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LEADERSHIP STYLES IN COMMUNITY EDUCATION

The University of Oklahoma

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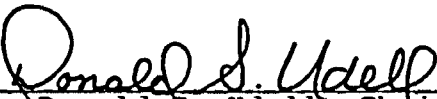
LEADERSHIP STYLES IN COMMUNITY EDUCATION

A DISSERTATION
SUBMITTED TO THE GRADUATE FACULTY
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the
degree of
DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

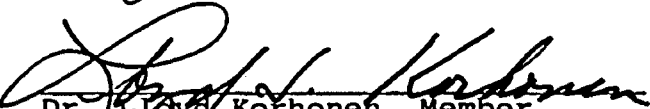
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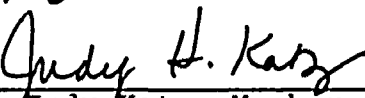
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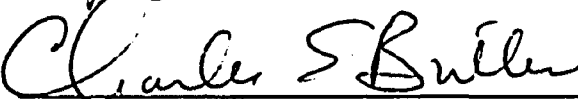
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LEADERSHIP STYLES IN COMMUNITY EDUCATION

CHAPTER I

Introduction

The current concept of community education has developed out of three centuries of experience with schools and with nonschool agencies that have performed various educational functions for people in many communities throughout the United States. The American school grew out of the desire of small communities to augment the teachings of the home and church by providing somewhat more formal opportunities (in classrooms) for agents of the community (teachers) to stimulate and guide the learning of young citizens (Seay, 1974).

From this concept of wanting to improve the learning potential and opportunities of young citizens has sprung the concept that all citizens should have this opportunity to fulfill their potential. Community educators believe that community education is the vehicle by which much of this goal may be accomplished. Community education might be defined as a process of encouraging lifelong learning experiences by involving a defined community in the identification of its needs, wants, and concerns. This is

accomplished through the effective utilization and development of all existing human, physical, and financial resources within and outside the community to satisfy these needs, wants, and concerns (Udell, 1978).

When a new idea or process is introduced to a group of people, there are often many questions. Questions such as "How does the process or idea work?", "Who knows how it works?", "Where can information be found?", and so on. Inevitably, the question of leadership will come to the fore-front. People wonder who is going to "run" the process and how the process will be controlled. In short, what style of leadership is to be used or which style is most effective?

Leadership is an essential part of almost any type of endeavor. This is particularly true with community education. In order for a community education program to serve its community effectively and make the most of limited resources, effective leadership is paramount to success. Therefore, determining the most effective style of leadership is paramount, also.

Leadership in community education, as previously stated, is essential to the development and implementation of the community education process. There is, however, a severe lack of research in community education. This problem is even more exaggerated in the area of leadership in community education. Dr. Anne Ward (1980) researched the

content of articles in the Community Education Journal for the years from 1971 through 1980. The Community Education Journal is the only professional journal currently in print that deals totally with community education. Dr. Ward's study shows the appallingly low level of research being conducted in the field of community education. A majority of the articles presented in the Journal are personal observations and experiences of practitioners and other people involved in community education.

Leadership, as an area of study, has been researched frequently and extensively in the realm of education, but not in community education. Writers such as Berridge, Seay, Kerensky, and Manley have stressed time and again that leadership is an integral part of community education. Leadership is necessary in all educational endeavors (Olsen, 1977). The most frequently asked question by communities contemplating initiating a community education program is, "What is the most essential element to assure success in community education?" The answer to that question is leadership (Heaton, 1977).

Leadership is a requisite for dissemination and implementation of any concept (Seay, 1974). This is especially true for community education. Because of the growth of community education in the United States, there is an urgent need for research in community education.

Need for the Study

Community education in Oklahoma is a new and growing process. Attitudes on leadership are very important to this process. A review of current research related to community education showed that only a small amount has been devoted to leadership in community education. For example, from 1971 to 1980, 52 percent of the articles published in the Community Education Journal were devoted to program planning and administration (Ward, 1982). Of this percent, 5.81 percent was descriptive research. Experimental, methodological, and historical research were nonexistent in this journal during the same time-frame. Within the 5.81 percent, less than 5 percent was devoted to leadership and none at all to leadership styles in particular (see Table 1, page 5).

TABLE 1

Results of the Methodological Analysis
of the Community Education Journal
in Standard Inches and Percent
1971-1980 Inclusive

Methodology Categories	<u>Community Education Journal</u>	
	S.I.'s	%
Experimental Research	00.00	0.00
Descriptive Research	1225.77	5.81
Methodological Research	00.00	0.00
Historical Research	00.00	0.00
Formal Philosophy	245.00	1.16
Personal Belief	6989.77	33.11
Interpretive Literature Reviews	158.50	0.75
Theoretical Formulation	2105.07	9.97
Technique of Practice	833.89	3.95
New Program Concerns	<u>9553.76</u>	<u>45.25</u>
Totals	21111.76	100.00

Dr. Ann Ward, Dissertation, College of Education, University
of Oklahoma, 1982.

A review of related literature indicated that no studies dealing with leadership styles in community education have been attempted. A descriptive study, such as this one, was warranted by the reviewing of these facts and conditions.

Statement of the Problem

In this study, the researcher attempted to describe a sample of community education coordinators in terms of leadership style. This was done by using the W. J. Reddin Management Style Diagnosis Test. (See methodology for further information.) The groups fell into eight categories indicated by the instrument. Four of these styles were considered effective and four of the styles are considered non-effective.

In an attempt to gain a thorough understanding of different styles of leadership of community educators in Oklahoma, variables such as age, sex, educational background, number of years in community education, and number of years in present position were studied to help establish a better understanding of the various types of leadership styles that exist in Oklahoma.

Definition of Terms

1. Coordinator. -- That person who is administratively responsible for the operation of a community education program (Paddock, 1979).

2. Leadership. -- The ability to influence group members or followers to achieve group objectives (Reddin, 1970).

3. Community Education. -- A process of encouraging lifelong learning experiences by involving a defined community in the identification of its needs, wants, and concerns and in the effective utilization and development of all existing human, physical, and financial resources within and outside the community to satisfy these needs, wants, and concerns (Udell, 1978).

4. Effective Coordinator. -- A coordinator who uses one or more of the four appropriate styles of leadership (bureaucrat, developer, benevolent autocrat, executive).

5. Non-effective Coordinator. -- A coordinator who uses one or more of the four non-appropriate styles (deserter, missionary, autocrat, compromiser).

Research Questions and Hypotheses

RQ₁ What are the stated leadership styles of community education coordinators in the state of Oklahoma?

RQ₂ What are the demographic variables of these styles?

H₁ There will be no difference between effective coordinators and non-effective coordinators when the groups are compared with the demographic variable of age.

H₂ There will be no difference between effective

coordinators and non-effective coordinators when the groups are compared with the demographic variable of education.

H₃ There will be no difference between effective coordinators and non-effective coordinators when the groups are compared with the demographic variable of years experience in present position.

