). Parallel teams pull together people from different work units or jobs to perform functions that the regular organization is not equipped to perform well (Ledford, Lawler & Mohrman, 1988; Stein & Kanter, 1980). They are used for problem-solving and improvement-oriented activities. Project teams are time-limited and focus on tasks that are non-repetitive in nature and involve considerable application of knowledge, judgment, and expertise, which produce one-time outputs (e.g., a new product or service) (Mankin et al., 1996).

The fourth team type, which was the focal interest in this study, is the top management team, or executive leadership team (ELT). In general, ELTs coordinate and provide strategic direction to the overall organization (Mohrman et al., 1995).

Similarly, the community college ELT is responsible for establishing the organization's overall strategic direction and performance. As noted by Cohen and Bailey (1997), the use of ELTs has expanded in response to the turbulence and complexity of the global business environment. The ELT helps an organization achieve competitive advantage by applying collective expertise, integrating disparate efforts, and sharing responsibility for the success of the organization (Mankin et al., 1996). A key strength of ELTs is in their use of "objective measures of organizational performance" to identify their effectiveness (Cohen & Bailey, 1997, p. 269), which highlights the need for some level of effectiveness accountability.

It was my observation that there appeared to be a general lack of literature addressing the impact on team effectiveness due to the predispositions for behavior of community college administrators in ELT situations (or team situations in general). However, there was literature in other disciplines and fields concerning this subject. For example, Mohammed, Mathieu, and Bartlett (2000) reported that the management literature on team effectiveness has typically focused on demography and team performance (Jackson Brett, Sessa, Cooper, Julin, & Peyronnin, 1991) and the industrial-organizational literature has begun to focus on less-traditional aspects of team composition, such as the mix of cognitive ability, personality, and effectiveness (Barry & Stewart, 1997; Tziner & Eden, 1985).

Notwithstanding these contributions, in either case, there is a need for further study of individual team-relevant personality variables, in conjunction with team composition focusing on demographics, and their affect on team effectiveness. Regarding community colleges, Boggs (1995) has also indicated a need for such research. He noted that even though people individually may be very talented and skilled, they may not function well as team members in a way that enhances community college ELT effectiveness.

Basic Assumption Theory

Basic Assumption Theory (BAT) provided the theoretical framework for this study's investigation of individual predispositions for team behavior. It was conceptualized by Wilfred Bion in the late 1940's and led to his recognition as an important theorist regarding psychodynamic perspectives on groups (Kernberg, 1998). Most notably, Bion's BAT is the cornerstone of the Tavistock Method as it serves as a framework for the group-as-a-whole approach to understanding group behavior (Banet & Hayden, 1996). Bion's theory and methods have been applied to groups of all sizes and in most settings including therapeutic, conferences, training, and classroom (Lawrence, Bain, & Gould, 1996; Rioch, 1970; Turquet, 1974).

As a therapist, Bion worked in a unique way with small groups of psychotherapy patients in that he provided the group with no direction or structure. He emphasized interpretation of group phenomena rather than individual phenomena (Bion, 1961). As Bion observed his groups of patients, he noticed certain significant emotional reactions in the group (Bion, 1961). For example, at times the group appeared to be unanimously expressing a need to run away from the current group situation or to demand that he, the

therapist, provide more direction. From these observations, Bion (1961) developed the idea that a group could be thought of in terms of dynamically moving through a series of emotional states, or basic assumption cultures, in which some group affective need was inextricably associated with the work the group was trying to do. He saw that: (a) individual members as contributed toward, acquiesced in, or reacted against, these emotional states and (b) group members formed relationships with one another on the basis of their predispositions for the various emotional states (Stock & Thelen, 1958).

Bion's (1961) BAT presented the idea of a group-as-a-whole instantaneously exhibiting one of two group cultures. The first characterized the group engaged in sophisticated, rational work (i.e., a work group culture) and the second characterized the group acting as if it were assembled for some reason other than the defined work task (i.e., a basic assumption, emotionality, or non-work culture). He believed that work and emotional components of group life were so interrelated that one never occurred without the other, and that an understanding of group experience can come about only when both are studied in their dynamic and changing relationships to each other.

The work aspects of group operation were defined as the consciously determined, deliberative, reality-bound, goal-seeking aspects of the group's activities (Stock & Thelen, 1958). While work activity can always be perceived in the group there are times when an analysis of this kind of activity alone cannot explain what is happening. For example, although the group may say it is interested in solving some problem its behavior seems to lead it away from coming to grips with it. In contrast to work, the emotional preoccupations of the group are nonpurposive, "instinctual," and not under conscious

control (Stock & Thelen, 1958, p. 138). Bion (1961) concluded that the work activity of a group is always influenced to some extent by emotional states, or emotionality (p. 124).

In his original formulation, Bion (1949) suggested that at any given time the group-as-a-whole acts as if it is operating in a single emotional state, or basic assumption culture. That is, it will maintain itself: (a) through developing intimacy (pairing), (b) through reliance on external authority (dependency), (c) through fighting with or resisting with others (fight), or (d) through fleeing from stress (flight). Team members can be seen either as accepting and expressing the basic assumption or as reacting in some other way to its existence in the culture of the group.

The difference between Bion and Thelen lay in Bion's notion that a team is either in a nonworking state (driven by a basic assumption or emotionality variable) or in working state. Thelen deviated from this by positing that with emotionality there is always some level of work ongoing, which forms the basis for Thelen's (1954) adaptation of BAT to describing the role of EW predispositions in the team situation.

Thelen posited that when the team is operating in a dependency-work culture it was acting "as if" (i.e., on the basic assumption that) the team exists in order to find support and direction from something outside itself—the leader, external standards, or its own history. When it was operating in pairing-work culture it acts "as if" its function is to find strength from within its own peer group. When it was operating in fight-work or flight-work cultures it is operating "as if" its purpose is to avoid something by fighting or running away from it, respectively (Karterud, 1989, p. 316).

Karterud (1989) emphasized that the "as if" was important in these definitions since it also indicated what was not meant when a team was operating in a certain EW

culture (p. 316). For example, when a group is operating in a dependency-work culture it does not mean that nothing but dependency is expressed, or that the group is consciously aware of its preoccupation with dependency, or that the dependency can necessarily be directly observed. What it does mean is that if the group becomes ineffective it is relying on an emotionality culture that does not positively associate with work.

Thelen (1954) accepted the notion of BAT to describe groups as exhibiting an EW cultural preference, which reflected the collective EW predispositions of the individual team members. However, Thelen (Thelen et al., 1969) went on to speculate that individual reactions to the various EW cultures exhibited in the group might reveal basic tendencies in individual personality. This led Thelen to investigate whether EW, which was meaningful for studying the group-as-a-whole, might also be applicable to individual expressions and behavioral predispositions (Thelen, 1954).

In advancing BAT, Thelen applied it conceptually to mainstream teams (Stock & Thelen, 1958; Thelen et al., 1969; Thelen, 1954). Similar to Thelen, others have worked to advance the application of BAT (e.g., Turquet, 1974; Pines, 1985; Karterud, 2000; and Lawrence et al., 1996), but Thelen's research contribution included development of the RGST, which provided a means to identify individual EW predispositions for team behavior prior to the individual engaging in team activity and impacting team effectiveness.

Team Effectiveness

As the use of teams has increased, so has research attention focusing on team effectiveness (Hackman, 1990). Researchers have tended to conceptualize team effectiveness as a function of each team member's individual input relative to the process

losses associated with working with others (e.g., Shiflett, 1979; Steiner, 1966, 1972). Shaw's (1976) idea of team effectiveness focused explicitly on teamwork, which included the productivity gains due to team coordination. Through the study of team performance and team processes, a number of models of team effectiveness have been developed (e.g., Bandura, 1986; Hackman, 1987; McCrae & Costa, 1987). Understanding what makes teams effective is important as organizations look to teams as a solution to enhancing overall operational effectiveness. This is especially true of ELTs, whose members often have diverse backgrounds and competencies.

For this study's focus on team behavior predisposition and its association to team effectiveness, it is noteworthy to make a distinction between team performance and team effectiveness. Guzzo and Dickson (1996) stated that team performance accounts for the outcomes of the team's actions regardless of how the team may have accomplished the task. Conversely, team effectiveness takes a more holistic perspective in considering not only whether the team performed by completing a task but also how the team interacted via team processes to achieve the team outcome. This holistic perspective is consistent with BAT.

Typically, team effectiveness models have displayed two common traits (Shaw, 1976). First, they highlight the issues of process and outcome (i.e., how a group becomes productive and what a group produces). Second, they highlight organizational or environmental parameters, and the collective group. Bion's BAT focused on the collective group, which makes especially relevant, for this study, team effectiveness models built-on research regarding personality variables and team composition variables (i.e., demographics).

Personality

It has been reasonable to accept that the behavior of individual team members can enhance or impede team effectiveness. Interpersonal conflicts, poor communication, lack of team cohesiveness and disagreement over goals, etc. have been recognized as some of the behavioral consequences of dysfunctional team member behavior (Reilly, Lynn, & Aronson, 2002). From this, it seems self-evident that the behavioral predispositions of team members can play a major role in the success or effectiveness of any team.

Reilly et al., like other researchers, supported the premise that demographic variables (e.g. age, race, gender, seniority), abilities and personality variables were examples of team member interpersonal characteristics that should be related to effective or ineffective team behavior. The thought was that this should be especially true of personality variables, which are a “mixture of values, temperament, coping strategies, traits, character and motivation” (Reilly et al., p. 40). In other words, research involving personality variables as sought to describe and predict the typical behavior of individuals in team situations.

Halfhill and colleagues (Halfhill et al., 2005) identified several events that have led to a resurgence of interest in the personality composition of teams. First, personality has increasingly been found to be a valid predictor of performance. Second, research on groups has increased. And, third, business and industry, as well as other types of organizations such as higher education, have demonstrated a sustained increase in the use of teams, as well as a need for strategies designed to select group members.

Thelen’s perspective was that an individual’s “group-relevant aspects of personality” affected team effectiveness (Stock & Thelen, 1958, p. 22). Individual

personality has continued to be viewed as having an impact on team effectiveness (Driskell, Hogan, & Salas, 1987). Supporting the concept of EW individual predispositions, or group-relevant personality traits, Funder (2001) defined personality as "an individual's characteristic patterns of thought, emotions, and behavior" (p. 2).

Despite the scarcity of research specifically related to team membership, research in group dynamics has provided a basis for making predictions of how personality likely contributes to team effectiveness (Hackman, 1987). Shaw (1981) suggested that the individual characteristics of group members, as well as the diversity of skills and traits within a group, were important variables related to team effectiveness.

However, research relating personality with team effectiveness has had only mixed success (Driskell et al., 1987). One of the primary reasons proposed for the inconsistency in research findings was the variation in task type, traits, and contexts across studies. Driskell and colleagues offered a reason for the conflicting evidence with regard to the role of personality in predicting team effectiveness having been, in part, the lack of consensus about how personality was to be defined and measured (Driskell et al., 1987). This lack of definition consensus has resulted in a proliferation of overlapping traits and a broad, if not very comprehensive, accumulation of research on personality and group effectiveness.

There have been a multitude of studies that have explored the relationship between personality traits and team effectiveness (e.g., Barrick & Mount, 1991; Tett, Jackson, & Rothstein, 1991). However, perhaps the most commonly referenced has been the Five-Factor Model (McCrae, 1989) and the Big 5 model (Goldberg, 1993). These

models related individual personality and team effectiveness and provided structure and organization for a vast array of research defined personality traits (Digman, 1997).

Setting the stage for the Big 5, Cattell was one of the early most influential researchers to apply empirical procedures to the task of constructing a personality taxonomy (Goldberg, 1990). Facilitating Cattell's original efforts were Allport and Odbert (1936), who had catalogued 18,000 English personality-descriptive terms and divided them into four groupings, the first of which included approximately 4,500 terms that they had classified as stable traits. Cattell (1943) used this first trait list as a starting point to construct 171 personality trait scales. Guided by the correlations among the 171 scales in some empirical analyses, Cattell (1943) developed a set of 35 bipolar clusters of related terms.

His rating scales based on these clusters were then employed in various studies (Cattell, 1945). While Cattell has repeatedly claimed to have identified at least a dozen oblique factors, when Cattell's variables were analyzed by other researchers only five factors have consistently proved to be replicable (McCrae & Costa, 1985; 1987), which have become commonly known as the big five.

The subject five personality traits defined by these two models included: (a) extraversion, (b) agreeableness, (c) conscientiousness, (d) emotional stability, and (e) openness to experience (Barrick & Mount, 1991). Each of these five personality traits were defined to consist of multiple facets or sub-traits, which can be assessed independently of the trait that they belong to. The Big 5 framework has become one of the most widely used and researched models of personality (John & Srivastava, 1999; McCrae & Costa, 1995), although it has not been accepted universally (Block, 1995).

Appendix C provides a table (adapted from Digman, 1997; Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994; John, 1990; and McCrae & Costa, 1996) providing an overview of different models' foundational variables and their relationship to the Big 5 personality framework.

Each of these five personality traits describes, relative to other people, the frequency or intensity of a team member's feelings, thoughts, or behaviors. It has been broadly posited that everyone possesses all of the five traits to a greater or lesser degree. For example, two team members could be described as agreeable, which by definition states that agreeable people value getting along with others. But there could be significant variation in the degree to which they were both agreeable. In other words, all of the Big 5 personality traits exist on a continuum rather than as attributes that a person does or does not have (McCrae & Costa, 1995).

The Big 5 model offered an integrative framework for personality psychology (Costa & McCrae, 1995; Goldberg, 1993; McCrae & John, 1992) by focusing on a core set of behavioral traits that were proposed to enable understanding people by knowing how much they display each of these five traits in their lives. Issues impacting universal acceptance of the Big 5 have included: (a) researchers have not agreed on the precise definitions of the five traits (Goldberg, 1990), and (b) the Big 5 model does not account for situational dynamics in personality, that is, it does not consider that people might behave differently in different situations (Block, 1995; McAdams, 1992; Pervin & Costa, 1999). However, personality traits continue to be looked at as a way for organizations to maximize the effectiveness of teams (Campion, Medsker, & Higgs, 1993).

Meta-analyses (e.g., Barrick and Mount, 1991; Tett et al., 1991) have suggested that the Big 5 personality traits have value for predicting how people behave and perform

in teaming situations. Additionally, Jackson (1992), and Moreland and Levine (1992) concluded that personality variables can be predictive of team performance. However, most of the studies included in the meta-analytic research focused on the relationship between the personality variables and individual performance, not team performance.

The Big 5 model presents the personality traits as a general explanatory framework for interpersonal behavior (Reilly et al., 2002): (a) openness describes team members that are imaginative, sensitive, intellectual, polished versus down to earth, insensitive, narrow, crude, simple; (b) stability describes team members that are calm, enthusiastic, poised, and secure, versus depressed, angry, emotional, and insecure; (c) agreeableness describes team members that are good-natured, gentle, cooperative, forgiving, hopeful versus irritable, ruthless, suspicious, uncooperative, inflexible; (d) conscientiousness describes team members that are careful, thorough, achievement-oriented, responsible, organized, self-disciplined, scrupulous versus irresponsible, disorganized, undisciplined, unscrupulous; and (e) extraversion–introversion describes team members that are sociable, talkative, assertive, active versus retiring, sober, reserved, cautious.

Reilly and colleagues (Reilly et al., 2002) reported that research findings suggested that while team member personality is related to team performance and other variables important for the success of teams, different Big 5 personality variables predict performance in different types of teams and the situational demands of the team task. Regarding openness, it may be important for creative and imaginative team tasks but less important, or even detrimental, when the task is of a more routine nature. Regarding stability, the level of emotional stability has been positively related to team performance

for a wide range of team tasks. Regarding agreeableness, it may be important for performance in long-term teams with tasks that involve persuasion, or other socially-related dimensions. When tasks do not require a high degree of social interaction, the evidence suggests that agreeableness may actually inhibit performance in teams.

Regarding extraversion, it has been related to team performance when tasks involve imaginative or creative activity but may inhibit performance when tasks call for precise, sequential and logical behavior.

Of the Big 5 personality variables, conscientiousness has been found to have the strongest and most reliable correlation with individual performance across job settings (Barrick & Mount, 1991; 1995). This suggested that conscientiousness should be positively related to team performance across a wide variety of tasks and settings.

Composition

As another key driver of team effectiveness has been team composition relative to personality and demographics. Although there has developed limited evidence on the role of team composition based personality on team effectiveness, there is evidence that diversity on other variables (e.g., demographics) impacts team effectiveness (Reilly et al., 2002).

Regarding personality variables, Guzzo and Dickson (1996) cited several research studies indicating positive relationships between team heterogeneity and creativity and decision-making effectiveness. Maznevski (1994) suggested that diversity in membership might be desirable for increasing the quantity of solutions offered and the quantity of alternatives offered. Research by Schwartz, Aranoff, and Reynolds (1976), which studied the effects of different management styles, both task-oriented or relationship-oriented,

found that heterogeneous teams demonstrated greater variability of responses in solving business problems than homogeneous teams. However, another study by Jackson et al. (1991) found membership in heterogeneous teams to be associated with higher turnover. In general, research has suggested that teams composed of members having heterogeneously personalities should produce higher quality decisions and generate more creative ideas than homogeneous teams. Homogeneous personality composed teams should be more cohesive, have less conflict and turnover and perform well when decision making and new ideas are less important (Reilly et al., 2002).

Team composition relative to demographics has also received much research attention (e.g., Kozolowski & Bell, 2003; Levine & Moreland, 1990). In terms of demographics, team composition refers to the configuration of a team based on team member attributes (Levine & Moreland, 1990). The ELT literature has attempted to link attributes of organizational leaders with strategic choices and organizational outcomes (Edmondson, Roberto, & Watkins, 2002). Using demographics, researchers have related team composition demographic variables such as age, tenure, education, and functional background to organizational effectiveness outcomes.

However, although many studies have found a relationship between demographic variables and outcomes, they have produced conflicting results. Faced with these inconsistencies, Edmondson et al. (2002) have identified several limitations regarding team composition research. First, demographic characteristics are, at best, imperfect representatives for psychological constructs. Second, ELT research has not definitively linked demographic attributes to team effectiveness. And, third, most demographic studies have failed to account for the impact that situation-specific factors

have on team process and performance. From these limitations, ELT effectiveness may vary greatly from one team situation to another, which indicates that demographic analysis, used in isolation, may provide an incomplete explanation of variation in a team's effectiveness over time. This suggests a need for additional research to explain how situational factors and team attributes work together to shape ELT effectiveness.

Thelen (2000) recognized that EW concepts proved useful in studying team composition, particularly, regarding team functioning and the shifts between team member-shared emotionalities. He found that there existed a relationship between team composition, team development, and team effectiveness in that team members would combine with one another to “establish, maintain, or dissolve specific EW cultures” (p. 129) existing in the group-as-a-whole in response to group situational factors.

Regarding team composition, Thelen focused on individual group-relevant personality traits defined by EW predispositions. However, Pfeffer (1983) asserted that the demographic characteristics of organizations, a key factor affecting team composition, also shape behavior patterns (e.g., team communication) and, ultimately, effectiveness. Team composition has remained a rich research area regarding demographics and has long been considered a powerful and effective means of increasing team effectiveness (Morgan & Lassiter, 1992).

Reactions to Group Situations Test

Thelen (1958) posited that the simplest possible “prediction of individual group behavior” could be based on the quantitative magnitude of the EW factors (p. 26). That led to his work in which he developed and demonstrated that the RGST could accurately predict the EW behavioral pattern in group interaction to be exhibited by individuals.

Reinforcing Thelen's early recognition for the need to develop an EW measurement instrument (i.e., the RGST), Lewis and Beck (2000) reported that a means for measurement was essential to understanding the behavior of individuals and the team as a whole. Numerous instruments have been developed for analyzing group therapy processes, group climate and therapeutic dimensions, individual personality, and interactions among group members. However, measurement instruments have typically focused either on the individual or on the group, but not both simultaneously. In exploring instruments relevant to this study, the remainder of this section provides first, an overview of existing behavioral assessment instruments that are designed to uncover individual or group relational information and, second, a detailed overview of the RGST.

Measurement Instruments

Lewis and Beck (2000) reported that it is a challenge to study individual change within the group context and to try to understand the dynamic flow of this change in the individual and the group-as-a-whole. This explains why numerous individual and group behavior measurement instruments have originated out of work with therapeutic groups. "The therapeutic group is a natural laboratory for process analysis studies" (Lewis & Beck, 2000, p. 3) and, as such, has facilitated the development of therapeutic group-oriented instruments that rely heavily on the use of observation and hermeneutics (Delucia-Waack, 1997; Fuhriman & Barlow, 1994; Fuhriman & Packard, 1986).

For example, the Interactional Process Analysis (IPA) was developed by Bales (1950) as a structured coding system for classifying behaviors among group members and is delineated by task and socio-emotional activities. Forsyth (1999) noted that IPA was valuable because it reports the frequency of occurrences of behavior of group members

and “makes possible comparisons across categories, group members, and even different groups” (p. 33). Group cohesion, engagement, and level of trust can be measured using the Group Climate Questionnaire (MacKenzie, 1983), which is a twelve item measurement instrument consisting of three scales including engagement, differentiation, and individuation. The Group Cohesiveness Scale (Budman, Soldz, Demby, Davis, & Merry, 1993) explores group connectedness and openness to self-disclosure and consists of six subscales (Withdrawal, Interest, Trust, Cooperation, Expressed Caring, and Focus) and one global scale (Cohesiveness). Another instrument is the Groupwork Engagement Measure (Macgowan, 1997, 2000). It consists of a thirty-seven item scale composed of seven dimensions: group member attendance, contributions, relations to members and to worker, contracting, and working on own and other members’ problems.

There are also instruments to measure therapeutic group factors and group session outcomes. The Therapeutic Factor Scale (Butler & Fuhrman, 1983), for example, examines the existence of therapeutic factors across group sessions including catharsis, insight, interpersonal learning, and cohesion, all essential dimensions of group dynamics. Other instruments for measuring group outcomes include the Group Sessions Rating Scale (Getter, Litt, Kadden, & Cooney, 1992), which is practical for assessing the use of various therapeutic interventions by both group members and facilitators of counseling and psycho-educational groups. The Individual Group Member Interpersonal Process Scale (Soldz, Budman, Davis, & Demby, 1993) is used to analyze group interactions along twenty-one group process dimensions. The Interpersonal Relations Checklist (Shadish, 1986) is a sixty-six item self- or observer-related behavioral checklist that

assesses group members' knowledge and skills in understanding emotions, thoughts, and behaviors.

Especially relevant to this study were measurement instruments that assessed individual predisposition for team behavior. Example instruments that focus on individual team behavior include the Group Emotionality Rating System, GERS (Karterud & Foss, 1989); the Hill Interaction Matrix, HIM, (Hill, 1977); the Member–Leader Scoring System (Mann, Gibbard, & Hartman, 1967); the Hostility/Support Scale (Beck, 1983); the Client and Therapist Experiencing Scales (Klein, Mathieu-Coughlan, & Kiesler, 1986); and the Systematic Multiple Level Observation of Groups Scale better known as SYMLOG (Bales, Cohen, & Williamson, 1979). These instruments have been described as useful in analyzing group therapy processes, group climate and therapeutic dimensions, and interactions among group members (Toseland, Jones, & Gellis, 2004).

Of particular interest were the GERS and HIM instruments, which were both a direct result of the Thelen's research influence (Beck & Lewis, 2000). The GERS is a coding system for assessing group functioning, which is a modification of the RGST developed by Thelen (Karterud & Foss, 1989). It includes five rated group dimensions of emotionality: fight, flight, dependency, pairing, and neutral (it does not consider work) (Karterud, 2000). The GERS is a hermeneutic, conceptually driven rating system with high reliability and validity, although its utility has been questioned for deriving a detailed process analysis based on one observational session when used alone (Toseland et al., 2004).

The HIM focuses on classifying group activity in terms of content and work styles and has its origins from the author's graduate work at the University of Chicago under

the direction of Thelen (Fuhriman & Burlingame, 2000). The HIM provides measures that are derived from rating systems that classify group members' and leader's verbal statements to more global paper-and-pencil instruments measuring group behavior intent. Like the GERS, this instrument is also hermeneutically-based and addresses verbal statements derived out of therapeutic situations (Fuhriman & Burlingame, 2000).

There are several reasons why the measurement instruments discussed above lacked application to my study. First, they were designed for therapeutic group environments, not mainstream team environments. Second, they required observation of the individual in the team situation. Third, they required a hermeneutic task upon completion of group observation regarding interpretation of verbal statements and, possibly, physical movements during the study period.

Other instruments exist that focus on the individual in non-therapeutic, mainstream situations. Two popular instruments are the Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation (FIRO) and the Meyer-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI). The MBTI is a self-report questionnaire for individual personality assessment based on the research of Carl Jung (Evans, Forney, & Guido-DiBrito, 1998). The MBTI provides information about people's preferences for communicating and dealing with information. These individual preferences deal with: (a) where people focus their attention – outer world or inner world (Extroversion vs. Introversion scale), (b) how people prefer to take in information or find out about things (Sensing vs. Intuition scale), (c) how people prefer to make decisions (Thinking vs. Feeling scale), and (d) how people are oriented toward the outer world (Judging vs. Perceiving scale) (Evans et al., 1998).

The FIRO instrument assesses how an individual's personal needs affect that person's behavior towards other individuals (Schutz, 1958). It offers insight into an individual's compatibility with other people, as well as providing insight into that individual's own personality characteristics. It measures the behavior of an individual toward others and the response wanted from them. It concentrates on three areas: (a) inclusion (i.e., recognition, belonging, and participation), (b) control (i.e., influence, leading, and responsibility), and (c) affection (i.e., closeness, warmth, and sensitivity).

Thelen (Thelen et al., 1969) used the original FIRO instrument in conjunction with the RGST in order to measure the way in which an individual characteristically related to other people. However, he relied on the RGST to reveal modes of individual reaction to stresses in team situations. Relative to team effectiveness, he found that scores on the two instruments did not correlate strongly with each other and thereby deduced that they were measuring different traits (Thelen et al., 1969). Thelen did find that the EW variables, as assessed using the RGST, were more strongly related to team effectiveness measures than those factors assessed using the FIRO (Thelen et al., 1969).

Thelen often used the RGST in conjunction with other instruments to identify correlations between the measurement variables and team effectiveness. He recognized that if instruments purporting to measure similar personality characteristics exhibited a high correlation between across their measurement variables then the validity of both instruments would be increased (Thelen et al., 1969).

As the literature revealed, there are numerous instruments available to assess personality and group behavior. Each brings unique constraints regarding focus or application environment. The use of the RGST to assess individual EW predispositions for

group behavior was justified in the context of this study because of three key reasons: (a) it was based on the BAT framework, (b) it was developed for stand-alone use in mainstream group situations, and (c) it did not require group observation (Banet & Hayden, 1996).

RGST Overview

The RGST has successfully identified individual EW predispositions for team behavior in advance of actual team activity (Banet & Hayden, 1996; Stock & Thelen, 1958; Thelen, 1954; Thelen et al., 1969). In its current form, the RGST has evolved to be a stand-alone instrument removing the need for qualitative analysis of verbal or written statements by respondents (Thelen et al., 1969). This makes it unique in that it enables variation from research practices that continue to include observational analysis for group study (Beck & Lewis, 2000; Karterud, 2000; Toseland et al., 2004).

As stated previously, the RGST has its origins in BAT and incorporates the four emotionality (E) variables: fight, flight, dependency, pairing, and the work (W) variable. It was designed as a fifty-item forced choice test, which provides the respondent with incomplete sentences that describe common occurrences in team situations. The respondent completes the test sentences by selecting one of two alternatives. These alternative completions are designed to reveal a predisposition for one of the four emotionality variables and the work variable. The alternative completions are arranged in a balanced design so that each emotionality variable and the work variable are paired five times with each other variable item.

The RGST design reflects two key features regarding the team situations and the response selections presented. First, each incomplete sentence (or team situation)

includes two components: (a) a stimulus situation that is based on a specific EW variable and (b) a person to identify with (i.e., self, other, or group). Secondly, each alternative sentence completion (or team situation response) includes two components: (a) a response that is based on a specific EW variable and (b) a person to identify with (i.e., self, other, or group). These features reflect the RGST's design intent to represent "meaningful group situations" and to facilitate the respondent's "free reaction to the response" (Thelen, 1954, p. 86).

These RGST design features provide another dimension to assessing individual EW predispositions for team behavior relative the EW variable-based stimuli and EW variable-based responses. A respondent's selection of an EW variable-based response that is the same as the stimulus presented in the incomplete sentence indicates a preference to continue to operate within, or maintain, the EW behavioral mode presented in the stimulus. Likewise, a respondent's selection of an EW variable-based response that is different than the stimulus presented indicates that the respondent rejects, blocks, or prefers to operate in another EW behavioral mode (Thelen, 2000). This information provides additional insight to the respondent's direct, general response to the stimulus (Thelen, 1954). Appendix B delineates the RGST incomplete sentence allocation in terms of EW variable stimulus and alternative response modalities.

The responses to the RGST, taken together, sketch a picture of the participant's predisposition for EW behavior in a team situation. Banet and Hayden (1996) highlighted two ways of using the data from this instrument. First, use the EW variable scores to indicate an individual's preference for, or strength of, group-relevant behavioral traits. Second, use the EW pattern of responses to stimuli to indicate an individual's

acceptance or rejection of a group EW operating mode. In general, the RGST is a useful tool to “sensitize participants to the EW dimensions of group relations” and it “offers the chance to manipulate group composition or function as a diagnostic device” (Banet & Hayden, 1996, p. 88).

RGST Instrument Validity/Reliability

For the purposes of this study, the RGST was accepted as having been shown to be a valid instrument for predicting individual EW-based behavior in a specific team situation (Thelen, 1954; Thelen et al. 1969). Cook and Campbell (1979) defined validity as the strength of conclusions, inferences, or propositions. A major component of validity of special importance to this study was internal validity, which refers to both how well a study was run and how confidently one can conclude that the observed effects were produced solely by the defined variables and not extraneous variables (Campbell & Stanley, 1966). Within the context of internal validity, the use of the RGST draws attention to content validity. Content validity refers to the actual content of the instrument (Gliner & Morgan, 2000). Relative to the RGST, content validity is concerned with the degree to which the RGST “represents the domain of the concept (i.e., BAT) under study” (Davis & Cosenza, 1988, p. 150).

To validate the RGST, Thelen (1954) observed individuals’ group behavior after taking the RGST to determine if their actual individual group behavior paralleled that predicted by the RGST (relative to the BAT identified variables work, pairing, dependency, fight, and flight). Thelen’s (1954) original validity checks looked at the correlation between clinician and observer to validate the RGST. For each study participant, clinicians made an EW predisposition evaluation using the RGST, which was

then correlated to observers' EW predisposition evaluation based on actual group behavior. The data showed that the correlations were better than chance expectancy, which "supported the general validity of the RGST under the experimental conditions" (Thelen, 1954, p. 124). The criterion used for defining "valid" was the ability to predict at least fifty percent of the subject's observed behavior, which was operationally equated to a Pearson's r -value greater than .71 between the clinician's prediction and the observers' average (p. 125).

In conjunction with validity, instrument reliability is important. Reliability is an essential component of research since, by definition, it indicates that results are repeatable and consistent (Ferketich, 1990). Reliability should always be reported and considered in study result interpretation (Wilkinson & APA Task Force on Statistical Inference, 1999). For my study, the internal consistency approach was used to determine instrument reliability. Internal consistency is the reliability estimate based on the correlation among the variables comprising the instrument.

A commonly used measure for internal consistency is the Cronbach Alpha (Cronbach, 1951), which came into favor for estimating the reliability of multiple homogeneous item instruments. Alpha itself is the equivalent of the average of all split-half correlations that could be generated for an instrument where each item is scored on more than two points (Nunnally, 1978). The Kuder-Richardson 20 (KR-20) is a special case of the Cronbach Alpha used for dichotomous items. Alpha and KR-20 values can range from .0 to 1.0 indicating low to high internal consistency, respectively.

Using guidelines set forth by Nunnally (1978), an alpha coefficient of at least .70 is deemed to be adequate for an instrument in the early stages of development. Ferketich

(2002) noted that, in general, very high alpha coefficients are difficult to obtain in test development and may be indicative of redundancy among items. This can be readily assessed by examination of the inter-item correlation matrix. When inter-item correlations are consistently above .70, redundancy may be a problem. Alternatively, when inter-item correlations are consistently below .30, there may be a lack of substantive relation among the items measuring the construct (Nunnally, 1978).

Another measure that is used as an estimator of internal consistency is the Armor Theta. Theta is a measure that can be used to provide reliability estimates when there is a problem of heterogeneity among instrument items. Armor (1974) developed Theta as a special case of Cronbach's Alpha to account for multidimensionality (or heterogeneity) among test items.

Reliability estimates for the RGST (Thelen et al., 1969) were developed using the split-half Kuder-Richardson method across several sample groups including training groups, teachers, and students. The reliability estimates ranged up to: work (.8), pairing (.24), dependency (.46), fight (.7), and flight (.7). Thelen (Thelen et al., 1969) posited that since pairing was the most "unstable" it was probably the variable that was most dependent on the immediate situation (p. 18).

Davis and Consenza (1988) stated that a perfect reliability measure is usually never attainable and "there are no steadfast rules for what constitutes a reliable measure" (p. 154). Moss (1994) suggested that reliability be treated as only one of several possible strategies of serving important epistemological and ethical purposes. A reliability value less than .6 was cited as appropriate for early "exploratory research," which is consistent with the discovery objective of this study (Davis & Consenza, 1988, p. 154). As stated by

Leona (1963), "validity remains more important than reliability" (p. 35). That is, reliability becomes meaningless if an instrument does not measure the construct that it is intended to measure.

Internal consistency estimates were calculated for my study in recognition of the Vacha-Haase, Henson, and Caruso (2002) statement: "not only do the majority of authors not provide reliability coefficients for their data in hand, but many unknowingly fall victim to the misconception that reliability coefficients from previous samples or test manuals are psychometrically applicable for their current published work" (p. 563). Supporting this, Pedhazur and Schmelkin (1991) stated that "many researchers' misconceptions and unawareness surrounding reliability may be due to decreased emphasis on measurement course work in doctoral programs."

Thompson (1994) stated studies should report and interpret results in light of the reliability for the present data, which usually means developing an internal consistency estimate Thompson (2002). Although prior study internal consistency data may be useful for comparative purposes, the relevant reliability estimate is the one obtained for the sample used in the study under consideration (Vacha-Haase et al., 2002).

As commonly cited references Nunnally (1967) originally cited .6 or .5 as being sufficient for early stages of research on predictor tests. Later, Nunnally (1978) cited .7 as being sufficient for instrument reliability. Unfortunately, researchers have frequently chosen to cite the Nunnally reference that suits the study results (Henson, 2001). In general, very high reliability values (i.e., >.8) are difficult to obtain and may be indicative of too much redundancy in an instrument, whereas, very low values may be indicative of a lack of substantive relation among the items measuring the construct (Nunnally, 1978).

Accordingly, to facilitate the ability to receive valid and reliable data (see Chapter Four for this study's internal consistency data), the RGST version used was that referenced by Banet and Hayden (1996) and presented in Appendix A. This RGST version was cited as having established a usage history in conjunction with Tavistock Conferences (an ongoing BAT-based experiential learning event, from 1957 to present) (Cooper & Mangham, 1971).

RGST-based Team Composition Studies

Studies have been conducted using the RGST to compose homogeneous and heterogeneous teams relative to individual EW predispositions. For example, one study (Glidewell, 1958) used the RGST to identify the collective individual EW predispositions in existing groups and to identify relationships with the team's problem solving characteristics. The results suggested that when a team maintains one EW operational modality (consistent with an EW homogeneous team) it differs from other EW heterogeneous teams in its enhanced ability to create and organize ideas into a flexible but specific solution. The team's outputs showed a wider range of ideas, more specific solutions, more attention to causation, and more involvement in and commitment to their proposed solutions.

In a second study (Gradolph, 1958), the relationships between team composition and operational characteristics of the total group were investigated. The RGST was administered to thirty adults to determine their individual EW predispositions. Four six-member teams were examined: (a) one composed entirely of members whose primary EW predispositions were pairing, (b) one composed entirely of members whose primary EW predisposition was flight, and (c) two composed with half the members having their

primary EW predispositions for pairing and half the members having their primary EW predisposition for flight. The teams were presented with identical tasks and then compared regarding their manner of dealing with the problem, the team EW operational modalities expressed, and the general nature of the team culture.

The two homogeneously composed groups exhibited traits consistent with their member's individual EW predispositions. This suggested that when individuals were in a team where only one EW predisposition dominates, that EW predisposition behavioral trait becomes the operational standard of the group-as-a-whole. The two mixed individual EW predisposition groups had more difficulty with the task and both expressed frustration and anger. A suggested explanation was that because the membership included partially opposed individual EW predispositions the mixed groups were incompatible.

A third study (Lieberman, 1958) used the RGST to compose two training groups (selected from 120 people) that differed in the range of individual EW predispositions. It was speculated that variations in team EW composition influence the kinds and range of problems with which the team addresses, its manner of dealing with them, and the solutions it achieves. Also, of interest was the identification of any change in team members regarding their exhibition of their own primary EW predisposition, as a result of being in a team with individuals having different EW predispositions. The two groups were composed of members that individually possessed a clearly dominant EW predisposition. With respect to individual EW predisposition, the groups' composition differed in two ways: (a) the second group included pairing members, while the first group did not; and (b) the second group included a wider range of individual EW predispositions.

The two group compositions were found to influence changes in the exhibited EW behavior of individual members. First, the composition of the team influenced the kinds of members who did and did not change. It was suggested that the members who did not change were those whose group relevant personality traits were so attuned to the prevailing group atmosphere that there was no pressure or need to change EW group behavior. Secondly, group composition appeared to influence change with respect to the EW culture in which change occurred. It was suggested that when a group deals primarily with a particular emotional issue, the attention of the members focuses on this issue and it becomes the area in which EW modality change occurs.

These three studies represented two approaches addressing team composition, although each made use of the same basic concepts and used the RGST to assess individual EW predispositions. The first study assessed the consequences of different EW predisposition characteristics of existing groups; the second and third studies composed teams experimentally and studied the influence of varying composition on task approach and individual change. In both study approaches, the attempt was to test the feasibility of defining group composition relative to individual EW variable predispositions using the RGST.

Of note is that the overall EW predisposition characteristics of the teams were determined by: (a) summing individual EW predisposition scores derived from the RGST (Glidewell, 1958); and (b) identifying the EW predisposition of individuals using the RGST and then composing teams of individuals with known EW predispositions for group behavior (Gradolph, 1958; Lieberman, 1958). The studies showed that teams with individuals having a dominant EW predisposition exhibited problem solving and

emotionality characteristics that were consistent with BAT defined characteristics associated with the EW variables (Bion, 1961). Fundamentally, these studies demonstrated that the concept of EW predisposition could also be applied to team composition (Stock & Thelen, 1958).

In another study conducted by Thelen (Thelen et al., 1969) he administered the RGST to six adult populations. The adult populations surveyed included: (a) eighty-eight high school social studies teachers enrolled in a summer course, (b) forty-two high school mathematics and science teachers enrolled in the same course, (c) fifty-five college students preparing to be teachers, (d) one hundred and five students in one real estate appraisers course, and (e) seventy-five students in a second real estate appraisers course. In terms of median associational values derived for the relationships among the EW factors, the directional sign of these median values were in accordance with Bion's "theoretical understanding of the EW variable relationships" from a purely positive or negative associational perspective (Bion, 1961, p. 160). The data suggested that fight and flight were associated positively; that both fight and flight were in opposition to work, and that interpersonal closeness implied by pairing (and to a lesser extent by dependency) was actively in opposition to fight and flight.

The data also indicated several relationship patterns concerning EW variables and effectiveness. The associations between work and effectiveness were the highest and among the most consistent of the associations for all variables, irrespective of the group situation, which is what would be expected relative to BAT.

Several variables associated negatively with effectiveness in most situations. The dependency variable had no association or associated negatively with effectiveness in all

possible associations. Based on the consistency of the pattern of associations it appeared that dependency was one of the more maladaptive emotionality factors. The flight variable also associated negatively with most of the effectiveness measures. The pattern of consistently negative associations rather than their magnitude supported the conclusion that flight was also one of the more maladaptive emotionality variables.

In terms of the group-as-whole concept, the data showed that the collective team EW operational modality can reflect the situation it is faced with. For example, in the study described Thelen used the RGST to compose two EW predisposition heterogeneous teams and gave one an easy task and gave the second a much more difficult and intense task. Thelen (Thelen et al., 1969) found that the pairing variable in the team one situation associated positively with effectiveness. In the second team situation, the flight variable associated positively with effectiveness. Thelen noted that the team-one activity was easier than the team-two activity and, subsequently, there was less apparent team conflict. Also, he noted that the team-two activity was more difficult than the team-one activity and apparently generated frustration among the team members, which pointed to the flight variable as being more adaptive for the complex and frustrating situation. This again supported the notion that team effectiveness is impacted by the collective heterogeneous mix of individual EW predispositions, which facilitates the team's ability to take on a group-as-a-whole EW behavior in response to a specific situation.

Summary

The literature reviewed provided an understanding of Thelen's research and his extension of BAT concepts in developing the RGST. Simply, BAT states that the work

activity, or effectiveness, of a team is always influenced to some extent by emotionality states, or basic assumption cultures, inherent in the team members as behavioral, or personality, traits and collectively exhibited by the team (Bion, 1961). At any given time a team-as-a-whole acts as if it were operating in one of four emotionality states: (a) pairing, (b) dependency, (c) fighting, or (d) flight (Rioch, 1970).

Thelen's (Stock & Thelen, 1958) research was based on the belief that the EW concept provided an understanding for individual behavior in team situations. With the subsequent development of the RGST he was able to predict individual team behavior relative to EW predispositions, or "team-relevant aspects of personality", in terms of pairing, dependency, fight, flight, and work variables (p. 22). Two fundamental understandings came from Thelen's research: first, EW variables in team situations were interrelated so that emotionality never occurred without work; and second, individual EW predispositions for team behavior impacted team effectiveness.

The literature discussed regarding team effectiveness indicated the significant attention that personality and team composition variables have received in team and small group research. Researchers such as Hackman (1987) and Driskell (Driskell et al., 1987) have provided insight regarding the influence of personality and composition design variables related to the effectiveness of teams.