H₄ There will be no difference between the groups of effective and non-effective coordinators when the groups are compared with the demographic variable of years in community education.

H₅ There will be no difference between effective coordinators and non-effective coordinators when the groups are compared with the demographic variable of sex.

H₆ There will be a proportion of coordinators using one or more of the four effective leadership styles greater than 50 percent.

Limitations of the Study

1. The study was limited to community education coordinators in the State of Oklahoma whose programs have received funds from the State Department of Education.
2. The study was limited to those programs that have been ongoing for at least one year.
3. Returns difficult due to mailing of questionnaires.

4. Size of sample may have served as a limiting factor in this study.

Basic Assumptions

1. It is assumed that the coordinators will understand the instructions for the questionnaire and will disclose the information asked for.

2. It is assumed that the person the questionnaire is mailed to is the person who will answer it.

3. It is assumed coordinators are willing to describe their actual leadership style.

4. It is assumed the questionnaire will not be viewed as threatening to the coordinator.

Organization of the Study

This study has been divided into five chapters. Chapter I is an introduction which begins with an introductory statement then outlines the need for the study, statement of the problem, definition of terms, research questions, limitations of the study, and basic assumptions. Chapter II presents the review of literature related to the study. Chapter III presents methodological procedures, instrumentation, data collection techniques, and the treatment of the data. Chapter IV presents the findings of the study. Chapter V contains the summary, conclusions, and recommendations.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF SELECTED LITERATURE

Introduction

The review of literature included the results of a survey of current periodicals, journals, and publications in the field of community education related to leadership and administration. The Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) and Dissertation Abstracts were also surveyed for relevant information and data.

Leadership is stressed as being an integral part of any organization or group process throughout the survey of literature. The importance of leadership in community education was described by Berridge (1973, p. 66):

The purpose and ultimate goal of community education is the development of community esprit 'de corps'. But to make this happen an initiator is needed, a driving force, some person or group to inform people about the concept and to take leadership until responsibility is assumed by a community council.

The community education coordinator is usually a major focal point for leadership. The coordinator's task is to lead the orchestra. He or she must assemble the resources of a community then develop each to its greatest potential (Berridge, 1973). The coordinator must provide leadership not just preside over the process (Whitt, 1971).

Throughout the literature, it was advocated that leadership by the coordinator is very important. Discussions about leadership styles and techniques usually conclude that most approaches can be successful, depending upon the situation and the individuals involved. Leadership approaches may be divided into two general categories: leader-centered, and other-centered leadership (Olsen, 1977).

Other-centered leadership is characterized by a concern of the leader for other group member's input into the group process. Leader-centered leadership is centered on the group leader. The leader runs things and the others are expected to follow his or her lead. This is in contradiction with community education theory, because the process is not centered around one person, but around a community. In community education, group leadership is needed, for essentially people are groups solving problems together (Kerensky, 1975).

As previously stated, there are varying views on leadership and leadership styles in community education. From the community school view the coordinator is expected to develop leadership in others as well as exhibiting it himself or herself; leadership is thought of as the process of getting things done with the greatest satisfaction to all persons concerned. While this type of leadership is desirable in theory, in practice it often may not be the

case. Traditional education systems can have more authoritarian-type leadership than that being advocated by many authors.

Group-centered leadership is not as widely practiced as community educators would like. It is, however, thought that group leadership is the style of the 80's. Successful educational leaders of the future will initiate cooperative efforts, if they are to succeed where others have failed (Riles, 1982).

The literature surveyed had a wide range of suggestions as to the future needs of community education. The future of community education depends on how well community education leaders adapt to a rapidly changing and increasingly challenging world (Paddock, 1982). The emerging model of community education requires that the job of leadership be community-oriented, natural, part of an open-system, process-based, and accountable to the community (Foley, 1979).

After a careful review of current literature it was evident that involvement of several people in the decision-making process would provide better results than one person deciding alone; that leaders make better decisions collaborating with others than when working alone, and that consensus decisions are likely to be better than those of the average of even the best member of the group (Mark, 1979).

The concern of this researcher was whether or not the type of leadership normally advocated for community education was actually being practiced. Research by the Institute for Responsive Education confirms that in spite of a marked growth in mandated and citizen-initiated advisory councils since the mid-1960's, lay citizens are still having very little influence on educational decision-making (Rochester, 1980). Many community educators are former teachers and educators. Because of the traditional authoritarian management style sometimes used in education, there may be "lip service" to democratic decision-making but little actual community-wide leadership.

Additionally, Saxe and Havighurst (1975) have described a widespread fear on the part of educators of having the community involved in education (Kaplan, 1978). Educators often feel that appropriate training and professional status are necessary for educational decision-making. This view is not congruent with community education. Leadership must emanate from the top, but must be focused at the local level (Bell, 1972).

One of the major purposes of this study was to describe the styles of leadership that were being used in the State of Oklahoma. If there is a dominant style, the study should bear this out. In any event, the information will be invaluable to leaders in community education in the

State of Oklahoma. Furthermore, a review of the trends in leadership would help clarify the need for more research in this area. Leadership and supervision of groups or people will always be an everchanging process and understanding this process will be a necessity for leaders and administrators.

Trends in Leadership

Leadership has been a puzzle and a problem for centuries. Leaders were something to be treasured and sought after. Great leaders were sought after by the military factions of nations and groups as well as by those who dealt in commerce or trade. As the centuries passed, men and women began to study leadership and hoped this study would help them in their endeavors. Many theories resulted from this interest in leadership.

Scientific Management

Modern leadership is usually said to have begun with a theory called "scientific management," proposed by Frederick W. Taylor. Taylor espoused the idea that the key to management efficiency is in getting the right worker matched with the right job. Taylor felt that effective management was really a science and not just born to certain people. Taylor states, "The best management is a true science, resting upon clearly defined laws, rules, and

principles as a foundation" (Taylor, 1911, p. 36). Taylor not only believed that management is and should be based on science, he also believed that the principles of his "scientific management" are applicable to all kinds of human activities, from our simplest individual acts to the work of our great corporations, which call for the most elaborate cooperation.

Management's principal objective is to secure the maximum prosperity for the employer, coupled with the maximum prosperity for each employee (Taylor, 1911). Taylor meant not only maximum profits and benefits, but also the development of company and worker. These two tasks must occur simultaneously, for one cannot occur without the other. In Taylor's opinion, if the development of each worker was carried out to its maximum efficiency, the results would be dramatic. In other words, get the worker to produce the highest grade of work for which his or her natural abilities allow.

Taylor felt that the only way to achieve maximum prosperity was through maximum productivity. Taylor asserted:

No one can be found who will deny that in the case of any single individual, the greatest prosperity can exist only when that individual has reached his highest state of efficiency; that is, when he is turning out his largest daily output (Taylor, 1911 p. 36).

The question of how this is achieved would be the next important step.

In developing his theory of "scientific management," Taylor formulated a series of steps that a manager must take to develop a science for his or her particular organization or group. These steps are:

Step 1. Develop a science for each element of a worker's task, which replaces the old guidelines previously used.