Much of the progress in assessing individual personality has been attributed to Goldberg's (1990) Big 5 model and McCrae and Costa's (1987) subsequent development of the Five Factor Model. Linking these personality trait models to team effectiveness presents a challenge since variables that are related to team effectiveness are likely to vary across situations (Tett & Burnett, 2003) and because of the difficulty in aggregating

individual team members' individual personalities to a team personality. Likewise, team composition variables pose a challenge because although team member attributes (e.g., demographics) are by definition at the individual level, the interest in team composition is in the combinations of individuals (Mohammed et al., 2002). A wide variety of team personality, composition, and effectiveness relationships are identified in the literature as affecting team effectiveness and these are in part linked to team type; for example, community college ELTs (Cohen & Bailey, 1997).

The literature referenced numerous instruments in addition to the RGST that either address individual or group personality/behavior issues. Many of these required the use of group observation in conjunction with the instrument, which opposed the desire to predict individual ELT behavior prior to the actual exhibition of individual ELT behavior. An advantage in using the RGST for this study in the community college environment was that it did not require subsequent group observation (Banet & Hayden, 1996), since Thelen's research provided quantitative substance and validity to the ability to predict individual EW predispositions for team behavior, as well as show that EW variables impact team effectiveness (Stock & Thelen, 1958; Thelen, 1954, 2000; Thelen et al., 1969).

Thelen (1954) engaged in research that involved both quantitative and qualitative (e.g., observation and verbal statement analysis) techniques. As indicated earlier in the chapter he validated the presence of EW group behavior as predicted by the quantitative data derived from the RGST (Karterud, 2000, 1989; Karterud & Foss, 1989; Thelen, 1954; Thelen et al., 1969). The evolution of the RGST has enabled it to function as a stand-alone instrument, which makes it unique from other research methods still

including methods such as group observation and verbal statement interpretation (Karterud, 1989; Toseland et al., 2004).

My study sought to add to the current community college and higher education leadership literature by using the RGST to investigate the EW predispositions of community college administrators for ELT behavior. In conjunction with the literature reviewed, the EW variables and demographic variables represented group-relevant behavioral personality and team composition variables. The objective was to answer the study questions and based on the results develop a profile of community college administrators' likely team behavior relative to individual EW predisposition and demographic variables. This research, in turn, was envisioned to lead to future studies that would determine the predictive value of the RGST and BAT in developing effective community college ELTs.

CHAPTER 3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

My study was survey-based using the RGST (Appendix A) developed by Thelen (Banet & Hayden, 1996). Thelen's research reported that individual EW predispositions for team behavior, identified using the RGST, were consistent with subsequent individual behavior observed in actual team situations (Thelen, 1954; Stock & Thelen, 1958; Thelen et al., 1969). That is, the RGST could predict individuals' likely team behavior relative to identified EW-based group relevant personality traits (Banet, 1976).

The remainder of this chapter addresses my use of the RGST in the context of the study problem, my research questions, and my methodology to identify community college administrator EW predispositions and develop an administrator EW-based predisposition profile.

Study Problem and Purpose

As stated in Chapter One, typically, individual EW predispositions for team behavior can impact community college ELT effectiveness. The ELT and its members may be individually, and collectively, more effective if they are aware of, and can respond to, other team members EW predispositions for team behavior. To accomplish this, a structured instrument for identifying predispositions would be advantageous to support ELT composition and development.

The purpose of my study was to take an initial step in the systematic examination of such individual predispositions by collecting and analyzing data that described the team behavior EW predispositions for a select group of Illinois community college

administrators. In taking this step, a key objective was the development of an EW-based profile, which would provide a sketch of the typical community college administrator from both an EW and demographic perspective.

The RGST, in conjunction with its developmental roots in BAT, was used to collect data for the emotionality variables (i.e., the predisposition for pairing, dependency, fight, and flight) and the work variable (i.e., the predisposition for undertaking and completing a cognitive task or goal), as well as for demographic variables. The demographic variables included participant's position title, age, gender, time in higher education, time at current institution, time in current position, highest educational degree attained, race/ethnicity, social class of origin, and current ELT membership status. These data were used as the formative elements of the community college administrator EW predisposition profile.

Research Questions

As stated previously, my study objective was to take an initial step toward understanding EW concepts in the context of higher education ELTs and develop a community college administrator EW predisposition profile. To do this, the following study questions were prepared: (a) what are higher education administrator EW predispositions for team behavior, (b) how are EW predispositions related to specific demographics, and (c) how are EW predispositions associated with each other relative to demographics? Answering these questions was envisioned as an initial step in discovery regarding; first, associating community college administrator EW predisposition profiles to ELT effectiveness and, second, suggesting developmental interventions for effective ELT membership. The study questions facilitated the compilation of information for

developing the administrator EW predisposition profiles in accordance with the BAT context as discussed by Bion (1961) and Thelen and his colleagues (1954). EW-based profiles were developed for the administrator group-as-a-whole, dean, vice president, and president profiles. The profiles were framed to identify EW team-relevant personality traits in conjunction with their group demographics. Each profile includes the: (a) EW mean score footprint (b) EW predisposition traits, (c) individual EW emphasis, (d) team preferred EW operating mode, (e) EW variable inter-directional associations, and (f) group demographics. In accomplishing the study objective, the data were collected and analyzed in accordance with the study methodology presented in the following sections.

Methodology

Figure 1 conceptualizes the study conducted. The RGST was sent as a survey to all Illinois community college administrators (i.e., deans, vice presidents, and presidents). The RGST extracted the desired information regarding EW variables, which included work, pairing, dependency, fight, and flight, and demographic variables, which included position title (i.e., dean, vice president, or president), time in higher education, time at current institution, time in current position, age, gender (i.e., male or female), highest degree attained (i.e., BA/BS, MA/MS, EdD, PhD, or other), race/ethnicity (i.e., Asian/Pacific Island, Native American, Black/African American/NonHispanic, Hispanic/Latino, White/Caucasion/NonHispanic, or multi-race/other), social class of origin (i.e., low, middle, or upper), and current ELT membership status (i.e., yes or no). The EW variable and demographic variable data was then used to develop the EW-based administrator profiles.

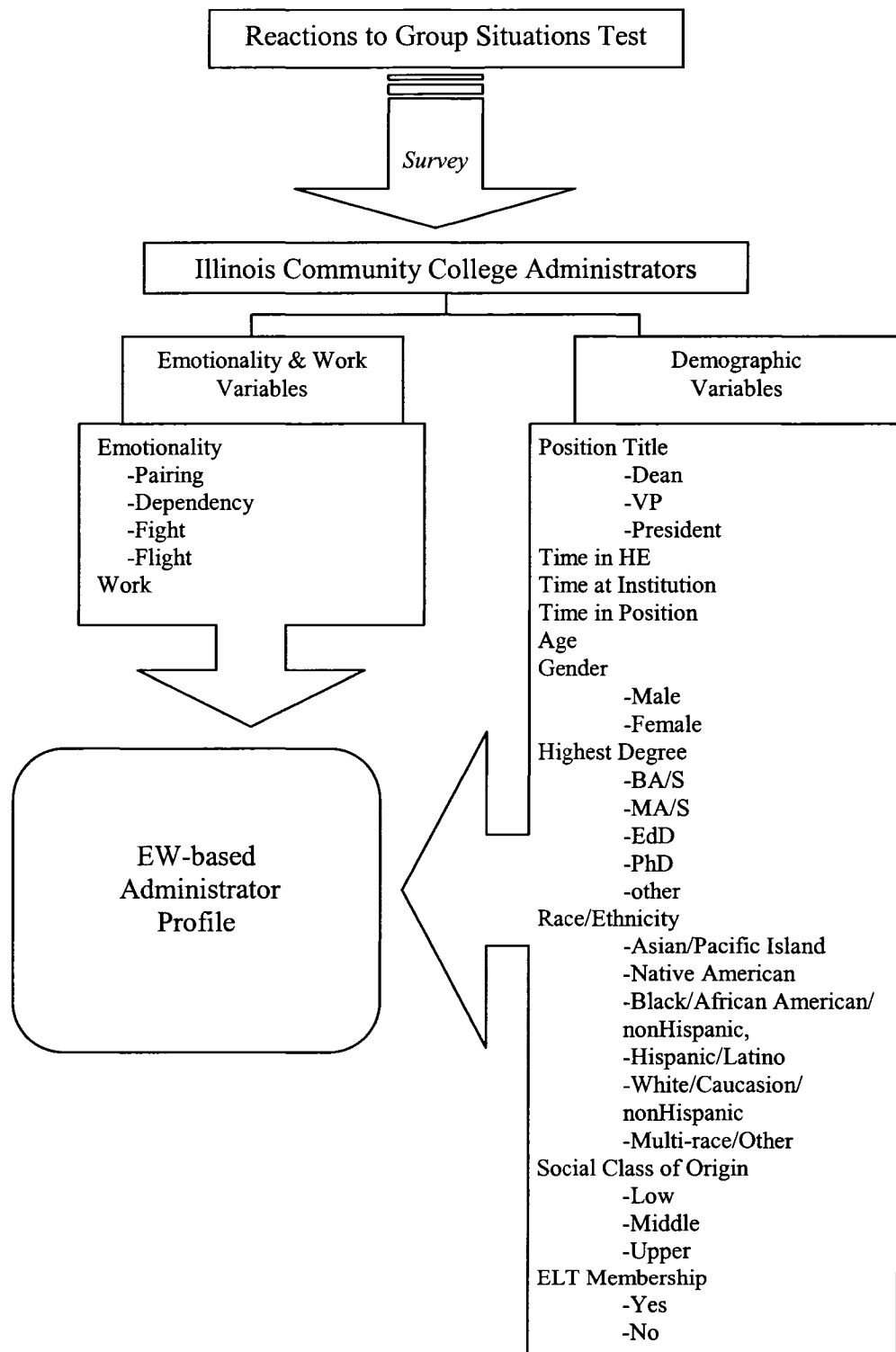


Figure 1. Study Conceptualization

Data Source

The target population for the survey included Illinois community college presidents, vice presidents, and deans. Positional titles including the term assistant, associate, executive, chief, etc. were included in the potential participant pool. Appendix D lists the Illinois community colleges where applicable administrators were invited, via email, for study participation.

The targeted participant pool consisted of over six hundred potential respondents. Based on McFarlin et al. (1999), the demographics associated with the highest executive (i.e., president) community college population were expected to include: an average age of 54.5 years; an average of 13 years in administration; an average of 7.2 years at the current institution; 82.4% males and 17.6% females; and include a race/ethnicity make-up of Native American, 1%, Asian/Pacific Islander, 1.1%, black/African American, 6.1%, Hispanic/Latino, 4.8%, white/caucasian, 86.2%, and other, .8%.

A third party survey host was used enabling participants to go directly to the RGST by clicking on an active Internet URL (uniform resource locator) provided in the invitation email. The RGST could then be completed in five to ten minutes primarily through the use of a computer mouse. Respondent confidentiality was maintained since all survey responses were sent directly to the hosting third party service and remained anonymous. The exception to this confidentiality structure was if a respondent voluntarily provided an email address in order to receive a summary of the study results; however, their specific responses remained anonymous.

The survey was conducted during the month of November 2006. Upon closing access to the survey, I downloaded all respondent data from the host service in a format suitable for subsequent data analysis.

Data Collection

As discussed in Chapter Two, the RGST was an objective forced-choice test, which confronted the respondent with incomplete sentences reflecting common team situations. Each respondent completed the sentences by selecting one of two alternatives. These alternative completions were designed to reveal preference for the four emotionality variables and the work variable. Each RGST item included: (a) an EW variable-based stimulus team situation, (b) two EW variable-based alternatives, and (c) a person to identify with (i.e., the self, another person, or the total group). Together, the incomplete sentences and the alternative completions represented “meaningful group situations” that facilitated the respondents’ “free reaction response” (Thelen, 1954, p. 86). Selection of an alternative response indicated the participants’ EW predispositions for team behavior.

The RGST consisted of fifty incomplete sentences, each describing a common team situation, and two alternative sentence completions, or responses. The alternative sentence completions were arranged so that the EW variables were paired with each other five times. The frequency that an EW variable response was selected represented the score, or strength, of the respondent’s predisposition for each EW variable. In this way, a respondent’s team behavior predisposition for each EW variable was represented by a number between zero and twenty; with the larger the score, the greater the predisposition strength.

The demographic variable data was requested in the introduction to the RGST. As illustrated in Appendix A, demographic information requested included the respondent's position title, age, gender, time in higher education, time at current institution, time in current position, highest educational degree attained, race/ethnicity, social class of origin, and current ELT membership status. The respondents were notified on the survey form that all information was anonymous and confidential. As stated previously, confidentiality was maintained by using a third party to receive data directly from the respondents. To ensure subsequent data integrity, all data were received by myself from the third party survey host and transferred into Minitab and Microsoft Excel for analysis.

As discussed in Chapter Two, the RGST used was that referenced by Banet and Hayden (1996) and presented in Appendix A. For my study, the observed RGST reliability in this application with community college administrators was reported in terms of internal consistency. Reliability was to be calculated in terms of the Kuder-Richardson KR-20 and the Armor theta (Ferketich, 1990). The reliability magnitudes were to be compared with Thelen's experience (Thelen et al., 1969) and two guiding premises. Subsequent overall data analysis and conclusions were to consider the RGST's observed reliability.

Data Analysis

To answer the study questions, I personally conducted all data analysis, which ultimately formed the basis for constructing the administrator EW predisposition profiles presented in Chapter Five. Analyzing the EW variable score data included both graphical and numerical summaries to explore differences and relationships in the data.

In general, this included examining the distribution of scores for the EW variables, the associations between EW variables, and the relationships between EW variables and administrator demographic variables. In addition, the RGST responses were evaluated regarding the selection pattern of EW-based responses to the EW-based sentence stimuli.

For question one, identifying the community college administrator group-as-a-whole EW predispositions for team behavior included: (a) describing the distribution of scores for the EW variables; (b) using side-by-side box plots to illustrate the variable distributions' characteristics and their overlap; and (c) using a radar chart to illustrate the EW variable mean score footprint. Also, for this question the administrator group-as-a-whole demographics were summarized. Answering this question provided the profile information to highlight the administrator group-as-a-whole EW predispositions and demographic variable characteristics.

For question two, identifying how EW group predispositions were related to demographics included: (a) describing, for each demographic variable, the distribution of scores for the EW variables; (b) using side-by-side box plots to illustrate the EW variable distributions' characteristics and their overlap; and (c) using a radar chart to illustrate the EW variable score footprint for the demographic variables. These analyses were performed for each administrator group (i.e., dean, vice president, and president). Answering this question provided the profile information to highlight for the dean, vice president, and president groups: (a) the dominant EW variables, (b) the EW variables in opposition to each other, and (c) any unique differences in EW variable characteristics between the administrator groups.

Relative to question three, identifying how EW predispositions were associated included examining the associational relationships between EW variables for the administrator group-as-a-whole and the corresponding demographic variables. Also, the associational relationships between EW variables were examined for the dean, vice president, and president. This included determining the magnitude and direction (i.e., positive, negative, or null) of the association between the EW variables via the calculation of linear correlation coefficients. However, the focus for this study question was on the associational direction and not necessarily the association value. This position was taken reflecting a fundamental objective to see if the EW variables acted to that expected in accordance with BAT. But, in order to put some definition to the interpretation of the magnitude of the correlation coefficients calculated, Cohen's (1988) suggested interpretation was used. Cohen suggested that a correlation of .5 is large, .3 is moderate, and .1 is small (1988). The usual interpretation of these guidelines has been that anything greater than .5 is large, .5 to .3 is moderate, .3 to .1 is small, and anything small than .1 is insubstantial, trivial, or otherwise not worth worrying about (Hopkins, 2000). For practical purposes, correlations less than positive or negative .1 were considered to be null, or zero. Answering this question provided the profile information to highlight the EW variable inter-associational direction of the EW group-relevant traits relative to each other.

EW Predisposition Profile Key

The data collected and examined in accordance with the three study questions enabled the development of the community college administrator EW predisposition profiles. Each administrator profile (i.e. dean, vice president, president, and administrator

group-as-a-whole) was developed to include an EW and demographic variable summary narratives, a radar chart illustrating the EW variable mean score footprint (with comparison to the administrator group-as-a-whole EW footprint), and a table identifying EW variable directional associations. The benefit of using the profile format depicted in Table 1 was in its ability to provide a comprehensive, yet concise, sketch of the administrative levels' demographic make-up, EW predisposition, and likely ELT behavior.

The EW-based administrator profiles are an important aspect of my analysis because they show that community college administrator EW predispositions were measurable using the RGST. Also, the information they provide sets the stage for interpreting individual administrator EW predispositions relative to their likely ELT affect.

Summary

This study grounded itself in using the RGST to identify community college administrators' EW predisposition for behavior that was likely to be exhibited in an ELT situation. The RGST was used to collect EW data from Illinois community college administrators. The Illinois community college system served as the data source, which provided a sample for a cross-section of community college administrators at the dean, vice president, and president levels.

In recognition of issues that could potentially limit my study's results generalizability, the following items were identified. First, the RGST was sent to Illinois community college system targeted participants via email, which could have impacted the responsiveness of survey recipients in completing the RGST (e.g., lost or blocked email).

Second, failure to receive responses from all Illinois community colleges could have provided a misrepresentation of state-wide administrator EW predispositions for team behavior (e.g., areas within the state may be more responsive than others, such as city versus rural). Third, a lack of, or small, response for a specific demographic variable could make it difficult to develop components of the administrator profiles. Lastly, the study only targeted Illinois community college administrators for data collection and would thereby provide an inaccurate description of administrator individual EW predispositions reflective of the United States community college system. However, none of these items derailed the conduct of the study.

The significance of my study included that it appeared (via literature search) to be the first application of the RGST for examining community college administrator EW predispositions for ELT behavior. Also, as an initial step in discovery, it opened the door to conceptually using the identification of EW predispositions for team behavior to support maximizing ELT effectiveness. This sets the stage for further investigation regarding EW predispositions and their role in community college, and higher education in general, regarding ELT composition and development. The study findings were anticipated to be of interest to Illinois community college administrators, the Illinois Community College Board, and national higher education organizations, as well as of publication interest to peer reviewed journals addressing small group research, teams, and higher education.

Table 1. EW Predisposition Profile Key

	<p>Time in Higher Education: 1. The number of years by over 50% of the participants, 2. description of overall distribution</p> <p>Time at Current Institution: 1. The number of years held by over 50% of the participants, 2. description of overall distribution</p> <p>Time in Current Position: 1. The number of years held by over 50% of the participants, 2. description of overall distribution</p> <p>Age: 1. The number of years held by over 50% of the participants, 2. description of overall distribution</p> <p>Gender: % of gender make-up</p> <p>Highest Degree Attained: % for highest degree level</p> <p>Race/Ethnicity: % of majority and minor race/ethnicity</p> <p>Social Class of Origin: % of majority and minor race/ethnicity</p> <p>ELT Membership: % of yes/no make-up</p>
<p>EW Predisposition: <i>The dominant group relevant EW personality trait and the traits in opposition to each other</i></p> <p>Individual EW emphasis: <i>The individual EW predisposition in terms of self</i></p> <p>Team preferred EW operating mode: <i>The EW predisposition in terms of a team</i></p> <p>EW Associations: <i>(positive, +; negative, -; null, 0)</i></p> <p style="text-align: center;">W P D F</p> <p>P D F FL</p>	

CHAPTER 4 RESULTS

This chapter presents the results of the RGST survey and the subsequent data analysis. Collectively, the data facilitated the understanding of EW concepts in the context of community college higher education administrators and ELTs, which led to answering the following study questions: (a) what are higher education administrator EW predispositions for team behavior, (b) how are EW predispositions related to specific demographics, and (c) how are EW predispositions associated with each other relative to demographics?

Each question was addressed separately by presenting and analyzing data collected using the RGST in accordance with the methodology delineated in Chapter Three. This chapter provides data analyses for the participant response and RGST reliability, the three research questions, and the RGST stimulus/response orientations.

Preliminary Analyses

Survey Response Summary

Table 2 provides an overview of the survey response. From an original email list of 652 Illinois community college deans, vice presidents, and presidents there were 542 potential respondents from which a total of 93 responses were received (an overall response rate of 17.2%). The response rate was affected by the number of undeliverable participant invitation emails (110 with first delivery and 91 with second delivery), which may have been due to spam controls in place at various institutions to screen out what appeared to be nonacademic email traffic.

Twenty-two invalid responses were received, which appeared to have resulted from the respondent pausing their response and not returning to the survey to complete it. (A return-to-complete feature was available to all respondents.) This led to a 13.1% valid response rate. Although I can not for certain know why the response rate was so low, reasons for this lower response rate may have included: (a) the time of year (i.e., Thanksgiving holiday season), (b) lack of interest for administrator audience (i.e., uninteresting topic), (c) fear of the topic (i.e., don't want to identify oneself as a poor ELT candidate or member), (d) fear of the use of the survey data (i.e., somehow becoming known as a poor ELT candidate or member), (e) or simply an unwillingness to take the time to complete the survey (a ten minute completion time estimate was stated for participants). It is possible that respondents participated for reasons that are unknown to me. Also, it is recognized that there may be some bias in the responses provided, or in regard to those who responded relative to their direct association with, or knowledge of, me personally.