The traditional method let the worker have all responsibility for the work to be done; and it also entailed how a worker acquired his or her skills: usually by observation of other workers.

Step 2. Scientifically select and then train, teach, and develop the worker.

In the past the workers chose their own work and trained themselves as best they could.

Step 3. The manager must heartily cooperate with the men so as to ensure all of the work being done is in accordance with the principles of the science which have been developed.

Step 4. There is an almost equal division of the work and the responsibility for the work between the management and the worker. The management takes over all work for which it is better fitted than the workers, which in the past almost all the work and the greater part of the responsibility were thrown upon the worker (Taylor, 1911).

Management theory before Taylor usually consisted of depending on the worker's initiative to get the work done and provide some economic incentive to help it along. With Taylor's style of management, the work of every worker was

fully planned out by management at least one day in advance, and each person received, in most cases, complete written instructions, describing in detail the task which the worker was to accomplish, as well as the means to be used in doing the work.

Implementing a theory in an organization is seldom easy and usually very time consuming. Cooperation between management and workers is essential. Taylor felt that one of the greatest obstacles is cooperation between the worker and the management lay in the ignorance of management as to what really constitutes a proper day's work for a worker. To relieve this, Taylor implemented time-motion studies to determine the period of time needed for job completion.

Taylor noted that management was responsible for the change-over from traditional management to "scientific management." This change not only involved a study of what the proper speed for doing the work and a remodeling of the tools and the implementation in the shop, but also a complete change in the mental attitude of all the people in the shop toward their work and their fellow employees. The greatest problem involved in the change from one style to the other consisted of a complete revolution in the mental attitude and the habits of all those engaged in management as well as the workers (Taylor, 1911).

This process of change must be a gradual one and cannot be forced into evolving rapidly. Worker attitudes must

be developed gradually or they will revert to their old habits of purposefully slowing production and not putting in a full-day's work. Taylor (1911) summarized, "Science, not rule-of-thumb. Harmony, not discord. Cooperation, not individualism. Maximum output, in place of restricted output. The development of each man to his greatest efficiency and prosperity" (Taylor, 1911, p. 104). Taylor felt that the day of the single great leader had passed. Organizations must be planned, organized, and fitted with a science.

Another advocate of "scientific management" was Henri Fayol. Fayol, like Taylor, felt that management had its function and workers had their function. He argued, "In firms of every kind the most important ability of the lower ranks is the technical ability characteristic of the firm and the most important of higher management is managerial ability" (Fayol, 1949, p. 13).

There were several concepts where Fayol and Taylor were in agreement. Concepts such as: Unity of direction, in order to be effective the workers and management must share the same goals; Centralization--both Taylor and Fayol thought that there must be a central theme to how work was done and planned out; Order--a place for everyone and everyone in his place or in other words, the right worker for the right job; Equity--management and worker must share in work and responsibility; Esprit 'de corps'--union is

strength, worker and management must pull together in order to have maximum efficiency (Fayol, 1949).

Human Relations

As the century progressed, a new line of thought began to get recognition from the industrial and business world. "Scientific management" repeatedly stated that the objective of management was to secure the maximum prosperity for the organization and the worker. The chief way to do this was to match the right worker with the right job and then develop a science that reduced the complexity of the job into understandable steps and procedures that could easily be followed by the worker. The new line of thought emerging after "scientific management," postulated that technical advancement far outstripped social advancement, and that this presented a real danger to our society. This new concept was labeled, "human relations." Its premier author and spokesperson, Elton Mayo, called strenuously for advancement of human relations in industrial society (Mayo, 1945).

Management, under the human relations theory, had two major functions: (1) the function of securing the common economic purpose of the enterprise; and (2) the function of maintaining the equilibrium of the social organization so that individuals through contributing their services to this common purpose obtained personal satisfactions that

made them willing to cooperate (Roethlisberger & Dickerson, 1939). These functions were interrelated and interdependent. The first function corresponds well with "scientific management's" view of management's function. The real shift occurs when "scientific management" insists that scientific procedures and correct matching of worker and job are the keys to effective management, whereas human relationists feel that it is cooperation between individual workers and groups that is the key to effective management. To a human relationist, failure to obtain satisfaction from cooperation will prevent in time the effective achievement of the common economic purpose of the organization. If the enterprise is to survive, the effective performance of these two functions is necessary (Roethlisberger & Dickerson, 1939).

Management encounters many problems in its efforts to satisfy these functions. Three of the major problems that management has to deal with are as follows:

- (1) Problems of change in the social structure.
- (2) Problems of control and communication.
- (3) Problems in the adjustment of the individual to the structure.

Change in an organization very often results in displacement or social dislocation of some individuals. This can cause much strife within an organization.

Theoretically, there may be a best rate of change, one that does not upset the social equilibrium. In practice, however, there is a continuous problem of adapting and maintaining this equilibrium (Roethlisberger & Dickerson, 1939).

One of the major helps or hinderances of change is communication. An organization that has excellent communication moving up and down the chain of command can adapt to change far easier than one that has not this quality as part of its organization. The function of management can be described as that of maintaining the social system of the industrial plant in a state of equilibrium such that both the internal and external purposes of the enterprise are realized. If an individual is not adjusted into the structure or group properly this function can be seriously impaired. In order to accomplish this, managers must be trained in human relations skills they will need on the job (Roethlisberger & Dickerson, 1939).

Management should introduce into its organization an explicit skill of diagnosing human situations. They should be explicit because the implicit or intuitive skills in handling human problems which successful administrators or executives possess are not capable of being communicated or transmitted. They are the peculiar property of the person who exercises them: they leave when the executive leaves the organization. An "explicit" skill, on the other hand,

is capable of being refined and taught and communicated to others (Roethlisberger & Dickerson, 1939).

After this skill is acquired by an organization or its executives, it should commit itself to the continuous process of studying human situations--both individual and group--and should run its human affairs in terms of what it is continually learning about its own organization (Roethlisberger & Dickerson, 1939).

One of the skills that is essential to an organization is that of maintaining effective cooperation. Effective cooperation is the constant and recurring theme of the human relations theory. Elton Mayo reported:

Every social group, at whatever level of culture, must face and clearly state two perpetual and recurrent problems of administration. It must secure for its individuals and group membership: (1) The satisfaction of material and economic needs. (2) The maintenance of spontaneous cooperation throughout the organization (Mayo, 1945, p. 9).

Mayo felt that administrative methods were all pointed toward the materially effective; none at the maintenance of cooperation. He believed that our technological successes were amazing, but that we lacked severely in social effectiveness. Problems of absenteeism, labor turnover, "wildcat" strikes showed that management did not know how to ensure spontaneity of cooperation, that is, teamwork. Mayo defined social skill as, "a capability to receive communication from others, and to respond to the attitudes

and ideas of others in such fashion as to promote congenial participation in a common task" (Mayo, 1945, P. 10).

Mayo felt that the world was a place of ever-occurring change and adaptibility, and management must keep up with the changing times. Management advanced rapidly in a technological sense, but lagged far behind in social or human relations. Other sciences had advanced rapidly in both technology and social/human relations. Creating experiences for the worker with technology can be done with hands-on training. Preparing that same worker to deal with fellow workers and his social environment is a much more difficult task (Mayo, 1945).

Mayo felt that social study should begin with careful observation of what he described as communication: that is, the capacity of an individual to communicate his or her feelings and ideas to another, the capacity of groups to communicate effectively and intimately with each other. Mayo observed, "If our technical skills are to make sudden and radical changes in methods of working, we must develop social skills that can balance these moves by effecting social changes in methods of living to meet the altered situation" (Mayo, 1945, p. 22). It was Mayo's opinion that education was provided to train young administrators in technical understanding and technical skill, but did nothing to develop social insight or impart social skill. Indeed, Mayo felt that education operated to hinder the

development of such skills. Mayo believed that education of young leaders did not proceed in a way that encouraged social skills. Other skills received precedence over social skills and an imbalance could be or was struck (Mayo, 1945).

Modern large-scale industry has three persistent problems. These are:

- (1) The application of science and technical skill to some material good or product.
- (2) The systematic ordering of operations.
- (3) The organization of teamwork--that is, of sustained cooperation.

The third must take into account the need for continual reorganization of teamwork as operating conditions are changed in an adaptive society (Mayo, 1945, p. 69). Again, it must be said that these social skills cannot be ignored, though they often are.

The first of the three problems holds enormous prestige and interest and is the subject of continuous experimentation. The second is well-developed in practice, and the third, by comparison with the other two, is almost wholly neglected. Yet, it remains true that if these three are out of balance, the organization as a whole will not be successful. For the larger and more complex the institution, the more dependent it is upon the complete cooperation of every member of the group (Mayo, 1945).

Group Dynamics

Informal groups first served workers' needs to defend themselves against changes arbitrarily imposed upon them by "scientific management." Mayo in his studies of formal organization in industry was forced by his data to recognize the influence of primary group factors in explaining people's behavior at a time when bureaucratic and management theories provided little or no place for such variables in their scheme of things (Bennis, Benne, & Chin, 1961).

Kurt Lewin is usually credited with having been the first to conduct studies on a large scale dealing with the process of interaction in small group situations. Lewin contended that human behavior must be related not only to physiological needs, but also to what he described as a much more complex variable--the total situation as organized or structured by the organization.

Lewin was inferring that groups can and do fulfill a function for workers and therefore must be dealt with. K. D. Benne (Bennis, Benne, & Chin, 1961) in his book, The Planning of Change, with W. G. Bennis and R. Chin, concurred with Lewin. He alleged, "Groups exist; they are inevitable and ubiquitous; they mobilize powerful forces having profound effects upon individuals; these effects may be good or bad; and through a knowledge of group dynamics

there lies the possibility of maximizing their good value. Knowing that groups do exist, it is common sense to try to learn more about them."

It is imperative that both the leader and group members understand the functions and workings of group behavior. One aspect leader and members should be aware of is "hidden agendas." There are three types of hidden agendas: those held by group members, those held by the leader, and those held by the individual members themselves. The function of the group is often delayed or disrupted by hidden agendas if the leader of the group does not know how to deal with them and other group processes (Bradford, 1953).

There are certain things that all group members should know. A major point in the theory of group dynamics is that every group, no matter what its function or composition, given enough time, goes through the three interpersonal phases of inclusion, control, and affection in the same sequence (Bennis, Benne, & Chin, 1961).

The inclusion phase centers around the question of "in or out." It begins with the formation of the group. When people are confronted with each other, they must first find the place where they fit in. This involves being in or out of the group, establishing oneself as a specific individual, and seeing if one is going to be paid attention to and not to be left behind or ignored. This anxiety area

gives rise to individual-centered behavior such as over-talking, extreme withdrawal, exhibitionism, recitation of biographies and other previous experience (Bennis, Benne, & Chin, 1961).

After the problems of inclusion have been sufficiently resolved, control problems become prominent. This phase centers around the "top or bottom." Once members are fairly well established as being together in a group, the issue of decision-making procedures arises. This involves problems of sharing responsibility and its necessary concomitant, distribution of power and control. Characteristic behavior at this stage includes struggles, competition, and discussion of orientation to the task, structuring, rules of procedure, methods of decision-making, and sharing the responsibility for the group's work. The primary anxieties at this phase revolve around having too much or too little responsibility and too much or too little influence. Each member is trying to establish himself or herself in the group so that he or she has the most comfortable amount of interchange and the most comfortable degree of initiation with the other members with regard to control, influence and responsibility (Bennis, Benne, & Chin, 1961).

Group dissension may occur at any phase of group development and for a variety of reasons. Reasons from the members viewing group difficulties as personal faults

(Benne, Bradford, & Lippitt, 1950), to a problem with finding or implementing new ideas or ways to accomplish goals. Knowledge about group functions and behavior can only enhance a leader or group's ability to guide the group or organization.

No one can argue that groups do not have influence and must be dealt with in the managerial process of an organization. The trend toward group dynamics proved to be quite a boost to the human and social advocates in business and industry because of the social skills required to interact and function in a group environment. Even so, attention soon became focused on the individual leader or executive in the organization.

Finally, following a satisfactory resolution of these phases, problems of affection became focal. The group has dealt with the issues of responsibility and power, and must now deal with the emotional setting of the group. The primary anxieties at this stage have to do with not being liked or being close enough to people or with being too intimate (Bennis, Benne, & Chin, 1961). The affection phase set the emotional stage of the group so that it may deal with difficulties that will present themselves to the group.

Ideal Style

The executive life, particularly in large business or governmental organization, is a vigorous test of emotional

maturity. Few who enter this life know just how close they may come to being pulled away from their emotional anchorages. The stress and strain in the executive role is reflected in the almost universal search for an ideal of effective executive performance. Many feel that finding this ideal will provide a comprehensive solution not only for particular problems, but also for all problems that involve executive responsibility (Jennings, 1962).

The question is what is the ideal style for managerial effectiveness. In other words, the executive faces a crucial and growing problem of finding the right path to follow to control and direct human activity. Traditionally the unit of control has been the individual. From this unit flowed commands to which other individuals responded. This autocratic view, which meant self-rule or one-person control, was highly esteemed when organizations were many in number and small in scale (Jennings, 1962).

As larger and more complex organizations became abundant, it became apparent that the solitary decision-maker would have to delegate authority to subordinates to get things done. To keep the decision-making process from reverting to numerous unrelated one-person acts of control, an attempt was made to develop a system of policies and directives which, ideally, distributed the competency of the autocrat much as though he or she occupied simul-

taneously the several positions of authority. In the autocratic style of control, the superior limited the authority of the subordinates through personal will and control. In the bureaucratic style the superior limits the authority through routine, a set of directives, and specified responsibilities. Rule by rules partially took the place of rule by authority (Jennings. 1962).