The survey itself was emailed out twice; first, on November 1, 2006 and second, on November 20, 2006 after I presented on this dissertation topic at the Illinois Council of Community College Administrators Fall Conference on November 17, 2006. Prior to the second emailing, the 110 previously undeliverable emails were reviewed for correctness, of which 91 were repaired (i.e., correct typos) and 19 were found to no longer exist. In conjunction with the second survey emailing, there remained a 91 undeliverable emails. This resulted in a total of 542 surveys being emailed to the Illinois community college administrators, which included deans, vice presidents, and presidents.

Table 2. Data Collection Summary

RGSTs Sent To Administrators		
	1 st Delivery (31OCT06)	2 nd Delivery*** (20NOV06)
# Of Potential Respondents*	652	633
# Of Undeliverable Emails	110	91
# Of Delivered Emails	542	542
# Of Responses	52	93
Response Rate	9.6%	17.2%
# Of Invalid Responses**	19	22
# Of Valid Responses	33	71
Valid Response Rate	6.1%	13.1%

Notes: * Number of emails sent. ** Respondents failed to complete all RGST sentences. *** Occurred after ICCCA presentation on 17NOV06.

The demographics of the highest executive administrator level were comparable to that cited in Chapter Three (McFarlin et al., 1999). Differences included a higher percentage of males (delta: 20%), a lower percentage of black/African Americans (delta: 14%), and a lower mean age (delta: 3 years). However, the differences exhibited did not appear alarming to the extent that the study's Illinois community college administrator data pool was not in ways reflective of the true population demographics.

Survey Instrument Reliability

Regarding instrument reliability, specifically for my study, the RGST instrument internal consistency (i.e., reliability) was determined. For comparison with Thelen's RGST research (Thelen et al., 1969), KR-20 internal consistency values were calculated for each of the variables. From Chapter Two, Thelen (Thelen et al., 1969) experienced reliability estimates that ranged up to: work (.8), pairing (.24), dependency (.46), fight (.7), and flight (.7). In broad terms, there appeared to be a general alignment between my study and Thelen's research in terms of EW variable internal consistency order of magnitude.

It is important to recognize that the KR-20 is based on the instrumentation question response alternatives being dichotomous items (i.e., yes or no, right or wrong, etc.) (Ferketich, 1990). That is not the case with the RGST. The instrument response alternatives are of an A or B structure, but each A and B alternative could be based on any one of the five EW variables (i.e., the alternative responses are not truly dichotomous). It is worth remembering also that each RGST item could have a stimulus orientation based on one of the five EW variables. Also, each RSGT item could be based on a team, other, or self orientation. These considerations impacted using KR-20 as the best approach for assessing instrument internal consistency.

But, in the spirit of making a comparison with Thelen's use of KR-20, I calculated KR-20 values, for each EW variable, by coding the RGST response items as 1 or 0 to indicate selection of the specific variable or not. This coding met the KR-20 requirement for dichotomous items and enabled the calculation of the following internal consistency values: work (.51), pairing (.12), dependency (.22), fight (.56), and flight (.44). Admittedly, these values were lower than what would typically be expected of a reliable instrument; particularly, that for pairing and dependency. However, as discussed previously, the RGST scale is heterogeneous (and not homogeneous as required for the KR-20), therefore, I calculated internal consistency based on the Armor Theta value (Ferketich, 1990).

Armor's Theta (Armor, 1974) is computed from the first (largest) eigen-value obtained in the principal component analysis of the observed inter-item correlation matrix. Theta is a special case of Cronbach's Alpha (Cronbach, 1951) to address: (a) the

multi-dimensionality in an item set, (b) a problem of heterogeneity, (c) a departure from the assumption of parallel or tau-equivalent items, or (d) a small number of items.

The calculated Armor Theta values for the variables were: work (.61), pairing (.58), dependency (.54), fight (.68), and flight (.64). Again, these theta values generally paralleled the rank order seen by Thelen (Thelen et al., 1969) except that the pairing and dependency internal consistency values were higher.

I also calculated theta values based on the inter-correlation matrix for the five EW variables. This provided a general glimpse of potential changes in instrument reliability when combining EW variables. The theta for overall instrument internal consistency was .63 for the five variables (i.e., work, pairing, dependency, fight, and flight), .65 with four variables (i.e., work, pairing, dependency, and flight/flight), and .73 with three variables (i.e., work, pairing/dependency, and fight/flight).

As commonly cited references (Nunnally (1967) originally cited .6 or .5 as being sufficient for early stages of research on predictor tests. Later, Nunnally (1978) cited .7 as being sufficient for instrument reliability. Very high alpha values (i.e., >.8) may be indicative of too much redundancy in an instrument and very low values (i.e., <.3) may be indicative of a lack of substantive relation among the items measuring the construct (Nunnally, 1978). Using these guidelines, the pairing and dependency variables appeared to stand out regarding their RGST identification.

Principal Analyses

Research Question One

The first question answered addressed identifying what were the community college administrator group-as-a-whole EW predispositions for team behavior. To answer

this question the administrator group-as-a-whole data were examined relative to the distribution of scores for the EW variables to provide an understanding of EW variable score distribution central tendency, dispersion, and shape. This included identifying the median, mode, mean, and standard deviation for each EW variable and using box plots to illustrate the distributions and their scoring overlap. A radar chart was prepared to illustrate the administrator group-as-a-whole EW mean score footprint for subsequent use in study question two.

Table 3 and Figure 2 provide insight to the administrator group-as-a-whole EW variable score data distributions. Using the mean scores, the EW variables, from highest to lowest mean score, were work, pairing, dependency, fight, and flight. The work variable received the highest score followed by pairing and dependency having exhibited nearly identical scores. The variability of the distributions appeared to be similar with the exception of pairing, which reflected the smallest score variability. Figure 2 illustrates that the work variable distribution was distinctly separated from the other variable score distributions. The pairing and dependency score distributions overlapped at the second and third quartiles. Also, the fight and flight score distributions included the lowest values with the fight middle quartiles below the flight second and third quartiles.

Figure 3 illustrates the EW variable mean score radar chart. The EW footprint visually indicated that fight and flight were in opposition to work, pairing, and dependency. This administrator group-as-a-whole radar chart footprint provided the basis for subsequent comparison, as part of answering study question two, with the individual administrator groups' (i.e., dean, vice president, and president) EW mean score footprint.

Table 4 provides a summary of the demographic variables associated with the administrator group-as-a-whole EW predisposition data. The majority of respondents identified themselves as a dean. The time in higher education was significantly greater than the time at the current institution and time in current position. There were twice as many female deans as male deans. Masters degrees were the most common attained by the administrators and the administrator racial/ethnic make-up was predominantly white/caucasian/nonHispanic, which came from a middle social class of origin. Approximately half of the administrators were members of an ELT. This demographic data was used in the administrator group-as-a-whole profile presented in Chapter Five.

Table 3. Administrator Group-as-a-Whole EW Descriptive Statistics

Variable	Count	Mode	Mean	StDev	Min	Q1	Median	Q3	Max
Work	71	16	16.84	2.11	11.00	16.00	17.00	18.00	20.00
Pairing	71	11	10.40	1.77	5.00	9.00	11.00	11.00	14.00
Dependency	71	11	10.56	1.96	5.00	9.00	11.00	12.00	17.00
Fight	71	4	4.80	2.19	1.00	4.00	4.00	6.00	10.00
Flight	71	6	7.38	2.20	3.00	6.00	7.00	9.00	12.00

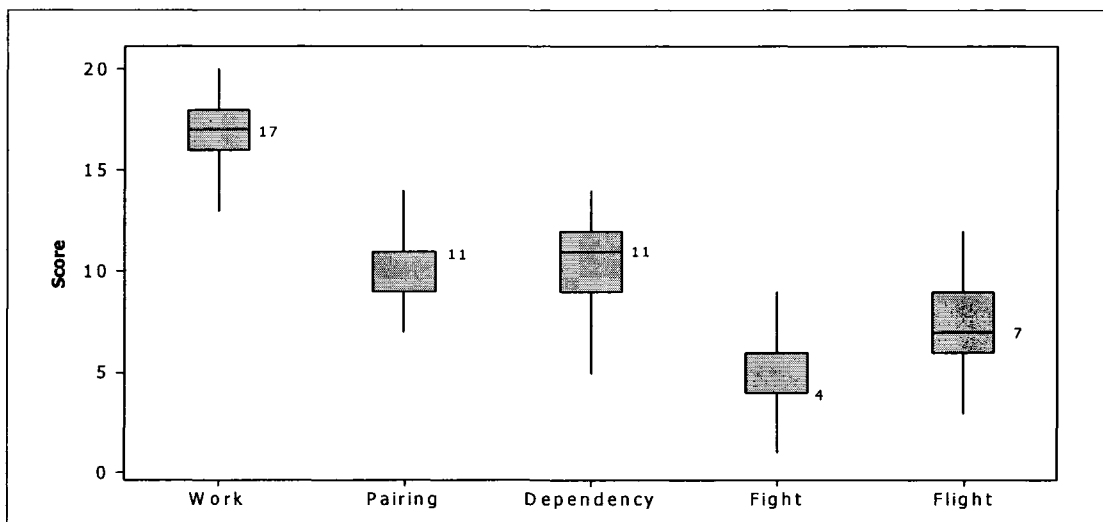


Figure 2. Administrator Group-as-a-Whole EW Variable Distribution Box Plots

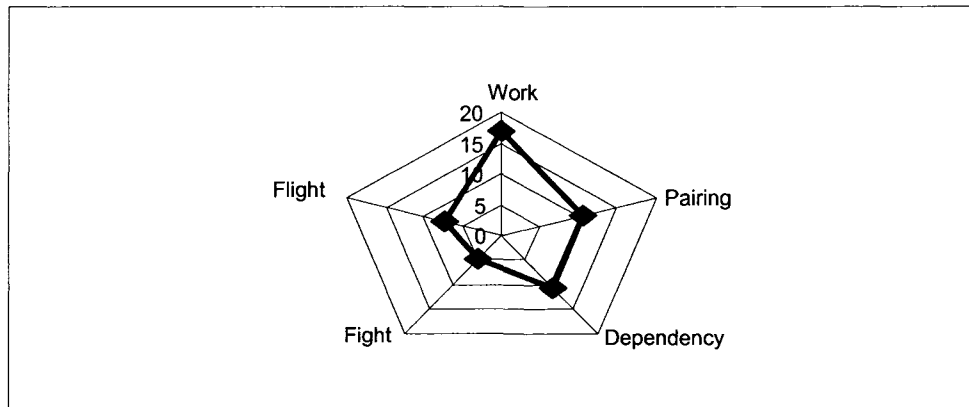


Figure 3. Administrator Group-as-a-Whole EW Variable Data Radar Chart

Table 4. Administrator Group-as-a-Whole Demographic Variable Summary

	Position					
	Dean	Vice President	President			
	62%	31%	7%			
	Yrs in Higher Education	Yrs at Current Institution	Yrs in Current Position	Age		
Mean	21.3	13.8	5.2	53.1		
Mode	25	7	5	56		
Median	22	11	5	55		
Stddev	8.6	8.8	3.6	6.6		
	Gender					
	Female	Male				
	68%	32%				
	Highest Education Attained					
	BS/BA	MS/MA	EdD	PhD	Other	
	6%	59%	11%	21%	3%	
	Race/Ethnicity					
	A/PI ^a	B/AA/nH ^b	H/L ^c	NA ^d	W/C/nH ^e	MR/O ^f
	1%	9%	0%	1%	89%	0%
	Social Class of Origin					
	Lower	Middle	Upper			
	26%	71%	3%			
	ELT Membership					
	Yes	No				
	56%	44%				

Notes: ^aA/PI: Asian/Pacific Islander. ^bB/AA/nH: Black/African American/nonHispanic. ^cH/L: Hispanic/Latino. ^dNA: Native American. ^eW/C/nH: White/Caucasian/nonHispanic. ^fMR/O: multi-race/other.

Table 5 provides a summary of the EW mean values for each specific demographic variable for the group-as-a-whole respondents. The EW predisposition generalization indicated that the variable work was the dominant predisposition followed by pairing and dependency (which were similar in score), flight, and fight. The dependency and pairing variables exhibited EW score distribution overlap of the second and third quartiles, which proved to consistently appear across all the demographic variables.

The group-as-a-whole EW scores were consistent with the individual positional titles (i.e., dean, vice president, and president). The rank order of the EW mean scores across the demographic variables was consistently work, pairing/dependency, flight, and fight. For gender, the male/female mean scores were similar. However, the males appeared to slightly favor dependency over pairing. For highest degree attained, the Ed.D. degree EW mean scores showed pairing, dependency, and flight as having similar scores. This interestingly indicates some confusion regarding group relevant personality traits as one would expect (per BAT) to see pairing, dependency, and flight in opposition to each other. For race/ethnicity, white/caucasian and black/African American variables dominated the administrator composition. Each of these adhered to the overall group-as-a-whole general EW variable rank. For social class of origin, there was nothing dissimilar from the group-as-a-whole, while noting that the data pool was small for the upper social class of origin. For ELT membership, those not on ELTs showed higher scores for pairing and dependency, which were also higher than that for the group-as-a-whole.

Table 5. Group-as-a-Whole EW Variable Mean Score Per Demographic Variable

Group-as-a-Whole		EW Variable Mean Score				
Demographic Variables		W ^a	P ^b	D ^c	F ^d	FL ^e
Position Title						
	<i>Group-as-a-Whole</i>	16.8	10.4	10.6	4.8	7.4
	Dean	17.0	10.6	10.7	4.4	7.3
	VP	16.5	10.2	10.0	5.7	7.6
	President	16.8	9.8	11.4	4.6	7.4
Gender						
	Male	16.5	10.2	11.6	4.7	7.0
	Female	17.2	10.6	10.2	4.6	7.5
Highest Degree						
	BA/BS	15.0	10.3	13.0	4.8	7.0
	MA/MS	17.1	10.7	10.3	4.8	7.2
	EdD	15.8	9.3	9.8	6.1	9.0
	PhD	16.9	10.2	11.1	4.3	7.5
	Other	17.0	9.0	10.5	4.5	9.0
Race/Ethnicity						
	Asian/Pacific Island	16.0	7.0	12.0	9.0	6.0
	Native American	20.0	11.0	9.0	3.0	7.0
	Black/African					
	American/nonHispanic	16.0	10.3	11.5	4.8	7.4
	Hispanic/Latino	*	*	*	*	*
	White/Caucasion/nonHispanic	16.8	10.0	10.7	5.1	7.5
	Multi-race/Other	*	*	*	*	*
Social Class of Origin						
	Low	17.0	10.4	11.4	4.6	6.6
	Middle	16.8	10.2	10.6	5.0	7.5
	Upper	15.8	9.3	8.3	7.3	9.5
ELT Membership						
	Yes	16.7	10.0	10.6	5.2	7.5
	No	17.6	11.1	11.1	3.5	6.8

Note: * No respondent data. ^aW: Work. ^bP: Pairing. ^cD: Dependency. ^dF: Fight. ^eFL: Flight.

Research Question Two

The second study question examined the differences in EW variable score data for the deans, vice presidents, and presidents relative to the specific demographic variables.

This included identifying the median, mode, mean, and standard deviation for each EW variable and using side-by-side box plots to illustrate the EW variables' distribution characteristics. Also, radar charts were prepared to illustrate the corresponding overall position EW mean score footprint relative to the specific EW mean score for each demographic variable. The following administrator position sections provide a summary of this information.

Dean

The overall dominant EW predisposition for deans was work as illustrated in Table 6 and Figure 4. The central tendency of the EW variable distributions for the deans that responded was nearly identical as indicated by the means, modes, and medians. Key EW score distribution overlap was exhibited by the pairing and dependency distribution second and third quartiles. Figure 5 illustrates the EW variable score radar chart footprint showing that fight and flight were in opposition to work, pairing, and dependency. Also, illustrated in Figure 5 is that the dean EW predisposition mean score footprint was similar to the administrator group-as-a-whole EW predisposition mean score footprint.

Table 7 summarizes the demographic variables associated with the deans responding in the study. The deans' time in higher education was significantly greater than the time in the current higher education administrator position and at the current institution. There were three times as many female deans than male deans. Masters degrees were the most commonly attained by the deans and their racial/ethnic make-up was predominantly white/caucasian/nonHispanic, which came from a middle social class of origin. The deans were not commonly members of an ELT.

Table 6. Dean Overall EW Variable Descriptive Statistics

Variable	Count	Mode	Mean	StDev	Min	Q1	Median	Q3	Max
Work	44	17	17.02	2.18	11.00	16.00	17.00	19.00	20.00
Pairing	44	11	10.59	1.51	7.00	10.00	11.00	11.00	14.00
Dependency	44	11	10.75	1.91	7.00	9.25	11.00	12.00	17.00
Fight	44	4	4.36	1.83	1.00	3.25	4.00	5.00	10.00
Flight	44	6	7.27	2.15	3.00	6.00	7.00	9.00	12.00

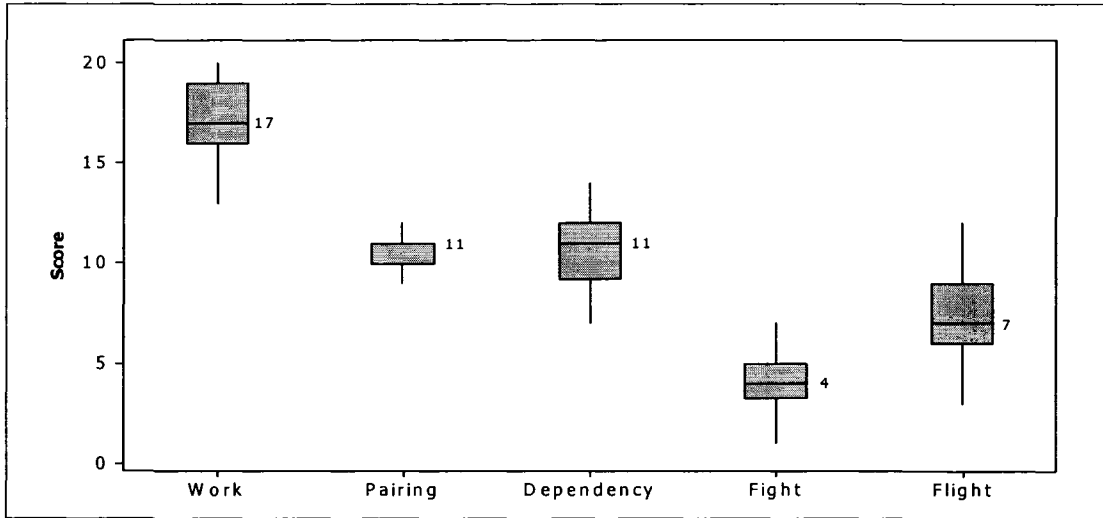


Figure 4. Dean Overall EW Variable Data Side-by-Side Box Plot

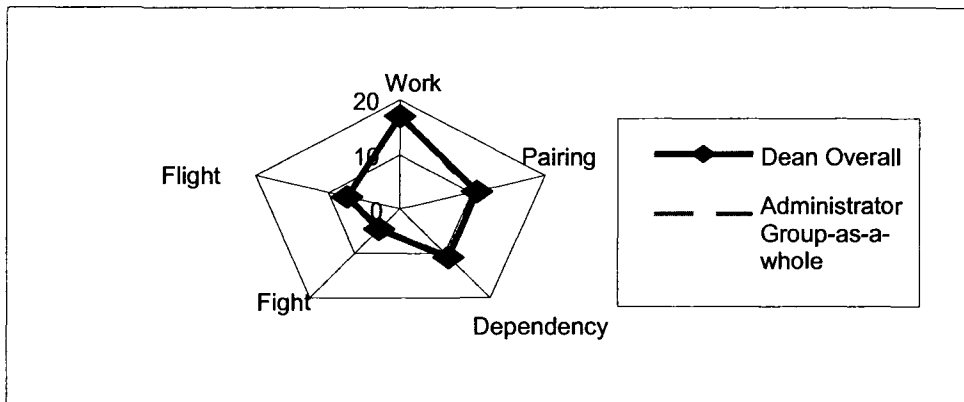


Figure 5. Dean Overall EW Variable Radar Chart

Table 7. Dean Overall Demographic Variable Summary

	Yrs in Higher Education	Yrs at Current Institution	Yrs in Current Position	Age		
Mean	20.1	12.9	4.7	53		
Mode	25	22	7	59		
Median	21	10.5	5	55		
Stddev	8	8.4	2.8	6.8		
Gender						
	Female	Male				
	73%	27%				
Highest Education Attained						
	BS/BA	MS/MA	EdD	PhD	Other	
	5%	74%	5%	14%	2%	
Race/Ethnicity						
	A/PI ^a	B/AA/nH ^b	H/L ^c	NA ^d	W/C/nH ^e	MR/O ^f
	0%	9%	0%	2%	89%	0%
Social Class of Origin						
	Lower	Middle	Upper			
	24%	71%	5%			
ELT Membership						
	Yes	No				
	36%	64%				

Notes: ^aA/PI: Asian/Pacific Islander. ^bB/AA/nH: Black/African American/nonHispanic. ^cH/L: Hispanic/Latino. ^dNA: Native American. ^eW/C/nH: White/Caucasion/nonHispanic. ^fMR/O: multi-race/other.

Table 8 provides a summary of the EW mean values for each specific demographic variable for respondents identifying themselves as deans. The EW predisposition generalization indicated that the variable work was the dominant predisposition followed by pairing and dependency (which were similar in score), flight, and fight. The dependency and pairing variables exhibited EW score distribution overlap of the second and third quartiles, but the small variability in the dependency distribution yielded a higher mean score.

Table 8. Dean EW Variable Mean Score Per Demographic Variable

Dean		EW Variable Mean Score				
Demographic Variables		W ^a	P ^b	D ^c	F ^d	FL ^e
Position Title						
	Group-as-a-Whole	16.8	10.4	10.6	4.8	7.4
	Dean	17	10.6	10.7	4.4	7.3
	VP	16.5	10.2	10	5.7	7.6
	President	16.8	9.8	11.4	4.6	7.4
Gender						
	Male	16.6	10.8	12	3.8	6.8
	Female	17.2	10.5	10.3	4.6	7.5
Highest Degree						
	BA/BS	13	11	14.5	4	7.5
	MA/MS	17.4	10.8	10.5	4.5	6.8
	EdD	16	9	9	5	11
	PhD	16.8	10.3	11.7	3.5	7.7
	Other	17	9	10.5	4.5	9
Race/Ethnicity						
	Asian/Pacific Island	*	*	*	*	*
	Native American	20	11	9	3	7
	Black/African					
	American/nonHispanic	18	11	11.5	4.3	5.3
	Hispanic/Latino	*	*	*	*	*
	White/Caucasion/nonHispanic	16.8	10.5	10.7	4.4	7.5
	Multi-race/Other	*	*	*	*	*
Social Class of Origin						
	Low	16	10.6	10.7	5.4	7.3
	Middle	17.3	10.7	10.8	4	7.2
	Upper	17.5	9.5	9.5	5.5	8
ELT Membership						
	Yes	17.2	10.3	10.7	4.7	7.2
	No	16.9	10.8	10.8	4.2	7.3

Note: * No respondent data. ^aW: Work. ^bP: Pairing. ^cD: Dependency. ^dF: Fight. ^eFL: Flight.

Vice President

The vice president overall dominant EW predisposition was work as indicated in Table 9 and Figure 6. The pairing and dependency distributions were nearly identical. The fight and flight distributions showed the lowest scores and the most variability while

overlapping each other. Figure 7 illustrates the vice president EW mean score footprint was the same as the administrator group-as-a-whole EW mean score predisposition footprint.

Table 10 provides a summary of the demographic variables associated with the vice president administrator overall EW predisposition data. The vice presidents' time in their current position was markedly less than their time in higher education and time at their current institution. There were twice as many female vice presidents than male vice presidents. The most common degree for vice presidents was the MS/MA. The percentages of vice presidents having an EdD or PhD degree were similar. The vice president administrator racial/ethnic make-up was predominantly white/caucasian/nonHispanic, which came from a middle social class of origin. Approximately eight-five percent the vice presidents responding in this study were members of an ELT.

Table 9. Vice President Overall EW Variable Descriptive Statistics

Variable	Count	Mode	Mean	StDev	Min	Q1	Median	Q3	Max
Work	22	16	16.50	1.92	13.00	16.00	16.00	18.00	20.00
Pairing	22	9	10.18	1.99	7.00	9.00	10.00	11.25	14.00
Dependency	22	10	10.00	2.13	5.00	9.00	10.00	11.25	13.00
Fight	22	8	5.72	2.60	2.00	4.00	5.00	8.00	10.00
Flight	22	7	7.59	2.36	3.00	6.00	7.00	10.00	12.00

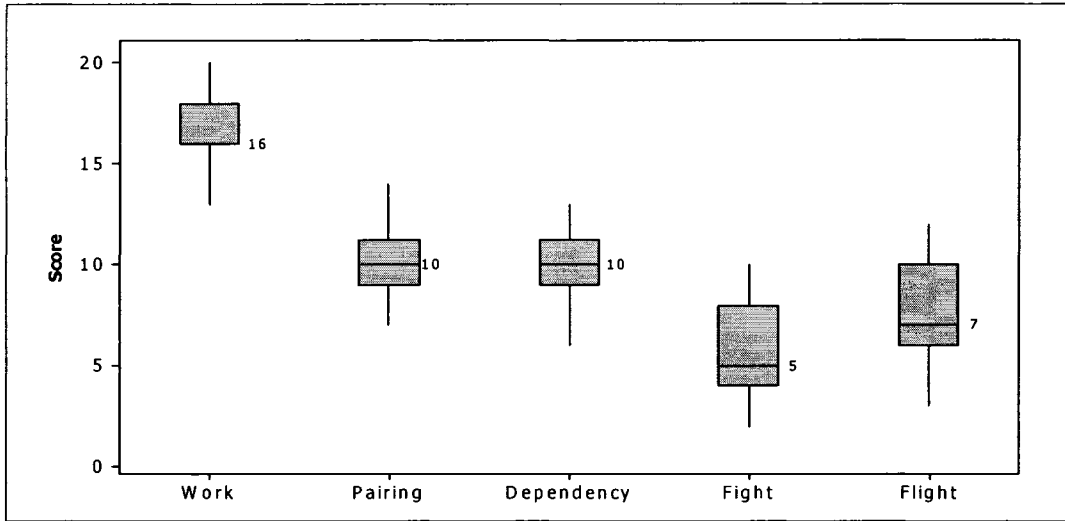


Figure 6. VP Overall EW Variable Side-by-Side Box Plots

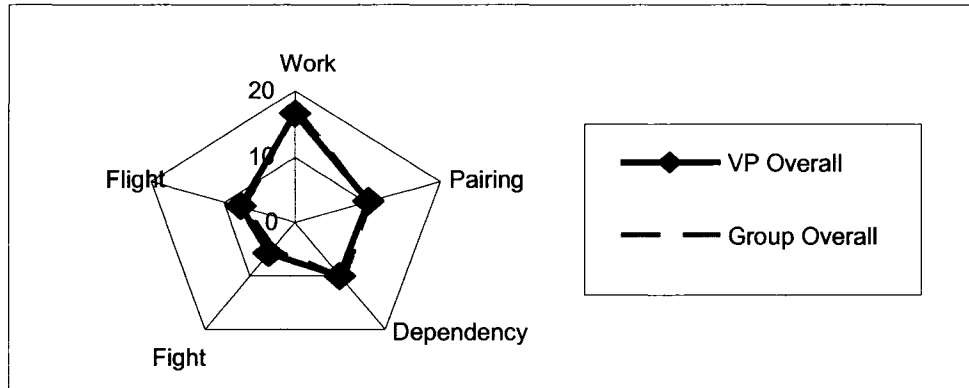


Figure 7. VP Overall EW Variable Mean Score Radar Chart

Table 10. Vice President Overall Demographic Variable Summary

	Yrs in Higher Education	Yrs at Current Institution	Yrs in Current Position	Age		
Mean	21.5	14.7	5.7	52.1		
Mode	28	5	5	56		
Median	23	12.5	5	51		
Stddev	8.9	9.1	4.8	5.8		
Gender						
	Female	Male				
	64%	36%				
Highest Education Attained						
	BS/BA	MS/MA	EdD	PhD		
	9%	45%	18%	27%		
Race/Ethnicity						
	A/PI ^a	B/AA/nH ^b	H/L ^c	NA ^d	W/C/nH ^e	MR/O ^f
	5%	5%	0%	0%	90%	0%
Social Class of Origin						
	Lower	Middle	Upper			
	27%	68%	5%			
ELT Membership						
	Yes	No				
	86%	14%				

Notes: ^aA/PI: Asian/Pacific Islander. ^bB/AA/nH: Black/African American/nonHispanic. ^cH/L: Hispanic/Latino. ^dNA: Native American. ^eW/C/nH: White/Caucasion/nonHispanic. ^fMR/O: multi-race/other.

Table 11 provides a summary of the EW mean values for each demographic variable. The EW predisposition generalization indicated that the work variable was the dominant predisposition followed by pairing and dependency (which were similar in score), flight, and fight. The dependency and pairing variables exhibited identical distribution overlap of the second and third quartiles.

Table 11. Vice President EW Variables' Mean Scores Per Demographic Variables

Vice President		EW Variable Means				
Demographic Variables		W ^a	P ^b	D ^c	F ^d	FL ^e
Position Title						
	Group-as-a-Whole	16.8	10.4	10.6	4.8	7.4
	Dean	17	10.6	10.7	4.4	7.3
	VP	16.5	10.2	10	5.7	7.6
	President	16.8	9.8	11.4	4.6	7.4
Gender						
	Male	17.4	11.1	11.1	4.3	6.1
	Female	16	9.7	9.4	6.6	8.4
Highest Degree						
	BA/BS	17	9.5	11.5	5.5	6.5
	MA/MS	16.7	10.5	10.1	5.1	7.6
	EdD	17	11	9.3	6.3	6.5
	PhD	15.7	9.3	9.8	6.5	8.7
	Other	*	*	*	*	*
Race/Ethnicity						
	Asian/Pacific Island	16	7	12	9	6
	Native American	*	*	*	*	*
	Black/African					
	American/nonHispanic	13	7	12	8	10
	Hispanic/Latino	*	*	*	*	*
	White/Caucasion/nonHispanic	16.7	10.5	9.8	5.5	7.6
	Multi-race/Other	*	*	*	*	*
Social Class of Origin						
	Low	17	10.7	10.5	4.3	7.5
	Middle	16.5	10.1	10	6.1	7.4
	Upper	14	9	7	9	11
ELT Membership						
	Yes	16.2	10	9.8	6.2	7.8
	No	18.3	11.3	11.3	2.7	6.3

Note: * No respondent data. ^aW: Work. ^bP: Pairing. ^cD: Dependency. ^dF: Fight. ^eFL: Flight.

President

For the president overall, work was identified as the dominant EW predisposition. Table 12 and Figure 8 show that the EW predisposition order was work, dependency, pairing, flight, and work. The smallest score distribution variability resided with the dependency variable. As with the dean and vice president overall EW data, flight and

fight were shown to be in opposition to work. Figure 9 illustrates that the president overall EW mean score footprint was similar to the administrator group-as-a-whole EW mean score footprint.

Table 13 provides a summary of the demographic variables associated with the president overall EW predisposition data. The average time in higher education was over thirty years and included over fifteen years at the current institution and the time in current position was less than ten years. The majority of presidents were male. All the presidents responding in this study held a doctorate degree with the majority having the PhD degree. The dominant majority administrator racial/ethnic make-up was white/caucasian/nonHispanic, which came from a middle social class of origin. All of the presidents were members of their institution's ELT.

Table 12. President Overall EW Variable Descriptive Statistics

Variable	Count	Mode	Mean	StDev	Min	Q1	Median	Q3	Max
Work	5	*	16.80	2.59	13.00	14.50	17.00	19.00	20.00
Pairing	5	10	9.80	2.95	5.00	7.50	10.00	12.00	13.00
Dependency	5	11	11.4	1.140	10.00	10.50	11.00	12.50	13.00
Fight	5	*	4.60	2.41	2.00	2.50	4.00	7.00	8.00
Flight	5	*	7.40	2.30	5.00	5.50	7.00	9.50	11.00

Note: * No modal value.

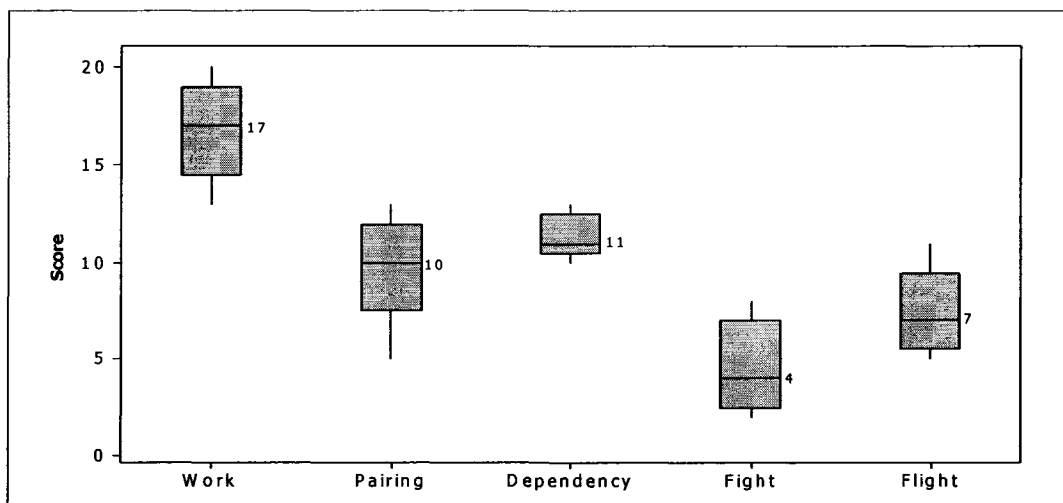


Figure 8. President Overall EW Variable Side-by-Side Box Plots

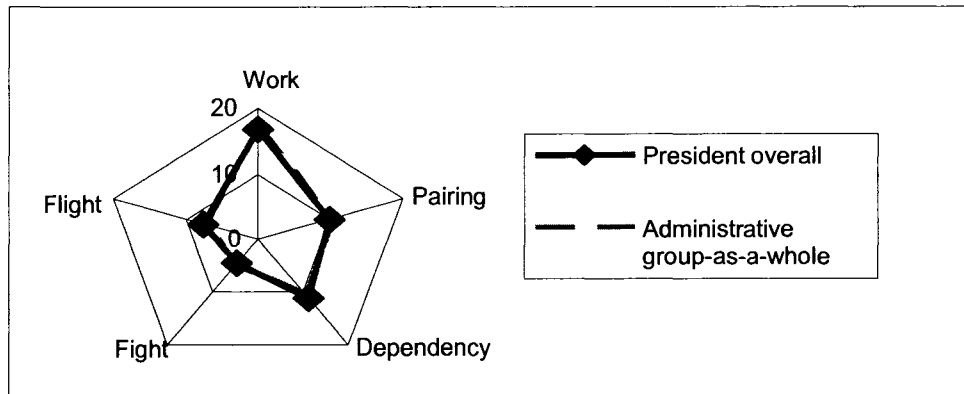


Figure 9. President Overall EW Variable Mean Score Radar Chart

Table 13. President Overall Demographic Variable Summary

	Yrs in Higher Education	Yrs at Current Institution	Yrs in Current Position	Age		
Mean	30.8	17.2	7.4	57.8		
Mode	*	*	7	*		
Median	33	19	7	60		
Stddev	6.8	12.1	3.5	6.9		
Gender						
	Female	Male				
	40%	60%				
Highest Education Attained						
	BS/BA	MS/MA	EdD	PhD	Other	
	0%	0%	40%	60%	0%	
Race/Ethnicity						
	A/PI ^a	B/AA/nH ^b	H/L ^c	NA ^d	W/C/nH ^e	MR/O ^f
	0%	20%	0%	0%	80%	0%
Social Class of Origin						
	Lower	Middle	Upper			
	20%	80%	0%			
ELT Membership						
	Yes	No				
	100%	0%				

Notes: ^aA/PI: Asian/Pacific Islander. ^bB/AA/nH: Black/African American/nonHispanic. ^cH/L: Hispanic/Latino. ^dNA: Native American. ^eW/C/nH: White/Caucasion/nonHispanic. ^fMR/O: multi-race/other. * No modal value.

Table 14 provides a summary of the EW mean values for each demographic variable. The EW predisposition generalization indicated that the work variable was consistently the dominant predisposition followed by dependency, pairing, flight, and

fight. The dependency and pairing variables score distributions overlapped their respective second and third quartiles, but the small variability in the dependency EW score distribution yielded a higher mean score.

Table 14. President EW Variables' Mean Scores Per Demographic Variables

President		EW Variable Means				
Demographic Variables		W ^a	P ^b	D ^c	F ^d	FL ^e
Position Title						
	Group-as-a-Whole	16.8	10.4	10.6	4.8	7.4
	Dean	17	10.6	10.7	4.4	7.3
	VP	16.5	10.2	10	5.7	7.6
	President	16.8	9.8	11.4	4.6	7.4
Gender						
	Male	15.6	8.7	11.7	6	8
	Female	18.5	11.5	11	2.5	6.5
Highest Degree						
	BA/BS	*	*	*	*	*
	MA/MS	*	*	*	*	*
	EdD	14.5	8	11	7	9.5
	PhD	18.3	11	11.7	3	6
	Other	*	*	*	*	*
Race/Ethnicity						
	Asian/Pacific Island	*	*	*	*	*
	Native American	*	*	*	*	*
	Black/African					
	American/nonHispanic	17	13	11	2	7
	Hispanic/Latino	*	*	*	*	*
	White/Caucasion/nonHispanic	16.8	9	11.5	5.3	7.5
	Multi-race/Other	*	*	*	*	*
Social Class of Origin						
	Low	18	10	13	4	5
	Middle	16.5	9.8	11	4.8	8
	Upper	*	*	*	*	*
ELT Membership						
	Yes	16.8	9.8	11.4	4.6	7.4
	No	*	*	*	*	*

Note: * No respondent data. ^aW: Work. ^bP: Pairing. ^cD: Dependency. ^dF: Fight. ^eFL: Flight.

Research Question Three

To answer study question three the EW variables were examined for the administrator group-as-a-whole and demographic variable relationships. The EW variable score data was used to calculate Pearson linear correlation coefficients (for relationships having at least five data points), which identified the linear associational direction between the EW variables. In keeping with Thelen's (Thelen et al., 1969) approach to focus on EW variable association direction (i.e., negative, positive, or null) this enabled identifying the relationships existing between the EW variables relative to that expected per BAT (Bion, 1961). The associational strength categorization was in accordance with Cohen's (1988) suggested scale.

Table 15 provides the associations for the EW variables for the administrator group-as-a-whole. As indicated, work was positively associated with pairing and negatively associated with dependency, fight, and flight. Pairing was negatively associated with dependency, fight, and flight. Dependency was negatively associated with fight and flight. Fight was positively associated with flight. The associations between fight and flight and work, pairing, and dependency were all shown to be moderate. The inter associations between work, pairing, and dependency were shown to be small. The association between fight and flight was insubstantial.

Table 15. Administrator Group-as-a-Whole Overall EW Variable Association Matrix

	Work	Pairing	Dependency	Fight
Pairing	.13			
Dependency	-.19	-.1		
Fight	-.4	-.42	-.35	
Flight	-.49	-.41	-.27	.05

Notes: Large Association >.5. Moderate Association .5 to .3. Small Association .3 to .1. Insubstantial Association <.1 (i.e., null).

Table 16 provides the associations for the administrator group-as-a-whole EW variables versus the demographic variables age, time in higher education, time in current position, and time in current position. The work variable was negatively associated with years in higher education, current position, and age and positively associated with years at current institution. The pairing variable was negatively associated with years in higher education, at current institution, and age, and was positively associated with years in current position. The dependency variable was negatively associated with years at current institution and years in current position, and was positively associated with years in higher education and age. The fight and flight variables were both positively associated with years in higher education, years at current institution, years in current position, and age. Regarding association strength, all associations were categorized as small to insubstantial.

Table 16. Administrator Group-as-a-Whole EW Variable versus Time Associations

	Work	Pairing	Dependency	Fight	Flight
Years in higher education	-.13	-.13	.05	.19	.01
Years at current institution	.04	-.22	-.08	.17	.02
Years in current position	-.01	.01	-.08	.05	.02
Age	-.19	-.08	.06	.01	.11

Notes: Large Association $>.5$. Moderate Association $.5$ to $.3$. Small Association $.3$ to $.1$. Insubstantial Association $<.1$ (i.e., null).

Tables 17, 18, 19, 20, and 21 provide an overview of the EW variable associations relative to each demographic variable relative to the administrator group-as-a-whole. Overall, the majority of associational patterns between the EW variables for each demographic variable were directionally consistent with administrator group-as-a-whole EW variable associations. Work was negatively associated fight and flight for all demographic variables. Work was mostly positively associated with pairing and mostly

negatively associated with dependency. Associational differences were shown for the position title variable relative to work, pairing, and dependency. Pairing was shown to be mostly negatively associated with dependency, fight, and flight. Dependency was shown to be mostly negatively associated with fight and flight. Fight and flight were shown to be positively associated.

In Chapter Two, discussed was Thelen's (1969) research that highlighted the key positive association between team effectiveness and the work variable. Accordingly, Table 17 highlights several noteworthy work variable association strengths relative to demographic variables, which included that for the vice president, black/African-American/nonHispanic, and ELT membership/yes. For vice president, the work variable was shown to be strongly positively associated with pairing, strongly negatively associated with fight and flight, and moderately positively associated with dependency. For black/African-American/nonHispanic, work was shown to be strongly positively associated with pairing and strongly negatively associated with dependency, fight, and flight. For ELT membership/yes, work was shown to be moderately positively associated with pairing, strongly associated with fight and flight, and insubstantially negatively associated with dependency. For the most part, the associations between work and the fight and flight variables were negatively large to moderate, indicating their general opposition.