To the autocratic and bureaucratic styles was added an attempt to solicit ideas and advice from individuals who as a group were considered responsible representatives of the major interests involved. This style, referred to as the democratic style, attempted to make the decision-making process a function of the group as well as of the system (Jennings, 1962).

Traditionally, it was thought the autocratic or one-man method of control was the best. There are assumptions about human nature and human behavior that every manager makes. D. V. McGregor (1960) in The Human Side of Enterprise labeled the traditional role or method as Theory X. As previously mentioned, there are assumptions that are made or exist behind every managerial decision. The assumptions made by Theory X are:

1. The average human being has an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if he or she can.
2. Because of this human characteristic of dislike of work, most people must be

coerced, controlled, directed, threatened with punishment to get them to put forth adequate effort toward the achievement of organizational objectives.

3. The average human being prefers to be directed, wishes to avoid responsibility, has relatively little ambition and wants security above all (McGregor, 1960, pp. 33-34).

Along with these assumptions about human behavior, there is also the belief that workers can be induced to a high degree with economic incentives like higher wages, benefits, and so on. Little attention is given to ego satisfaction and social needs. The other side or view of McGregor's leadership theory is called Theory Y. Theory Y also has a set of assumptions about human behavior. These are:

1. The expenditure of physical and mental effort in work is as natural as play or rest.
2. External control and the threat of punishment are not the only means for bringing about effort toward organizational objectives. Man will exercise self-direction and self-control in the service of objectives to which he is committed.
3. Commitment to objectives is a function of the rewards associated with their achievement.
4. The average human being learns not only to accept but to seek responsibility.
5. The capacity to exercise a relatively high degree of imagination, ingenuity, and creativity in the solution of organizational problems is widely, not narrowly, distributed in the population.

6. Under the conditions of modern industrial life, the intellectual potentialities of the average human being are only partially utilized (McGregor, 1960, pp. 47, 48).

Theory Y assumptions involve sharply different implications for managerial strategy than do those of Theory X. They are dynamic rather than static: they indicate the possibility of human growth and development; they stress the necessity for selective adaptation rather than for a single absolute form of control (McGregor, 1960).

The central principle of organization that is derived from Theory X is that of direction and control through the exercise of authority. The central principle that is derived from Theory Y is that of integration: the creation of conditions are such that the members of the organization can achieve their own goals best by directing their efforts toward the success of the enterprise (McGregor, 1960).

There are at least four major variables now known to be involved in leadership: (1) the characteristics of the leader; (2) the attitudes, needs, and other personal characteristics of the followers; (3) characteristics of the organization, such as its structure, the nature of tasks to be performed; and (4) the social, economic, and political milieu. The personal characteristics required for effective performance as a leader vary, depending on the other factors (Jennings, 1962). This is an important research finding. It means that leadership is not a pro-

perty of the individual, but a complex relationship among these variables.

Since this theory implies that the traditional one-person authoritarian view of management may not be the most effective, other styles were examined and researched. One of the most popular theories was that of group rule. Even today groups are recognized as a powerful force and should be considered in any management or organizational scheme.

With the successful introduction of group rule, there seemed to be complete transition from one-person rule to group rule. The transition is generally not all that distinct. A modern organization cannot be without order and system, nor can it omit the personal authority and power of the individual. The individual system, and the group are today legitimate and useful instruments of executive control. They are all necessarily represented to some degree in the administrative routine of each executive (Jennings, 1962).

An executive can choose from many different styles of leadership. In the beginning, there were three basic styles: autocratic, bureaucratic and democratic. The autocrat or traditional stylist rules by authority. The bureaucrat rules or leads through the established system of the organization. The democratic leader rules or leads by representation and sharing of power and authority.

The problem facing the executive today is not which style is best, because few executives are exclusively one or the other. Rather, the problem is which ingredients should be selected from each to make an effective style. Each executive faces this problem, and each comes up with a unique administrative format that is in some way related to the needs of his or her personality and of his or her organization (Jennings, 1962).

Early contributors to management theory stressed that there were specific methods needed to control and direct the work of others. The assumptions were that means must be found to delineate what people's tasks were, and then to maintain positive forces which would ensure that people performed as ordained (Blake & Mouton, 1964).

As students of behavior in the social sciences became more interested in the industrial arena, they began to demur with this. Their research began uncovering the beneficial effects when behavior in the organization was more highly self-controlling than a response to imposed controls. They discovered that less authoritarian methods of leadership produced gains in cooperation, effort, and effectiveness (Blake & Mouton, 1964).

A dichotomy was created. Proponents of one side were identified as the "scientific management" school; the opposite as the "human relations" school. A search for proof of benefits of one type of leadership versus the

other was started--and continues to this day (Blake & Mouton, 1964). Blake and Mouton feel that they have avoided this traditional conflict by showing or demonstrating five leadership styles that may be incorporated or used by an executive, but even Blake and Mouton eventually show preference of one style over the others.

Blake and Mouton (1964) in their book, The Managerial Grid, presented a grid that identified two concerns and a range of possible interactions between them. The horizontal axis indicates concern for production while the vertical axis indicates concern for people. Each is expressed as a nine-point scale of concern. The Number 1 in each instance represents minimum concern, while 9 stands for a maximum concern.

At the lower left corner of the Grid is the 1,1 style. This has a minimum of both concerns; that is, of concern for production and concern for people. At the top left corner of the Grid is found the 1,9 style. Here there is a minimum of concern for production but maximum concern for people. In the lower right corner is 9,1. This style has a maximum concern for production and a minimum concern for human aspects. In the upper right corner is the 9,9 style, where concern for both people and production reaches maximum. Then in the center is the 5,5 style, which is "middle of the road" or intermediate amount of both kinds

of concern (Blake & Mouton, 1964).

In the 9,1 style, a manager has a position of authority in the hierarchy and knows it. This manager has a high concern for production and doesn't want the personal needs of the workers to interfere with production goals. The manager feels there is an inherent conflict between production goals and personal needs of workers. The manager feels that his or her responsibilities are to plan, direct, and control the actions of subordinates in whatever way is necessary to reach the production objectives of the organization (Blake & Mouton, 1964).

A 1,9 managerial style has low concern for production and a high concern for worker's personal needs. As with 9,1 the 1,9 managerial orientation also is rooted in the assumption that production requirements are contrary to the needs of people. The 1,9 manager's aim is to avoid pressuring for production at a rate higher than that which would win acceptance from organizational members. He or she leads by following. By de-emphasizing production, the 1,9 approach avoids some of the conflict that arises from production decisions that disturb people. In the 1,9 managerial style, the group, not the individual, is the key unit of the organization with friendliness and harmony among its members the desired atmosphere (Blake & Mouton, 1964).