Table 17. EW Variable Associations: Work

Demographic Variables		EW Variable Association				
		EW Variable	P ^a	D ^b	F ^c	FL ^d
Position Title						
	Group-as-a-Whole	W ^e	.13	-.19	-.4	-.49
	Dean	W ^e	-.13	-.4	-.24	-.36
	VP	W ^e	.62	.14	-.62	-.78
	President	W ^e	.03	-.05	-.58	-.53
Gender						
	Male	W ^e	.23	-.59	-.31	-.43
	Female	W ^e	.07	.0	-.45	-.55
Highest Degree						
	BA/S	W ^e	*	*	*	*
	MA/S	W ^e	.35	-.15	-.43	-.57
	EdD	W ^e	.04	-.48	.04	-.27
	PhD	W ^e	-.22	.37	-.51	-.74
	Other	W ^e	*	*	*	*
Race/Ethnicity						
	Asian/Pacific Island	W ^e	*	*	*	*
	Native American	W ^e	*	*	*	*
	Black/African					
	American/nonHispanic	W ^e	.77	-.51	-.75	-.85
	Hispanic/Latino	W ^e	*	*	*	*
	White/Caucasion/ nonHispanic	W ^e	.03	-.15	-.36	-.47
	Multi-race/Other	W ^e	*	*	*	*
Social Class of Origin						
	Low	W ^e	.23	-.17	-.34	-.67
	Middle	W ^e	.08	-.24	-.41	-.41
	Upper	W ^e	*	*	*	*
ELT Membership						
	Yes	W ^e	.4	-.08	-.52	-.62
	No	W ^e	-.23	-.35	-.24	-.35

Notes: *Less than 5 data points, no association calculated. Large Association >.5. Moderate Association .5 to .3. Small Association .3 to .1. Insubstantial Association <.1(i.e., null). ^aP: Pairing. ^bD: Dependency. ^cF: Fight. ^dFL: Flight. ^eW: Work.

From Table 18, noteworthy pairing association strengths relative to demographic variables included that for the vice president, black/African-American/nonHispanic, and ELT membership. For vice president, pairing was shown to be strongly positively associated with work, strongly negatively associated with fight and flight, and moderately negatively associated with dependency. For black/African-American/nonHispanic, pairing was shown to be strongly positively associated with pairing and strongly negatively associated with dependency, fight, and flight. For ELT membership/yes, work shown to be moderately positively associated with pairing, strongly associated with fight and flight, and insubstantially negatively associated with dependency. For the most part, the associations between pairing and the fight and flight variables were large to moderate, indicating their general opposition.

From Table 19, noteworthy dependency association strengths relative to demographic variables included that for the vice president, president, black/African-American/nonHispanic, and ELT membership. For vice president, dependency was shown to be moderately positively associated with work, moderately negatively associated with pairing, fight, and flight. For black/African-American/nonHispanic, dependency was shown to be strongly negatively associated with work and pairing, and moderately positively associated with fight and flight. For ELT membership, dependency shown to be moderately negatively associated with fight and flight, and small to insubstantially negatively associated with pairing and work, respectively. Note that the president associations were large, but the data pool was small (i.e., $n = 5$). For the most part, the associations between dependency and the fight and flight variables were moderate to small, indicating their general opposition.

Table 20 illustrates the flight variable association strengths relative to the demographic variables. Overall, flight was shown to have a strong to moderate negative association with work, pairing, and dependency. Also, for the most part, flight had a small to insubstantial positive association with flight.

Table 21 illustrates the flight variable association strengths relative to demographic variables. Overall, flight was shown to have a strong to moderate negative association with work and pairing, moderate to small negatively association with dependency, and a small top. Also, for the most part, flight had a small to insubstantial positive association with flight.

Table 18. EW Variable Associations: Pairing

Demographic Variables	EW Variable Association				
	EW Variable	W ^a	D ^b	F ^c	FL ^d
Position Title					
Group-as-a-Whole	P ^e	.13	-.1	-.42	-.41
Dean	P ^e	-.13	-.09	-.14	-.37
VP	P ^e	.62	-.26	-.64	-.41
President	P ^e	.03	.48	-.82	-.69
Gender					
Male	P ^e	.23	-.23	-.69	-.5
Female	P ^e	.07	-.1	-.3	-.34
Highest Degree					
BA/S	P ^e	*	*	*	*
MA/S	P ^e	.35	-.22	-.43	-.45
EdD	P ^e	.04	-.21	-.19	-.76
PhD	P ^e	-.22	.03	-.5	.11
Other	P ^e	*	*	*	*
Race/Ethnicity					
Asian/Pacific Island	P ^e	*	*	*	*
Native American	P ^e	*	*	*	*
Black/African					
American/nonHispanic	P ^e	.77	-.7	-.77	-.72
Hispanic/Latino	P ^e	*	*	*	*
White/Caucasion/nonHispanic	P ^e	.03	-.01	-.35	-.44
Multi-race/Other	P ^e	*	*	*	*
Social Class of Origin					
Low	P ^e	.23	-.38	-.46	-.32
Middle	P ^e	.08	-.06	-.42	-.44
Upper	P ^e	*	*	*	*
ELT Membership					
Yes	P ^e	.4	-.15	-.54	-.51
No	P ^e	-.23	-.11	-.12	-.26

Notes: *Less than 5 data points, no association calculated. Large Association >.5. Moderate Association .5 to .3. Small Association .3 to .1. Insubstantial Association <.1(i.e., null). ^aW: Work. ^bD: Dependency. ^cF: Fight. ^dFL: Flight. ^eP: Pairing.

Table 19. EW Variable Associations: Dependency

Demographic Variables	EW Variable	EW Variable Association			
		W ^a	P ^b	F ^c	FL ^d
Position Title					
Group-as-a-Whole	D ^e	-.19	-.1	-.35	-.27
Dean	D ^e	-.4	-.09	-.29	-.18
VP	D ^e	.14	-.26	-.39	-.38
President	D ^e	-.59	.48	-.29	-.74
Gender					
Male	D ^e	-.59	-.23	.12	-.14
Female	D ^e	.0	-.1	-.48	-.23
Highest Degree					
BA/S	D ^e	*	*	*	*
MA/S	D ^e	-.15	-.22	-.34	-.17
EdD	D ^e	-.48	-.21	-.6	-.02
PhD	D ^e	.37	.03	-.49	-.68
Other	D ^e	*	*	*	*
Race/Ethnicity					
Asian/Pacific Island	D ^e	*	*	*	*
Native American	D ^e	*	*	*	*
Black/African					
American/nonHispanic	D ^e	-.51	-.7	.29	.28
Hispanic/Latino	D ^e	*	*	*	*
White/Caucasion					
/nonHispanic	D ^e	-.15	-.01	-.44	-.29
Multi-race/Other	D ^e	*	*	*	*
Social Class of Origin					
Low	D ^e	-.17	-.38	-.13	-.09
Middle	D ^e	-.24	-.06	-.35	-.29
Upper	D ^e	*	*	*	*
ELT Membership					
Yes	D ^e	-.08	-.15	-.4	-.31
No	D ^e	-.35	-.11	-.22	-.2

Notes: *Less than 5 data points, no association calculated. Large Association >.5. Moderate Association .5 to .3. Small Association .3 to .1. Insubstantial Association <.1(i.e., null). ^aW: Work. ^bP: Pairing. ^cF: Fight. ^dFL: Flight. ^eD: Dependency

Table 20. EW Variable Associations: Fight

Demographic Variables	EW Variable	EW Variable Association			
		W ^a	P ^b	D ^c	FL ^d
Position Title					
Group-as-a-Whole	F ^e	-.4	-.42	-.35	.05
Dean	F ^e	-.24	-.14	-.29	-.26
VP	F ^e	-.62	-.64	-.39	.29
President	F ^e	-.58	-.82	-.29	.8
Gender					
Male	F ^e	-.31	-.69	.12	.1
Female	F ^e	-.45	-.3	-.48	-.01
Highest Degree					
BA/S	F ^e	*	*	*	*
MA/S	F ^e	-.43	-.43	-.34	-.01
EdD	F ^e	-.04	-.19	-.6	.02
PhD	F ^e	-.51	-.5	-.49	.25
Other	F ^e	*	*	*	*
Race/Ethnicity					
Asian/Pacific Island	F ^e	*	*	*	*
Native American	F ^e	*	*	*	*
Black/African					
American/nonHispanic	F ^e	-.75	-.77	.29	.28
Hispanic/Latino	F ^e	*	*	*	*
White/Caucasion/nonHispanic	F ^e	-.36	-.35	-.44	.03
Multi-race/Other	F ^e	*	*	*	*
Social Class of Origin					
Low	F ^e	-.34	-.46	-.13	-.1
Middle	F ^e	-.41	-.42	-.35	.09
Upper	F ^e	*	*	*	*
ELT Membership					
Yes	F ^e	-.52	-.54	-.4	.27
No	F ^e	-.24	-.12	-.22	-.31

Notes: *Less than 5 data points, no association calculated. Large Association >.5. Moderate Association .5 to .3. Small Association .3 to .1. Insubstantial Association <.1(i.e., null). ^aW: Work. ^bP: Pairing. ^cD: Dependency. ^dFL: Flight. ^eF: Fight.

Table 21. EW Variable Associations: Flight

Demographic Variables	EW Variable	EW Variable Association			
		W ^a	P ^b	D ^c	F ^d
Position Title					
Group-as-a-Whole	FL ^e	-.49	-.41	-.27	.05
Dean	FL ^e	-.36	-.37	-.18	-.26
VP	FL ^e	-.78	-.41	-.38	.29
President	FL ^e	-.53	-.69	-.74	.8
Gender					
Male	FL ^e	-.43	-.5	-.14	.1
Female	FL ^e	-.55	-.34	-.23	-.01
Highest Degree					
BA/S	FL ^e	*	*	*	*
MA/S	FL ^e	-.57	-.45	-.17	-.01
EdD	FL ^e	-.27	-.76	.02	.02
PhD	FL ^e	-.74	.11	-.68	.25
Other	FL ^e	*	*	*	*
Race/Ethnicity					
Asian/Pacific Island	FL ^e	*	*	*	*
Native American	FL ^e	*	*	*	*
Black/African					
American/nonHispanic	FL ^e	-.85	-.72	.28	.58
Hispanic/Latino	FL ^e	*	*	*	*
White/Caucasion/nonHispanic	FL ^e	-.47	-.41	-.29	.03
Multi-race/Other	FL ^e	*	*	*	*
Social Class of Origin					
Low	FL ^e	-.67	-.32	-.09	-.1
Middle	FL ^e	-.41	-.44	-.29	.09
Upper	FL ^e	*	*	*	*
ELT Membership					
Yes	FL ^e	-.62	-.51	-.31	.27
No	FL ^e	-.35	-.26	-.2	-.31

Notes: *Less than 5 data points, no association calculated. Large Association >.5. Moderate Association .5 to .3. Small Association .3 to .1. Insubstantial Correlation <.1(i.e., null). ^aW: Work. ^bP: Pairing. ^cD: Dependency. ^dF: Fight. ^eFL: Flight.

The EW variable associations presented in Tables 17, 18, 19, 20, 21 provide additional insight when viewed relative to EW variable individual predisposition scores. As discussed earlier in this chapter, in answering my study's questions one and two, the work variable consistently scored highest with the administrators responding to my study. Assuming that a team-relevant trait, or EW predisposition, to do work is good for team

effectiveness (Thelen, 1969), Table 17 provided insight to an ELT candidate's demographic characteristics that may benefit ELT composition. For example, Table 17 indicates that the individual administrator predisposition to do work increased as the predisposition for pairing increased. This was the case with the community college administrators regardless of gender, race/ethnicity, and social class of origin. This was not the case for deans, administrators with a PhD, or administrators that were not currently members of an ELT. Based on this, one could state that an effective ELT's composition was not dependent on member gender, race/ethnicity, or social class of origin. Depending on the specific ELT task at hand, the tables could serve as guides for selecting candidate team members.

RGST EW Stimulus/Response Summary

As the data collection tool for answering the study questions, the RGST was used for discovery regarding community college administrators' preference for EW-based team-relevant behavioral traits. The EW score data served to answer the study questions defined. However, beyond scoring EW predispositions, as discussed in Chapter Two, the RGST design reflected several key features regarding the team situations and the response selections presented.

Each of the RGST's fifty items consisted of an incomplete sentence describing a team situation (the stimulus) and two sentence completion alternatives (the response). Each stimulus was oriented to a specific EW variable (i.e., work, pairing, dependency, fight, or flight) and a person to identify with (i.e., self, other, or group). Each alternative response was oriented to a specific EW variable (i.e., work, pairing, dependency, fight, or flight) and person to identify with (i.e., self, other, or group). Taking advantage of all the

RGST's design features, it becomes possible to gain additional insight regarding the administrators' reaction to the stimuli and selection of responses by looking at the EW variable and group orientation basis of both the stimuli and corresponding responses.

A respondent's selection of an EW variable-based response that was the same as the stimulus presented in the incomplete sentence indicated a preference to continue to operate within, or maintain, the EW behavioral mode presented in the stimulus. Likewise, a respondent's selection of an EW variable-based response that was different than the stimulus presented indicated that the respondent rejected, blocked, or preferred to operate in another EW behavioral mode (Thelen, 2000).

Table 22 shows that when the team situation stimulus was presented in terms of the self, the dominant EW variable responses were pairing and dependency. There was no response for the work variable, which could indicate that it was universally rejected as a team-relevant response for stimulus situations oriented to the self. For team situations presented in terms of another person, the EW variable responses were more evenly dominated by pairing, dependency, and work. When the team situations were presented in terms of the team-as-a-whole, the dominant EW variable response was clearly work.

Table 22. EW Variable Responses Relative to Stimulus Orientation

	Stimulus-Orientation		
	Self	Other	Group
Pairing	43%	27%	8%
Dependency	31%	24%	14%
Fight	14%	9%	10%
Flight	12%	13%	14%
Work	0%	28%	53%

Table 23 shows that when the team situation responses were in terms of the self, the EW variable responses were evenly dominated by pairing, dependency, and work. For

team situation responses in terms of another person, the EW variable responses were slightly dominated by work. However, when the team situation responses were in terms of the team-as-a-whole, the dominant EW variable responses were pairing and work, with dependency being clearly rejected.

Table 23. EW Variable Responses Relative to Response Orientation

	Response-Orientation		
	Self	Other	Group
Pairing	25%	16%	47%
Dependency	23%	21%	0%
Fight	11%	8%	8%
Flight	15%	16%	3%
Work	26%	39%	42%

Table 24 shows that when the EW variable stimulus was work, the dominant EW variable response was work. However, the only EW variable operating mode appearing to be rejected in all cases, except for flight, was fight. When the EW variable stimulus was fight, the EW variable response was evenly reflected as pairing, work, dependency, and flight. Finally, when the EW variable stimulus was flight, the dominant EW variable response was work, followed by a relatively even dispersion of EW variable response across fight, dependency, pairing, and flight.

Table 24. EW Variable Responses to EW Variable Stimulus

Response	Stimulus				
	Work	Dependency	Pairing	Fight	Flight
Pairing	26%	26%	21%	24%	16%
Dependency	21%	17%	28%	22%	18%
Fight	5%	10%	5%	9%	19%
Flight	15%	9%	12%	22%	15%
Work	33%	37%	34%	23%	32%

These stimulus and response features reflected the RGST's original design intent to represent "meaningful group situations" and to facilitate the respondent's "free reaction to the response" (Thelen, 1954, p. 86). The RGST aimed to do this via the stimulus and response EW variable and group-orientation basis. In this study's context, the RGST was considered a valid instrument for sketching a picture of the community college administrator predisposition for EW behavior in a team situation.

Transition to EW Predisposition Profile

The data presented in this chapter provided insight into the EW predispositions of community college administrators. The data identified EW score characteristics and EW associations relative to the administrator demographics, which formed the basis for developing the administrator EW profiles presented in Chapter Five.

As discussed in Chapter Three, the EW predisposition profiles were framed to reflect the EW variable score footprint, EW variable associational direction, demographic variable data, and a narrative description of the individual and team EW predisposition implications (per BAT). Bion's (1961) BAT stated that from the individual perspective a predisposition for pairing indicated a need to express warmth freely and to wish to establish close relationships. A predisposition for dependency indicated a need to rely on others or objects for support and direction. A predisposition for fight indicated a need to express hostility in the group. Finally, a predisposition for flight indicated a tendency to avoid, in some way, the team interactive situation.

Also, accepting that individual EW predispositions combine with others' in a team, as discussed in Chapter Two (Bion, 1961), the EW variable data predisposition implications were described in each administrator profile from the group-as-a-whole or

team perspective. A pairing predisposition described a team's preference for finding strength from within itself by exploring interrelationships among members, which may appear as "support for other team members, expressions of warmth, friendliness, or partiality for another team member or their ideas" (Thelen, 1954, p. 24). A dependency predisposition described a team's preference for striving to find support or direction from a leader or from some source external to itself, which may appear as "an expression of weakness or inadequacy" (Thelen, 1954, p. 24). A fight predisposition described a team's preference for avoiding some particular problem by attacking it, which may appear as "an expression of anger or hostility, critical assessment, resentfulness, or resistance" (Thelen, 1954, p. 23). Finally, a flight predisposition described a team's preference for avoiding some particular problem by withdrawing from it, which may appear as "passive withdrawal or daydreaming, an attempt to divert team from its task, talking off point, or expressing inappropriate humor" (Thelen, 1954, p. 25).

As shown as in this chapter, the dominant predisposition co-existing with the individual and team EW variables was the predisposition for doing work. The work variable represented the "consciously determined, deliberative, reality-bound, goal-seeking aspects of the group's activities" (Stock & Thelen, 1958, p. 13), which impacts team effectiveness. Work, in contrast to emotionality, is governed by rationality and task orientation rather than by emotions (Miller, 1998). The study intent was to use the data discussed in this chapter in making connections to BAT in the format of community college administrator EW predisposition profiles as presented in Chapter Five.

CHAPTER 5 DISCUSSION

This chapter provides discussion regarding the results reported in Chapter Four and the literature reviewed in Chapter Two. The following questions were examined in this study in the context of the community college.

1. What are higher education administrator EW predispositions for team behavior?
2. How are EW predispositions related to specific demographics?
3. How are EW predispositions associated with each other relative to demographics?

The study results indicated that the RGST was able to collect data regarding community college administrator preferences for team behavior relative to the EW concept defined by BAT (Bion, 1961) and advanced by Thelen (2000). The RGST was used to collect data for the emotionality variables (the predisposition for pairing, dependency, fight, and flight) and the work variable (the predisposition for undertaking and completing a cognitive task or goal).

The RGST stimulus/response summary data presented in the Chapter Four indicated that there was a community college administrator EW response to the RGST survey. That is, the RGST was able to measure community college administrator team behavior predispositions, which were consistent with Thelen and colleagues' evidence regarding the validity of the RGST to identify individual EW predispositions (as discussed in Chapter Two).

For this study, the RGST generated EW-based predisposition for team behavior data. The data collected indicated the RGST's ability to facilitate Illinois community college survey participant responses, which differed relative to the EW-basis (i.e., work, pairing, dependency, fight, or flight) and situation-orientation (i.e., self, other, or group) of the sentence stimulus and alternative responses presented.

Regarding the collected EW variable responses to EW variable stimuli, the data showed an EW variable response avoidance of fight and that, regardless of the stimulus EW-basis, the work variable seemed to be the dominant response. There did not appear to be a clear rejection or acceptance of any of the EW variables relative to each other. That is, the EW-basis of the stimulus situation did not necessarily show that the respondent accepted or rejected that EW operational mode for the given situation. Acceptance or rejection of the EW-basis of a stimulus was simply a reflection of the EW-basis of a response selected by the respondent. For example, an administrator's selection of a sentence completion response alternative that had the same EW orientation as the presented incomplete sentence stimulus indicated would indicate acceptance to continue with the EW operating mode presented by the stimulus.

The EW responses appeared to be more guided by the orientation of situation presented in terms of the self, other, or group. There appeared to be a greater preference for the work variable in conjunction with the team, or group, situation, which may indicate that in the community college culture (and higher education in general) teams are preferred by community college administrators.

In conjunction with the RGST survey activity, demographic data were collected regarding the RGST respondents' position title, age, gender, time in higher education,

time at current institution, time in current position, highest educational degree attained, race/ethnicity, social class of origin, and current ELT membership status. The EW predisposition data was analyzed relative to these demographic variables for identifying changes in respondent EW patterns.

The study collected information from higher education administrators (i.e., deans, vice presidents, and presidents) who were members of the Illinois Community College System. The resulting data were analyzed to identify relationships between the EW and demographic variables. These relationships were subsequently used to formulate community college administrator profiles delineating EW predisposition for team behavior. This study served its purpose in taking an initial step in the systematic examination of such individual predispositions by collecting and analyzing data that described the team behavior preferences for a select group of Illinois higher education administrators.

EW Predisposition Patterns and Trends

The study results indicated EW predisposition patterns and trends for the administrator group-as-a-whole, deans, vice presidents, and presidents. Overall, the data showed a generalized, common EW predisposition pattern across the dean, vice president, and president administrator groups. Figure 10 illustrates the administrator group-as-a-whole EW variable mean score footprint derived from this study's data. The radar chart illustrates that work was the dominant variable and in opposition to flight and fight. Also shown was that the pairing and dependency variable scores were similar.

In Chapter Two, I discussed studies testing the feasibility of defining group composition relative to individual EW predispositions. The overall EW predisposition

characteristics of the teams were determined based on individual team member EW predisposition scores derived from the RGST (Glidewell, 1958; Gradolph, 1958; Lieberman, 1958). Thelen and colleagues (Thelen et al., 1969; Thelen, 2000) found that teams with individuals having a dominant EW predisposition exhibited problem solving and emotionality characteristics that were consistent with BAT (Bion, 1961). That is, team behavior, and team effectiveness, was exhibited which was predictable based on the collective individual EW predispositions for team behavior. Fundamentally, those studies demonstrated that the concept of EW predisposition could be applied to team composition (Stock & Thelen, 1958). Likewise, this study's use of the RGST relative to Illinois community college administrators may indicate its potentially successful application for ELT member selection (i.e., ELT composition).

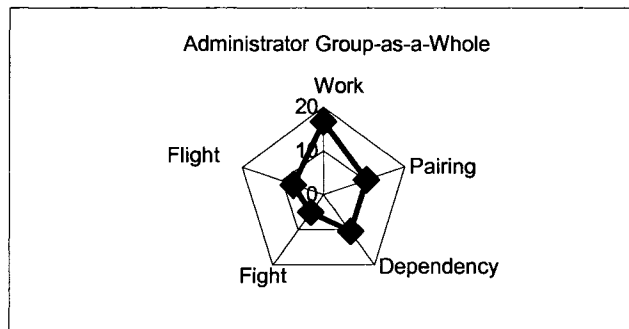


Figure 10. Administrator Group-as-a-Whole EW Variable Mean Score Radar Chart

Similar to Thelen's studies, my study found that in terms of associational values derived for the relationships among the EW variables, the directional sign of these associations were in accordance with Bion's "theoretical understanding of the EW variable relationships" from a purely positive or negative associational perspective (Bion, 1961, p. 160). The data suggested that fight and flight were associated positively; that

both fight and flight were in opposition to work, and that interpersonal closeness implied by pairing and dependency was actively in opposition to fight and flight.

Table 25 provides an overview of the administrator group-as-a-whole EW variable associations. The work variable showed a positive association with the pairing variable and a negative association with dependency, fight, and flight. The only other variables associating positively were fight and flight.

Table 25. Administrator Group-as-a-Whole Overall EW Variable Association

	Work	Pairing	Dependency	Fight
Pairing	+.13			
Dependency	-.19	-.1		
Fight	-.4	-.42	-.35	
Flight	-.49	-.41	-.27	+.05

Note: Large Association $>.5$. Moderate Association $.5$ to $.3$. Small Association $.3$ to $.1$. Insubstantial Correlation $<.1$ (i.e., null).

For comparative purposes, Table 26 provides an overview of EW variable associations typically found by Thelen (Thelen et al., 1969). Thelen et al's (1969) research project found the identical variable association directional pattern as that depicted in Table 25. That research project provided Thelen and colleagues' most extensive quantitative and hermeneutic-based published study based on the RGST's use and its ability to predict team effectiveness.

Table 26. Thelen Study Group-as-a-Whole EW Variable Association

	Work	Pairing	Dependency	Fight
Pairing	+.02			
Dependency	-.28	-.17		
Fight	-.31	-.44	-.39	
Flight	-.48	-.31	-.17	+.1

Note: Adapted from Thelen et al., 1969. . Large Association $>.5$. Moderate Association $.5$ to $.3$. Small Association $.3$ to $.1$. Insubstantial Correlation $<.1$ (i.e., null).

A logical step was to link my study's findings with the team effectiveness findings of Thelen regarding EW predispositions (Thelen et al., 1969). Thelen found that several EW variables associated negatively with team effectiveness in most situations. Based on the consistency of association patterns, he found that dependency was one of the more maladaptive emotionality variables, meaning that it appeared to have little influence on team effectiveness. This study found the dependency variable to consistently be represented by a score of similar magnitude to that of the pairing variable, which may indicate that in the community college situation the dependency EW team-relevant trait, in conjunction with pairing, may impact ELT effectiveness. However, as a response to a RGST sentence completion stimulus presented in terms of a team situation, the dependency variable was not commonly selected by the administrators. This appears to highlight a contradiction for the dependency variable. However, the data analysis may merely highlight the college administrator preference for a team EW culture that suppresses the dependency EW variable in favor of a pairing team EW culture.

The remainder of this section discusses the EW predisposition findings for the community college administrator group-as-a-whole relative to implied meaning per BAT (Thelen, 1954; Thelen et al, 1969). The information presented in Chapter Four formed the basis for this speculative discussion.

Administrator Group-as-a-Whole

The BAT EW-defined variable characteristics, discussed in Chapter Two (Bion, 1961), formed the basis for the speculative discussion that follows. For the administrator group-as-a-whole, work was the dominant EW predisposition, which may imply that

community college ELTs would be oriented to completing specific tasks. Fight was the weakest EW predisposition, which may imply a low ELT ability to deal with highly stressful situations and retain high team effectiveness. Pairing and dependency were similar in predisposition strength, which may imply that pairing would be a routine part of ELTs, but that ELTs remain dependent on the direction of a leader. That is, although ELT members may be inherently motivated to pair and work together, the ELTs may not have, or seek, a proactive decision making capability or empowerment to engage in independent decision-making.

Together, pairing and dependency appeared to be opposites of fight and flight, which again may imply an ELT pairing orientation, but dependent on the leader or someone to take charge. Flight was reflected by a low predisposition strength, which may imply a more serious orientation, and engagement, to ELT work and activity completion. Likewise, the low fight scoring may imply that there would be little resistance to the team and/or leader, and that there would be a team behavioral preference to wait for someone to provide explicit guidance or direction, or, simply, to go along with the group. This again may have some basis in the dependency variable scoring similar to that of the pairing variable. Finally, work opposed flight and fight, which may imply that flight and fight would not facilitate ELT effectiveness.

Team Behavior EW Predisposition Profile

Administrator EW predisposition profiles are provided in Tables 27, 28, 29, and 30. Each profile identifies the corresponding EW predisposition footprint and demographic characteristics. The profiles reflect a broad generalization of this study's results.

Table 27. Administrator Group-as-a-Whole

<div style="text-align: center; border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; margin-bottom: 10px;"> <p>Administrator Group-as-a-Whole</p> </div> <p>EW Predisposition: Work is dominant and in opposition to fight and flight. Pairing and dependency are equally preferred.</p> <p>Individual EW emphasis: Deliberative, rational, orientation to completing specific tasks. Look to pairing to develop intimate relationships in conjunction with a dependency on external authority.</p> <p>Team preferred EW operating mode: Focus on the consciously determined, deliberative, reality-bound, goal seeking aspects of the ELT's activities.</p> <p>Provide support for other team members through expressions of warmth, friendliness, or partiality for other team members or their ideas.</p> <p>Strive to find support or direction from a leader or some source external to itself, which may appear as an expression of weakness or inadequacy.</p> <p>EW Associations: (<i>positive, +; negative, -; null, 0</i>)</p> <table style="margin-left: auto; margin-right: auto; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td></td> <td style="text-align: center;"><i>W</i></td> <td style="text-align: center;"><i>P</i></td> <td style="text-align: center;"><i>D</i></td> <td style="text-align: center;"><i>F</i></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="text-align: right;"><i>P</i></td> <td style="text-align: center;">+</td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="text-align: right;"><i>D</i></td> <td style="text-align: center;">-</td> <td style="text-align: center;">-</td> <td></td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="text-align: right;"><i>F</i></td> <td style="text-align: center;">-</td> <td style="text-align: center;">-</td> <td style="text-align: center;">-</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="text-align: right;"><i>FL</i></td> <td style="text-align: center;">-</td> <td style="text-align: center;">-</td> <td style="text-align: center;">-</td> <td style="text-align: center;">+</td> </tr> </table>		<i>W</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>D</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>	+				<i>D</i>	-	-			<i>F</i>	-	-	-		<i>FL</i>	-	-	-	+	<p>Time in Higher Education: Over 50% have over 22 years. Overall distribution is slightly lognormal, negatively skewed to the left.</p> <p>Time at Current Institution: Over 50% have over 11 years. Overall distribution is slightly lognormal, positively skewed to the right.</p> <p>Time in Current Position: Over 50% have over 5 years. Overall distribution is normal.</p> <p>Age: Over 50% are over 55. Overall distribution is slightly lognormal, negatively skewed to the left.</p> <p>Gender: 66% are female, 33% male.</p> <p>Highest Degree Attained: 66% have MS/MA, 33% have doctorates (twice as many have PhDs).</p> <p>Race/Ethnicity: 90% are white, caucasian, nonHispanic. Other 10% majority are black, African American, nonHispanic.</p> <p>Social Class of Origin: 75% are from middle class, 25% are from lower class.</p> <p>ELT Membership: Slightly more than 50% are ELT members.</p>
	<i>W</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>D</i>	<i>F</i>																						
<i>P</i>	+																									
<i>D</i>	-	-																								
<i>F</i>	-	-	-																							
<i>FL</i>	-	-	-	+																						

Table 28. Dean EW Predisposition Profile

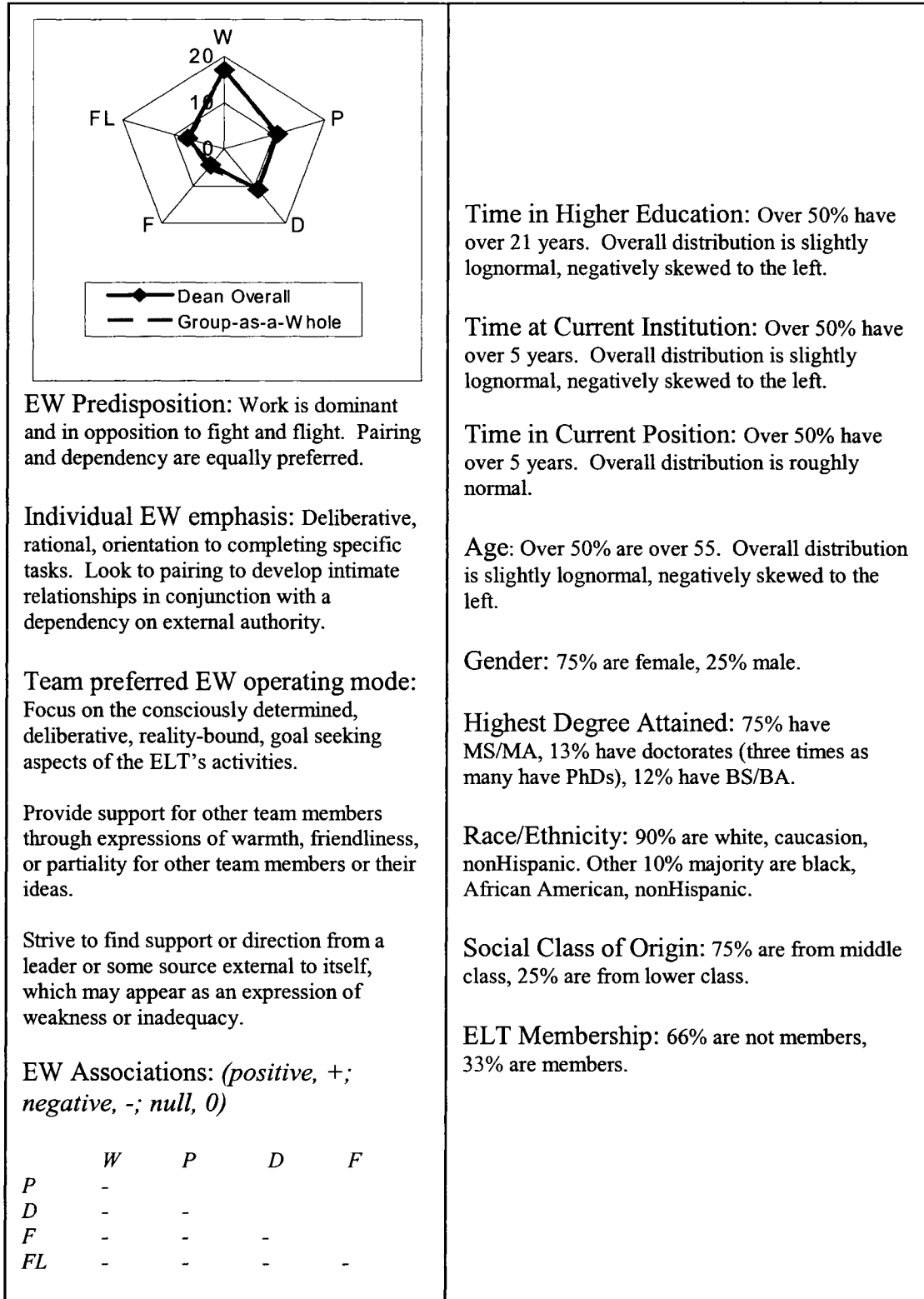


Table 29. Vice President EW Predisposition Profile

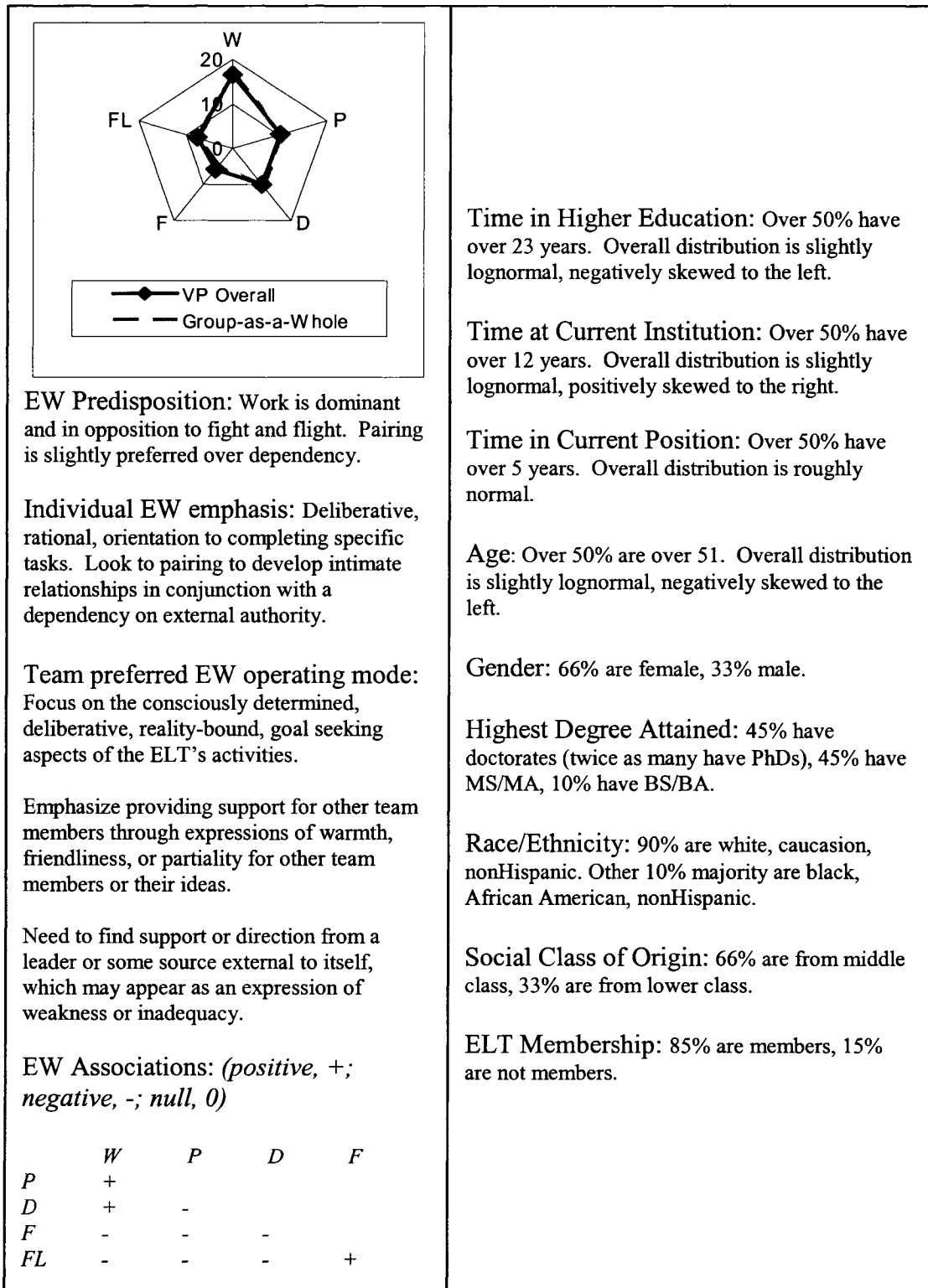
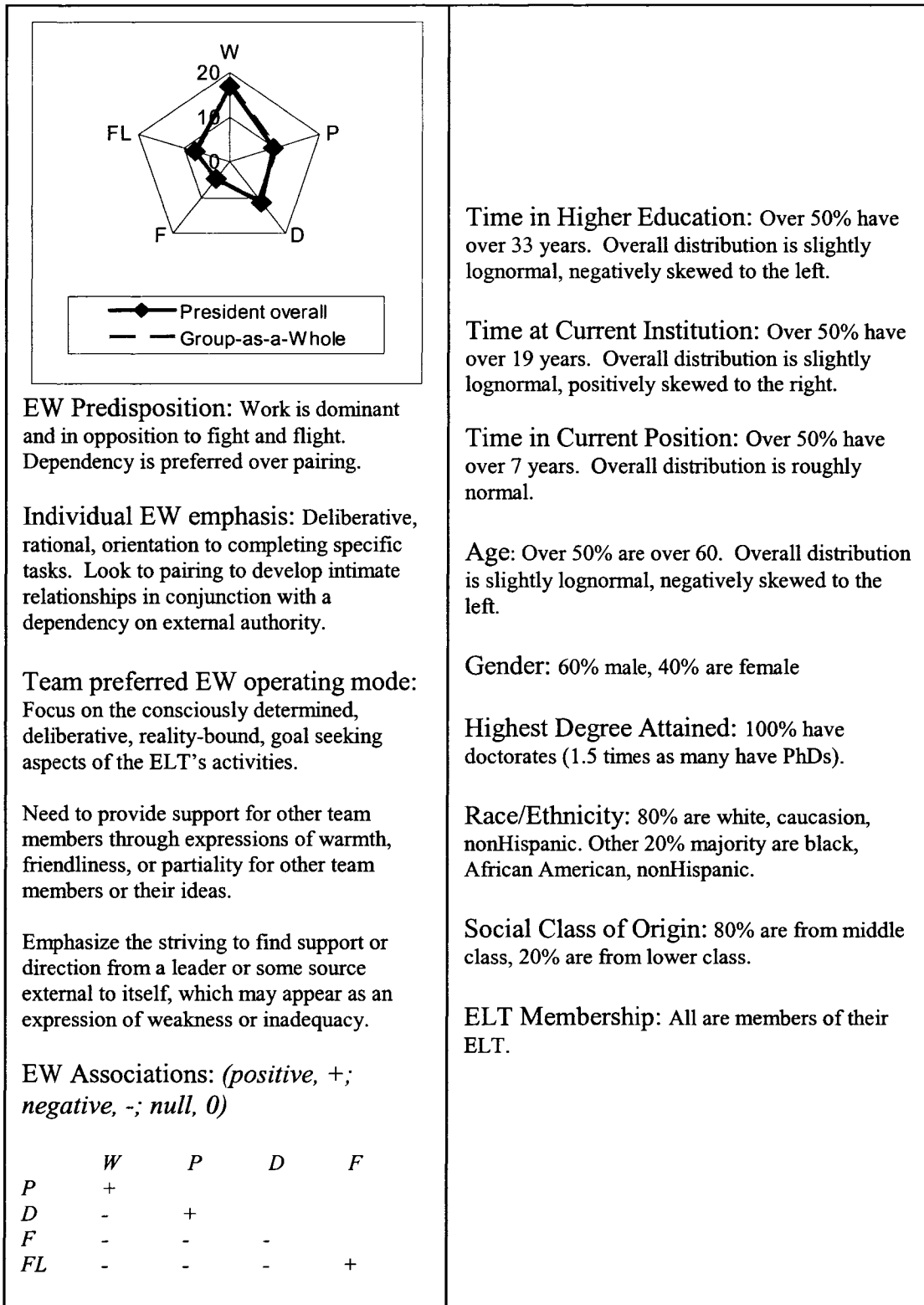


Table 30. President EW Predisposition Profile



Conclusions

As stated previously, the study showed that the RGST could reveal community college administrator individual EW predispositions for team behavior. Like Thelen et al.'s findings (1969), my study found that the community college administrator group-as-a-whole EW predisposition appeared to be consistent with Bion's (1961) BAT in terms of the relationship of EW variables.

Thelen and colleagues' (1969) findings suggested that work and pairing were associated positively; that work was in greatest opposition with flight and fight; that the interpersonal closeness implied by pairing, and to a lesser extent dependency, was in opposition to fight and flight; and that flight and fight were associated positively. My study found that for the administrator group-as-a-whole, work and pairing were associated positively, work was in greatest opposition with fight and flight, pairing and dependency were in unison opposition to fight and flight, and fight and flight were associated positively.

Drawing parallels with the speculative conclusions discussed by Thelen (1954), several ideas may be applicable to ELT composition to maximize team effectiveness. If it is desired to build a strong community college ELT, the ELT should be composed of individuals scoring high on work and pairing. If it is desired to avoid forming an ELT which would adversely affect effectiveness in a simple task situations, team composition should not combine individuals with dominant predispositions for fight, flight, or dependency. For more complex tasks it may be desirable to have the ELT composed of administrators with a more aggressive group relevant trait (i.e., fight). Note, that fight was not completely rejected as a preferred response for any of the stimulus situations.