Low concern for production and low concern for people are linked together to form the 1,1 manager's philosophy. Like the 9,1 or 1,9 an incompatibility is assumed to exist between production requirements and the needs of people. However, this manager doesn't care one way or the other. Little is expected of this manager and little is given by him or her in return. As an approach, 1,1 is rare in an organizational situation of non-repetitive action where each situation presents a different set of problems to be solved. It is far more common in routine operations, and in various staff functions (Blake & Mouton, 1964).

The 5,5 managerial style links a moderate concern for people with a moderate concern for production. The 5,5 style also assumes conflict between production and needs of people. The 5,5 orientation assumes that people are practical, that they realize that some effort will have to be exerted on the job. Also, by yielding some push for production and considering attitudes and feelings, people accept the situation and are more or less satisfied (Blake & Mouton, 1964).

The 5,5 approach is based on a persuasive logic. It says, "What person or movement has ever had its exclusive way? Extreme positions are to be avoided. Doesn't experience show again and again that steady progress comes from compromise, trading out and a willingness to yield some advantages in order to gain others? Democracy, as it

has come to be interpreted by many today, operates quite well by yielding to the many and mollifying the few" (Blake & Mouton, 1964).

The 9,9 managerial style combines a high concern for production with a high concern for people. Unlike the other basic approaches, it is assumed in the 9,9 managerial style that there is no necessary and inherent conflict between organization purpose of production requirements and the needs of people. A basic aim of 9,9 management is to promote the conditions that integrate creativity, high productivity, and high morale through concerted team action (Blake & Mouton, 1964). The manager with a 9,9 orientation views his or her responsibility as seeing to it (but not necessarily doing it by him or herself) that planning, directing, and controlling are accomplished soundly. High value is placed on sound creative decision. The 9,9 manager is not interested in making a decision based on his or her own convictions, but rather is interested in reaching out for solutions that represent best solution. This is done by listening, seeking out ideas, opinions, and attitudes different from his or her own (Blake & Mouton, 1964).

Managerial styles based on 9,1 with compliance, 5,5 conformity with compromise, or on 1,9 security and comfort through convenience, or on 1,1 acquiescence and

complacency, or the "clever" but corrupt relationships produced by facades or by debilitating paternalism, are, at best, second best. Actually they are quite unacceptable, long term. In comparison with performance contributed under 9,9 with its condition of candid communication based on conviction and commitment which results in creativity, other bases for work seem to fall short. Social evolution seems to move in directions that add meaning to mental effort and social experience. A trend leading to maturity and relationships among people toward which production organizations seem to be evolving is defined by 9,9. Achievement of 9,9 may be the key to strengthening the capacity of people to master their own fate (Blake & Mouton, 1964).

Even though Blake and Mouton disavowed having an "ideal" style, their closing comments lead one to believe that the 9,9 style is at least preferred by the authors over the other four styles. By making these statements, Blake and Mouton placed themselves in the category of best or ideal style of management. In other words, it would seem that they do indeed believe that a superior style exists.

Situational Leadership

Industry is spending substantial sums on training supervisors and managers in human relation skills, and yet

the results are often disappointing (Likert, 1961). One of the difficulties appears to be a widespread but erroneous assumption that there are specifically "right" and "wrong" ways to supervise. This leads to the belief in the efficacy of certain prescribed "rules of supervision."

Research findings indicate, however, that the supervisory process is much more complex. Supervisory and leadership practices, effective in some situations, yield unsatisfactory results in others (Likert, 1961). There are many factors that must be taken into account. An example of this would be how a subordinate perceives his or her relationship with his or her supervisor. The values, expectations and interpersonal skills of both parties will influence the relationship. All factors must be integrated into the relationship; because supervision is an integrated process. To be effective and to communicate as intended, a leader must always adapt his or her behavior to take into account the expectations, values and interpersonal skills of those with whom he or she is interacting (Likert, 1961).

The belief that leadership is an integrative and interdependent process has been around for many years. Mary Parker Follett was advocating this view of leadership in 1924. Follett commented, "Thinking (willing, purposing) is specific relating of interdependent variables, individual and situation, each thereby creating itself anew,

relating themselves anew and thus giving us the evolving situation" (Follett, 1924, p. 89). In other words, people evolve and change constantly, depending on the variables and factors they are exposed to, and therefore must be dealt with in a like manner.

Follett had several points that she felt should be noted about human behavior. First of all, behavior is both internally and externally conditioned; secondly, behavior is a function of the interweaving between activity of organism and activity of environment, that is response to relating; third, by this interlocking activity individual and situation each is creating itself anew; thus relating itself anew; and thus giving us the evolving situation (Follett, 1924).

It has taken many years for leadership to cycle back to this view. Still, this strain of thought continued to re-emerge. R. M. Stogdill (1959) felt these forces affected group activity and structure. He felt that the predictability of an organization is derived from the fact that its role system is compounded in part of expectations which are anticipatory, predictive, reinforceable, and generalizeable. The role system of a group is not only originated by but is maintained by the mutuality of expectation among its members. All of the members of a group contribute to some extent, either positively or negatively, toward the formation and maintenance of the role structure

(Stogdill, 1959).

In other words, group expectations and member expectations are just a part, although an important part of the whole management process. A more recent version of this theory is the one advocated by Rensis Likert. Likert proposed four systems or types of leadership. System 1 is labeled exploitative authoritative; System 2 is labeled benevolent authoritative; System 3 is labeled consultative; and System 4 is labeled participative group (Likert, 1967).

Exploitative authoritative is characterized by its economic security and incentives to motivate workers. Interaction levels are very low and any communication is from the top down. The workers have little influence in the organization or influence on fellow workers. The relationship between subordinates and superior is usually one of fear and distrust. Policy and decision-making are done at the top with relatively little teamwork and most work done by individuals. Goals are set at the top and the workers are expected to comply with the orders and directives given them, but there is usually some covert resistance among the workers. This system usually has high absenteeism and turnover, and only mediocre production rates (Likert, 1967).

Benevolent authoritative also uses economic security and incentives to motivate workers, but also tries to use some status seeking desires as motivators. Again, as with

exploitative authoritative, interaction is low and communication is from the top down. Policy making is concentrated at the top with some decisions made at lower levels, but only within the prescribed framework or policy. There is only a little teamwork and most interaction that occurs is superior to subordinate. Goals and orders are originated at the top and are expected to be obeyed. There may or may not be an opportunity for worker input and some covert resistance can materialize among workers (Likert, 1967).

The third system or style, consultative, uses economic, ego and other desires to motivate workers. There is quite a bit of interaction--communication up and down the organizational hierarchy--in this style. There also tends to be more trust and confidence between subordinates and superiors involved in this system. Board policy-making and general decisions are still located at the top, but more specific decisions are allowed and made at the lower levels of the organization. There is a combination of individual and teamwork oriented activity. Subordinates are allowed input in the establishment of goals and orders, but with final responsibility resting on top management. Some covert resistance may occur in this system, but to a much lesser degree than the previous two systems. This system usually results in fair to good productivity with a moderate rate of turnover and absenteeism (Likert, 1967).

The last system or style, participative group, tries

to use a full range of motivation techniques on workers. This ranges from economic to ego incentives and any other desirable alternatives in which the workers express an interest. There tends to be a great deal of interaction between both individuals and groups, as well as two-way communication going up and down the hierarchy and side-ways communication between workers and superiors and their peers. The interaction tends to be friendly and contains a high degree of trust and confidence. Decision-making is done widely, throughout the organization and is largely based on group patterns to accomplish it. There is a lot of teamwork and some discouragement of one-man decisions. Goals, except in emergencies, are usually set by group participation and there is no resistance to these goals. Control is pretty much spread all over the organization. Production levels are excellent; there is low turnover, low absenteeism and very little dissension. Workers are usually encouraged to guide their own efforts and be independent as is efficiently possible (Likert, 1967).

Even though Likert tries not to favor one style or system over the others, he tends to lean toward the participative group style as the most effective of the four. It is Likert's belief that to get the most out of workers and an organization that participative groups tend to be more effective. In essence Likert is trying to say that

managerial effectiveness cannot be accomplished by management alone. It can only be accomplished by taking into consideration, all the factors that come into play, organization structure and behavior. Only then will a manager begin to see the full potential of his or her workers.

William J. Reddin (1970) is another author that believed managerial effectiveness could only be accomplished through the integration of all the factors that influence a system or organization. Reddin felt that the manager's only job was to be effective. In order to accomplish this job, Reddin developed a theory called the 3-D Theory of Managerial Effectiveness. This theory has four basic leadership or managerial styles, they are: (1) integrated, (2) dedicated, (3) related, and (4) separated (Reddin, 1970). The two distinct elements of any manager's job are the task to be done and the human relationship skills he or she needs to see that the task is accomplished. This theory is based on the relationship between task and relationship variables. These are the two central ideas upon which the styles are based. The dedicated style is a style with more than average Task Orientation and less than average Relationship Orientation. The integrated style has more than average Task Orientation and more than average Relationship Orientation. The related style has less than average Task Orientation and more than average Relationship Orientation.

The separated style has less than average Task Orientation and less than average Relationship Orientation (Reddin, 1970).

Leaders that use the dedicated style tend to structure and direct the work of followers, feeling they know a great deal about how best to do the work they assign to others. Since they tend to define and solve problems independently, this style is most appropriate when time pressure is great, danger exists, group interaction is not important, routine work is involved and the quality or quantity of output is easily measured. Some people expect this leadership style, and thus respond well. Other followers may lack skills or knowledge, be insecure on their job, and therefore welcome being told what to do, where, when, and how (Reddin, 1970).

Integrated style leaders try to structure work and involve others in cooperative achievement of organizational goals. They tend to motivate their followers by using feedback and stressing accountability, performance and discussion. They also tend to involve others in the decision-making process. This style is most appropriate when teamwork is needed, staff development is important, and complex varied job demands exist. Leaders using this style urge their subordinates to take on as much responsibility as they can handle, and try to establish a climate in which learning and personal development are valued and rewarded (Reddin, 1970).

Leaders who use the related style tend to identify with their followers and strive for a helpful and secure work atmosphere. They use friendships and praise to influence others, preferring not to use authority and tending to look for good points in people. The decision-making style used is participatory; they involve others early and often, and often do not make decisions until all can agree on what should be done. This style is most appropriate when followers have the skills and motivation to do their job well. When close direction is not needed and subordinate commitment and participation is important, this style can be effective (Reddin, 1970).

Separated style leaders feel most comfortable maintaining a defined tradition, procedure, or system. They tend to be impersonal and go out of their way to administer rules equitably. Often seen as being fair and objective about people and events, they rarely become emotionally involved. Most separated style leaders identify with the organization, its methods and policies, and their decision-making process incorporates a historical perspective. They ask questions: What did we do last time? Do we have any precedent to go by? Their decisions seldom plow up new ground or change direction, but rather maintain order and stability. Since the separated leader frequently delegates, this style is appropriate when followers are highly motivated, responsible self-starters who are skilled and

take pride in their accomplishments. Separated leaders also tend to do well in organizations that have defined tasks, clear rules or regulations, and are experiencing a slow change or growth rate (Reddin, 1970).

The key to Reddin's theory is that there is no best style. The situational factors of the organization and the people involved dictate which style is to be used. All of the styles introduced by Reddin can be effective if used in the situation or organizational setting for which it was meant to fit. In the past, the leader or manager was always looking for that one best way to run an organization. There is no one best way. There are many factors that must be considered and taken into account in order to develop an effective managerial style or to develop an effective organizational climate.

Summary

All of the styles reviewed in this chapter received extensive attention at some time in the past. Several of the styles or combination of some of the styles are currently in use. This review was not meant as a critique of the styles; but, merely a historical trend of the styles.

As previously stated, leadership is an integral part of community education. This researcher feels that a better understanding of leadership styles in general will

aid the reader to better understand the importance of leadership to community education. Also, it will help the reader to understand the importance of the study that has been done.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Statement of the Problem

In this study, the researcher attempted to describe a sample of community education coordinators in terms of leadership style. This was done by using the W. J. Reddin Management Style Diagnosis Test. The groups fell into eight categories indicated by the instrument. Four of these styles were considered effective and four of the styles were considered non-effective.

In an attempt to further describe what differences seem to be related, the variables age, sex, educational background, number of years in community education, and number of years in present position were studied to attempt to establish a better understanding of the various types of leadership styles that exist in Oklahoma.

Population and Sample of the Study

The population and sample of this study consisted of all 72 community education coordinators in the State of Oklahoma whose programs received funds from the Oklahoma Department of Education and those communities whose programs have been ongoing for at least one year.

Instrumentation

The Management Style Diagnosis Test, developed by W. J. Reddin, was the instrument used to identify the leadership styles of the sample designated in this study. The instrument identified a dominant or most frequently used style(s) and a supportive or second most frequently used style(s).

By combining the style(s) with the effectiveness rating of the coordinator, a style synthesis or average leadership style was determined. There was a possibility of eight different styles. There are four effective styles (Executive, Developer, Benevolent Autocrat, Bureaucrat) and four non-effective styles (Deserter, Missionary, Compromiser, Autocrat).

Data Acquisition

Questionnaires were mailed to each coordinator along with an introduction letter, a self-addressed stamped envelope, and instructions on how to complete the questionnaire. A two-week period was allowed for the return of the questionnaire. A follow-up letter was sent to the coordinators who did not respond in the first two-week period. Coordinators who did not respond in the four-week time period received a follow-up telephone call. Six weeks was the total time allotted for the return of the questionnaires. A total of 30 of the original 72 surveyed

responded to the questionnaire.