For simple tasks fight could be disruptive, but in a complex situation, it could provide the aggressiveness needed to cut through the frustrations involved in completing more difficult tasks.

In addition, to have a highly effective ELT it would be desirable to have team members scoring high in work, which appeared to be the norm from this study's results. ELTs with members scoring high on pairing would probably be effective, although their main emphasis would be on team building. Generally speaking it may be wise to avoid composing an ELT with members scoring high in fight, flight, and/or dependency, particularly in simple task situations, since such teams would probably steer away from being effective.

A key unique finding from this study was the combination of pairing and dependency having similar scoring second to the dominant predisposition of work. Although dependency was shown to score similar to pairing as an individual group-relevant trait, it was clearly rejected as a preferred response to the RGST's group stimulus situations. This may indicate that dependency is a trait inherent in those persons attracted to higher education as a career field. But, it may necessarily need to be consciously (or unconsciously) suppressed as a visible group relevant personality trait in response to higher education's advocacy for a collegial, teaming culture.

This heightened score for dependency in conjunction with pairing raises questions. For example, was this scoring pattern indicative of the Board/president relationship and the president/vice president/dean relationship being very dependent on the organizational leadership above them for direction and permission to act? If the ELT operates in a pairing--dependency combination EW state does this imply scheming,

political savvy, constrained pro-activeness, a lack of empowerment, autocratic leadership, etc.? Or, does the RGST simply do a poor job in discriminating between the EW variables regarding application to higher education administrators? Certainly, these and other such questions could warrant additional investigation to obtain their answer in conjunction with maximizing ELT effectiveness.

However, it is important to recognize that the use of the RGST in this study does not necessarily mandate its use for ELT member selection. That is, the results of this study do not provide any specific implication to selecting ELT members. Also, the lack of a clear, established definition for higher education ELT effectiveness limits the generalized use of the RGST, or any instrument, alone for making associations to team effectiveness without longitudinal observation.

Study Limitations and Directions For Further Research

The results of this study focused on the community college administrator predisposition for ELT behavior. As noted previously, there were several issues limiting the generalizability of the study results. These included: (a) the study explored EW variables in conjunction with specific demographic variables, (b) the research data collection scope was narrowed to collecting EW data from community college administrators working for institutions in Illinois, (c) EW preferences were identified via the RGST instrument (which has demonstrated an ability to predict actual individual team behavior, but is not presented as an error-free tool), (d) there was no post RGST completion direct observation of participants or ELTs incorporated into the study (which could lead to an assessment of RGST higher education-specific validity), and (e) the scope of behavioral traits (or group-relevant personality traits) addressed only included

the EW variables. Accordingly, my findings may not be directly relevant to understanding the EW predispositions of higher education administrators throughout the State of Illinois or the United States.

However, the ongoing interest in and research about groups and teams and what influences their development and effectiveness in positive and negative ways, has important implications for the way higher education ELTs and organizations are structured in the future. As an initial step in discovery, this study opened the door to conceptually using the identification of individuals' EW predisposition for team behavior to support maximizing ELT effectiveness and set the stage for further investigation regarding EW predisposition and its role in team composition and development.

The direction for further research to follow this study might include:

1. How are EW variables associated directly to ELT effectiveness? This could require observational longitudinal studies linked directly to defined ELT effectiveness metrics. Defining ELT effectiveness metrics would require looking at current academic institution performance metrics in conjunction with financial and organizational metrics used in business and industry. Cohen and Bailey (1997) researched metrics regarding executive teams, which may provide guidance for higher education ELTs.
2. Is the current RGST design truly suited for application to higher education?
The work variable scored high with across all the administrators, which may indicate the need for additional RGST testing to determine if design alterations to the RGST would provide more discriminating results (i.e., via an instrument with clear validity and high reliability). Karterud (1989) excluded

the use of the work variable in favor of a neutral variable, which may provide guidance for RGST design enhancement relative to its application to higher education.

3. How are the results of using the RGST for individual and team training design associated to maximizing team effectiveness? This could involve looking at higher education ELTs relative to overall group development regarding EW predispositions shown individually and by the team-as-a-whole. Wheelan (Wheelan, 1994; Wheelan & McKeage, 1993) researched the ongoing development of teams and groups relative to their exhibited EW behavioral traits (i.e., statements and physical movements), which may provide guidance for looking at higher education ELTs.
4. Is the RGST useful for selecting ELT members (i.e., ELT team composition)? Thelen et al. (1969) researched the effectiveness of teams and groups composed relative to combinations of individuals with specific EW behavioral traits, which may provide guidance for looking at higher education ELTs.

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APPENDIX A

REACTIONS TO GROUP SITUATIONS TEST

You will be presented with one-sentence descriptions of situations that commonly occur in groups. Each of these descriptions is given in an incomplete sentence that can be finished in either of two ways, choice A or B. Decide which way you prefer to finish each sentence. On the Answer Sheet, either A or B (not both) should be marked opposite the number of the sentence, to complete the sentence.

Make your selections quickly. Don't linger over the items—your first impression is good enough. This should take approximately ten minutes to complete.

Please do not leave out any items. Note that all information is anonymous and confidential.

Position Title (circle one): Dean VP President
Years: In higher education _____ Age: _____ Gender (circle one): M F
At current institution _____
In current position level _____
Highest degree attained (circle one): PhD EdD MS/MA BS/BA other
Ethnicity/Race (circle one): a. Asian/Pacific Islander
b. Black/African American/nonHispanic
c. Hispanic/Latino
d. Native American
e. White/Caucasian/nonHispanic
f. Multi-racial/other
Social Class of Origin (circle one):
Upper (affluent) Middle (white collar) Lower (blue collar)
ELT member (circle one): YES NO

RGST Questions (circle A or B)

1. When I wanted to work with Pat, I . . .
 - A. felt we could do well together.
 - B. asked if it would be all right with him.
2. When the group wanted his views about the task, Sam . . .
 - A. wondered why they wanted his views.
 - B. thought of what he might tell them.
3. When the leader made no comment, I . . .
 - A. offered a suggestion of what to do.
 - B. wondered what to do next.
4. When Taylor said he felt closest to me, I . . .
 - A. was glad.
 - B. was suspicious.
5. When I felt helpless, I . . .
 - A. wished that the leader would help me.
 - B. found a friend to tell how I felt.
6. When Sydney was annoyed, Alex . . .
 - A. thought of a way to explain the situation to him.
 - B. realized just how he felt.
7. When Andy felt eager to go to work, she . . .
 - A. got mad at the late-comers.
 - B. wanted to team up with Morgan.
8. When Mackenzie bawled me out, I . . .
 - A. lost interest in what we were supposed to be doing
 - B. thought that some of his ideas would be useful.
9. When the leader lost interest, Riley...
 - A. suggested a way to get everybody working.
 - B. started talking with his neighbors.
10. When Avery felt warm and friendly, she ...
 - A. accomplished a lot more.
 - B. liked just about everyone.
11. When the leader was unsure of himself, Jordan....
 - A. wanted to leave the group.
 - B. didn't know what to do.
12. When the group just couldn't seem to get ahead, I . . .
 - A. felt like dozing off.
 - B. became annoyed with them.
13. When the group wasn't interested, I . . .
 - A. just didn't feel like working.
 - B. thought that the leader should do something about it.
14. When the leader said he felt the same way I did, I ...
 - A. was glad that I had his approval.
 - B. thought we would probably begin to make progress now.
15. When I became angry at Adrian, I...
 - A. felt like dozing off.
 - B. ridiculed his comments.

16. When the leader wanted me to tell the class about my plan, I...
 - A. wished I could get out of it.
 - B. wished that he would introduce it for me.
17. When Aiden criticized Sam, I...
 - A. wished that the leader would help Sam.
 - B. felt grateful to Aiden for really expressing what we both felt.
18. When Pat and Taylor enjoyed each other's company so much, I...
 - A. thought that I'd like to leave the room.
 - B. felt angry.
19. When the leader changed the subject, Sydney....
 - A. suggested that they stick to the original topic.
 - B. felt glad that the leader was finally taking over.
20. When the others became so keen on really working hard, I....
 - A. made an effort to make really good suggestions.
 - B. felt much more warmly toward them.
21. When I felt angry enough to boil, I...
 - A. wanted to throw something.
 - B. wished that the leader would do something about it.
22. When Lee was not paying attention, I...
 - A. did not know what to do.
 - B. wanted to tell her she was wasting our time.
23. When Alex thought that he needed a lot of help, Andy....
 - A. warmly encouraged him to get it.
 - B. helped him analyze the problem.
24. When Morgan reported her results so far, I...
 - A. laughed at her.
 - B. was bored.
25. When everyone felt angry, I...
 - A. suggested that they stop and evaluate the situation.
 - B. was glad that the leader stepped in.
26. When no one was sticking to the point, I...
 - A. got bored with the whole thing.
 - B. called for clarification of the topic.
27. When Mackenzie said he felt especially friendly toward me, I...
 - A. wanted to escape.
 - B. wanted to ask his advice.
28. When the group agreed that it needed more information about how members felt, I...
 - A. described my feelings to the group.
 - B. wasn't sure I wanted to discuss my feelings.
29. When the leader offered to help Riley, Avery....
 - A. wanted help too.
 - B. resented the leader's offer.
30. When Jordan and Adrian argued, I...
 - A. asked Aiden how she felt about them.
 - B. hoped they would slug it out.

31. When Sam felt especially close to Lee, he ...
 - A. let him know it.
 - B. hoped he could turn to him for assistance.
32. When several members dropped out of the discussion, Pat ...
 - A. thought it was time to find out where the group was going.
 - B. got sore at what he thought was their discourtesy.
33. When Taylor told me she felt uncertain about what should be done, I ...
 - A. suggested that she wait awhile before making any decisions.
 - B. suggested that she get more information.
34. When Sydney realized that quite a few people were taking digs at each other he ...
 - A. wanted to call the group to order.
 - B. got angry at the stupidity of their behavior.
35. When the group suggested a procedure, I ...
 - A. thought the leader ought to express approval or disapproval of it.
 - B. thought we ought to decide whether to carry it out.
36. When Alex seemed to be daydreaming, Andy ...
 - A. winked at Morgan.
 - B. felt freer to doodle.
37. When Mackenzie and Riley arrived twenty minutes late for the meeting, the group ...
 - A. went right on working.
 - B. was very annoyed.
38. During the argument, Avery's opposition caused Jordan to ...
 - A. withdraw from the discussion.
 - B. look to the leader for support.
39. When Jordan suggested we evaluate how well we were working as a group, I ...
 - A. was glad that the meeting was almost over.
 - B. gladly backed him up.
40. When the group seemed to be losing interest, Pat ...
 - A. became angry with the other members.
 - B. thought it might just as well adjourn.
41. Together Adrian and Aiden ...
 - A. wasted the group's time.
 - B. supported one another's arguments.
42. When Sam offered to help me, I ...
 - A. said I was sorry, but I had something else to do.
 - B. was pleased that we would be partners.
43. When the other group became so interested in their work, Pat ...
 - A. wanted to ask their leader if he could join them.
 - B. felt resentful that his group was so dull.
44. When Taylor left the meeting early, Lee ...
 - A. and Sydney told each other what they felt about Taylor.
 - B. was glad that he had gone.

45. When Alex turned to me, I . . .
- A. wished that she would mind her own business.
 - B. asked her for help.
46. When Aiden felt hostile to the group, he . . .
- A. wished he would not have to come to the meeting.
 - B. was glad that Andy felt the same way.
47. While Jordan was helping me, I . . .
- A. became annoyed with her superior attitude.
 - B. felt good about being with her.
48. When I lost track of what Morgan was saying, I . . .
- A. asked the leader to explain Morgan's idea to me.
 - B. was pleased that it was Sam who explained Morgan's idea to me.
49. While the group was expressing friendly feelings toward Mackenzie, Pat. . . .
- A. thought that now Mackenzie would be able to work.
 - B. opened a book and started to read.
50. When the leader offered to help her, Riley. . . .
- A. said that she did not want any help.
 - B. realized that she did need help from someone.

RGST Answer Sheet

1.	<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>	26.	<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>
2.	<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>	27.	<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>
3.	<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>	28.	<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>
4.	<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>	29.	<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>
5.	<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>	30.	<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>
6.	<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>	31.	<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>
7.	<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>	32.	<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>
8.	<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>	33.	<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>
9.	<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>	34.	<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>
10.	<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>	35.	<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>
11.	<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>	36.	<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>
12.	<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>	37.	<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>
13.	<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>	38.	<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>
14.	<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>	39.	<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>
15.	<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>	40.	<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>
16.	<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>	41.	<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>
17.	<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>	42.	<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>
18.	<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>	43.	<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>
19.	<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>	44.	<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>
20.	<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>	45.	<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>
21.	<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>	46.	<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>
22.	<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>	47.	<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>
23.	<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>	48.	<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>
24.	<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>	49.	<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>
25.	<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>	50.	<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>

RGST Answer Key

Instructions: For each question answer, circle the letter corresponding to the answer on the RGST Answer Sheet. For example, if A was marked for item 1, circle the letter P on this answer key for that item. To obtain each of the five scores, count the number of times each letter was circled. (The letters denoted as "BA Modality" indicate the basic assumption preference designed into the question responded to.)

QUESTION	BA MODALITY	RESPONSE		QUESTION	BA MODALITY	RESPONSE	
		A	B			A	B
1	W	P	D	26	FL	FL	W
2	W	F	W	27	P	FL	D
3	D	W	D	28	W	W	FL
4	P	P	F	29	D	D	F
5	D	D	P	30	F	P	F
6	F	W	P	31	P	P	D
7	W	F	P	32	FL	W	F
8	F	FL	W	33	D	FL	W
9	FL	W	P	34	F	W	F
10	P	W	P	35	W	D	W
11	D	FL	D	36	FL	P	FL
12	D	FL	F	37	P	W	F
13	FL	FL	D	38	F	FL	D
14	P	D	W	39	W	FL	P
15	F	FL	F	40	FL	F	FL
16	W	FL	D	41	P	FL	P
17	F	D	P	42	D	FL	P
18	P	FL	F	43	W	D	F
19	FL	W	D	44	FL	P	F
20	W	W	P	45	P	F	D
21	F	F	D	46	F	FL	P
22	FL	D	F	47	D	F	P
23	D	P	W	48	FL	D	P
24	W	F	FL	49	P	W	FL
25	F	W	D	50	D	F	W

SCORE

W = Work _____
 F = Fight _____
 FL = Flight _____
 D = Dependency _____
 P = Pairing _____

APPENDIX B

RGST SENTENCE EW VARIABLE ALLOCATION

EW Variable Stimulus	Sentence #	EW Variable Response	Sentence #
W, Work	1,2,7,16,20,24,28,35,39,43	W	2,20,28,35
		P	1,7,20,39
		D	1,16,35,43
		F	2,7,24,43
		FL	16,24,24,39
P, Pairing	4,10,14,18,27,31,37,41,45,49	W	10,14,37,49
		P	4,10,31,41
		D	14,27,31,45
		F	4,18,37,45
		FL	18,27,41,49
D, Dependency	3,5,11,12,23,29,33,42,47,50	W	3,23,33,50
		P	5,23,42,47
		D	3,5,11,29
		F	12,29,47,50
		FL	11,12,33,42
F, Fight	6,8,15,17,21,25,30,34,38,46	W	6,8,25,34,
		P	6,17,30,46
		D	17,21,25,38
		F	15,21,30,34
		FL	8,15,38,46,
FL, Flight	9,13,19,22,26,32,36,40,44,48	W	9,19,26,32
		P	9,36,44,48
		D	13,19,22,48
		F	22,32,40,44
		FL	13,26,36,40

APPENDIX C

THEORIST PERSONALITY MODEL VARIABLES COMPARISON TO THE BIG 5

<i>Theorist</i>	<i>Extraversion/ Surgency</i>	<i>Agreeableness</i>	<i>Conscientiousness</i>	<i>Emotional Stability</i>	<i>Intellect/ Openness</i>
Goldberg	Surgency	Agreeableness	Conscientiousness	Emotional Stability	Intellect
Costa and McCrae	Extraversion	Agreeableness	Conscientiousness	Neuroticism	Openness
Eysenck	Extraversion	Psychoticism		Neuroticism	
Adler	Superiority Striving	Social Interest			Superiority Striving
Bakan	Agency	Communion			Agency
Bales	Dominant Initiative	Social-Emotional Orientation	Task Orientation		
Bartholomew	Model of Other (Avoidance)			Model of Self (Anxiety)	
Block	Low Ego Control		High Ego Control	Ego Resiliency	
Buss and Plomin	Activity		Impulsivity	Emotionality	
Cattell	Exvia (vs. Invia)	Pathemia (vs. Cortertia)	Superego Strength	Adjustment vs. Anxiety	Independence vs. Subduedness
Comrey	Extraversion and Activity	Femininity	Orderliness and Social Conformity	Emotional Stability	Rebelliousness
Digman	Beta	Alpha			Beta
Erikson		Basic Trust			
Fiske	Confident Self-Expression	Social Adaptability	Conformity	Emotional Control	Inquiring Intellect
Freud		Psychosexual Development			
Gough	Extraversion	Consensuality	Control		Flexibility

Guilford	Social Activity	Paranoid Disposition	Thinking Introversion	Emotional Stability	
Hogan	Ambition and Sociability	Likeability	Prudence	Adjustment	Intellectance
Horney		Moving Toward			
Jackson	Outgoing, Social Leadership	Self-Protective Orientation	Work Orientation	Dependence	Aesthetic/Intellectual
Leary	Control / Dominance	Affiliation / Love			
Maslow	Self-Actualization				Self-Actualization
McAdams	Power Motivation	Intimacy Motivation			Power Motivation
Myers-Briggs	Extraversion vs. Introversion	Feeling vs. Thinking	Judging vs. Perception		Intuition vs. Sensing
Peabody	Power	Love	Work	Affect	Intellect
Rank	Individuation	Union			Individuation
Rogers	Personal Growth				Personal Growth
Skinner		Socialization			
Tellegen	Positive Emotionality		Constraint	Negative Emotionality	Absorption
Watson		Socialization			
Wiggins	Agency	Communion			Agency
Zuckerman	Extraversion		Psychoticism, Impulsivity, Sensation Seeking	Neuroticism	Psychoticism, Impulsivity, Sensation Seeking

Adapted from Digman, 1997; Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994; John, 1990; and McCrae & Costa, 1996.

APPENDIX D

LIST OF ILLINOIS COMMUNITY COLLEGES

BLACK HAWK COLLEGE	Moline
RICHARD J. DALEY COLLEGE	Chicago
KENNEDY-KING COLLEGE	Chicago
MALCOLM X COLLEGE	Chicago
OLIVE-HARVEY COLLEGE	Chicago
HARRY S. TRUMAN COLLEGE	Chicago
HAROLD WASHINGTON COLLEGE	Chicago
WILBUR WRIGHT COLLEGE	Chicago
DANVILLE AREA COMMUNITY COLLEGE	Danville
COLLEGE OF DUPAGE	Glen Ellyn
EAST ST. LOUIS COMMUNITY COLLEGE CENTER	East St. Louis
ELGIN COMMUNITY COLLEGE	Elgin
HARPER COLLEGE	Palatine
HEARTLAND COMMUNITY COLLEGE	Normal
HIGHLAND COMMUNITY COLLEGE	Freeport
ILLINOIS CENTRAL COLLEGE	East Peoria
FRONTIER COMMUNITY COLLEGE	Fairfield
LINCOLN TRAIL COLLEGE	Robinson
OLNEY CENTRAL COLLEGE	Olney
WABASH VALLEY COLLEGE	Mt. Carmel
IL VALLEY COMMUNITY COLLEGE	Oglesby
JOLIET JUNIOR COLLEGE	Joliet
KANKAKEE COMMUNITY COLLEGE	Kankakee
KASKASKIA COLLEGE	Centralia
KISHWAUKEE COLLEGE	Malta
COLLEGE OF LAKE COUNTY	Grayslake
LAKE LAND COLLEGE	Mattoon
LEWIS & CLARK COMMUNITY COLLEGE	Godfrey
LINCOLN LAND COMMUNITY COLLEGE	Springfield
JOHN A. LOGAN COLLEGE	Carterville
MCHENRY COUNTY COLLEGE	Crystal Lake
MORAIN VALLEY COMMUNITY COLLEGE	Palos Hills
MORTON COLLEGE	Cicero
OAKTON COMMUNITY COLLEGE	Des Plaines
PARKLAND COLLEGE	Champaign
PRAIRIE STATE COLLEGE	Chicago Heights
REND LAKE COLLEGE	Ina
RICHLAND COMMUNITY COLLEGE	Decatur
ROCK VALLEY COLLEGE	Rockford
CARL SANDBURG COLLEGE	Galesburg
SAUK VALLEY COMMUNITY COLLEGE	Dixon
SHAWNEE COMMUNITY COLLEGE	Ullin
SOUTH SUBURBAN COLLEGE	South Holland

SOUTHEASTERN ILLINOIS COLLEGE	Harrisburg
SOUTHWESTERN ILLINOIS COLLEGE	Belleville
SPOON RIVER COLLEGE	Canton
TRITON COLLEGE	River Grove
WAUBONSEE COMMUNITY COLLEGE	Sugar Grove
JOHN WOOD COMMUNITY COLLEGE	Quincy