Treatment of the Data

Data from the questionnaires were grouped under the eight styles indicated by the instrument. These categories were:

- | | |
|----------------|------------------------|
| 1. Deserter | 5. Bureaucrat |
| 2. Missionary | 6. Developer |
| 3. Autocrat | 7. Benevolent Autocrat |
| 4. Compromiser | 8. Executive |

The eight leadership styles were grouped under the headings of either effective or non-effective. The deserter, missionary, autocrat, and compromiser are non-effective styles. Bureaucrat, developer, benevolent autocrat, and executive are effective styles. A Chi square was used to test the two groups independence (effective and non-effective) of the sex variable. Age, education level, number of years in community education and number of years in present position variables were tested by using the Student's "t" test. The hypothesis that the proportion of effective coordinators would be greater than .5 was tested with a binomial distribution "z" test.

The community education coordinators participating in this study were asked to select one statement from each of the sixty-four pairs of statements in the instrument. Based on their responses, a dominant style, a supporting

style, and a style synthesis was determined for each coordinator. The responses also indicated preferences to task orientation, relationship orientation and the effectiveness rating of the style synthesis. A coordinator's style synthesis would either have an effective rating or style (Executive, Benevolent, Autocrat, Developer, Bureaucrat) or a non-effective rating or style (Compromiser, Autocrat, Missionary, Deserter).

Summary of Methodology

The survey method, using the Management Style Diagnosis Test by W. J. Reddin, was used to collect data from community education coordinators recognized by the Oklahoma Department of Education. The results served as a basis to draw conclusions and make recommendations for further research.

Subjects completed and returned W. J. Reddin's Management Style Diagnosis Test and related demographic data. Reddin's test identified a style synthesis or average style which was labeled either effective or non-effective. The two groups of coordinators (effective and non-effective) were then compared with the demographic variables of age, sex, education level, years of experience in community education and years of experience in present position.

CHAPTER IV

Analysis of the Data

The data for this study were grouped and analyzed in two stages. The first stage was stating and describing the leadership styles of the coordinators in the sample using the W. J. Reddin Management Style Diagnosis Test and the demographic variables of age, education level, sex, years of experience in community education and years of experience in present position. The second stage was the testing of the hypothesis.

Description of Styles

The management style diagnosis test identifies eight different leadership styles. These styles are:

- | | |
|----------------|------------------------|
| 1. Deserter | 5. Bureaucrat |
| 2. Missionary | 6. Developer |
| 3. Autocrat | 7. Benevolent Autocrat |
| 4. Compromiser | 8. Executive |

The four non-effective styles are deserter, missionary, autocrat and compromiser. The four effective styles are bureaucrat, developer, benevolent autocrat and executive.

Of the 30 coordinators who responded to the survey questionnaire, 20 used one of the four effective styles and 10 used one of the four non-effective styles.

Mean scores for the variables of years experience in present position, years of experience in community education, age, and other demographic data are listed in Table 2.

TABLE 2
Demographic Data of 30 Coordinators Who
Responded to Survey Questionnaire

	Effective	Non-effective
Number of Respondents	20	10
Years in Community Education	$\bar{x}=3.35$	$\bar{x}=2.8$
Years in Present Position	$\bar{x}=2.55$	$\bar{x}=2.5$
Age	$\bar{x}=40.45$	$\bar{x}=37.8$
Sex Male	7	7
Female	13	3
Education Level H.S.	2	-
H.S.+	2	-
B.S.	6	4
M.S.	10	6

The deserter style is characterized by a non-intervention type strategy. The leader who uses this style tends to leave workers to themselves and prefers that he or she also is left alone. Leaders who use the missionary style of leadership are very enthusiastic and concerned about the

welfare of their workers to the exclusion of almost all else, including the work to be performed.

The autocrat style of leadership is at the opposite end of the spectrum of leadership in comparison with the missionary style. Leaders who use the autocrat style tend to be concerned with the job to be done to the exclusion of worker relations. The compromiser style of leadership tries to strike a balance between the work to be done and employee relations. By satisfying both sides, a compromise situation can be reached. The bureaucrat style of leadership is for a leadership position that requires extensive knowledge of rules and procedures. The leader who uses this style is effective in a situation where little personal interaction must occur and technical skills are the main ingredient for success.

The developer style of leadership is similar to the compromiser style. It requires knowledge and skill in both personal relations and technical objectives. This style is used where a balance is sought between people and the desired task is accomplishment. The benevolent autocrat style, like the autocrat style, places most emphasis on task and less on people. The benevolent autocrat style of leadership is ideal for situations where task orientation is the prominent objective.

Leaders who use the executive style of leadership are both people oriented and task oriented. These leaders be-

lieve that tasks can be accomplished and people can be happy simultaneously. This type of leadership would be the most desirable of all the leadership styles. However, it is also the hardest to accomplish. Each of the effective leadership styles has a particular situation or organization in which it is the most effective. Matching the leadership style to the situation is the key to effective leadership.

The demographic data for each of the eight individual styles are listed as follows:

Deserter Style	Table 3, Page 58
Missionary Style	Table 4, Page 59
Autocrat Style	Table 5, Page 60
Compromiser Style	Table 6, Page 61
Bureaucrat Style	Table 7, Page 62
Developer Style	Table 8, Page 63
Benevolent Autocrat Style	Table 9, Page 64
Executive Style	Table 10, Page 65

TABLE 3
 Demographic Data of Coordinators Who Used
 Deserter Style of Leadership

Number of Coordinators		2
Mean Age		$\bar{x}=45$
Years in Community Education		$\bar{x}=4.5$
Years in Present Position		$\bar{x}=4.5$
Education Level	M.S.	2
Sex	Male	2
	Female	-

TABLE 4

Demographic Data of Coordinators Who Used
Missionary Style of Leadership

Number of Coordinators		5
Mean Age		$\bar{x}=36.2$
Years in Community Education		$\bar{x}= 2.8$
Years in Present Position		$\bar{x}= 2.2$
Education Level	B.S.	2
	M.S.	3
Sex	Male	3
	Female	2

TABLE 5

Demographic Data of Coordinators Who Used
Autocrat Style of Leadership

Number of Coordinators		2
Mean Age		$\bar{x}=41$
Years in Community Education		$\bar{x}=4.5$
Years in Present Position		$\bar{x}=1.5$
Educational Level	B.S.	1
	M.S.	1
Sex	Male	2
	Female	-

TABLE 6
 Demographic Data of Coordinator Who Used
 Compromiser Style of Leadership

Number of Coordinators		1
Mean Age		$\bar{x}=25$
Years in Community Education		$\bar{x}= 2$
Years in Present Position		$\bar{x}= 2$
Education Level	B.S.	1
Sex	Male	-
	Female	1

TABLE 7
 Demographic Data of Coordinator Who Used
 Bureaucrat Style of Leadership

Number of Coordinators		1
Mean Age		$\bar{x}=50$
Years in Community Education		$\bar{x}= 7$
Years in Present Position		$\bar{x}= 5$
Education Level	M.S.	1
Sex	Male	1
	Female	-

TABLE 8
 Demographic Data of Coordinators Who Used
 Developer Style of Leadership

Number of Coordinators		9
Mean Age		$\bar{x}=39.8$
Years in Community Education		$\bar{x}= 4$
Years in Present Position		$\bar{x}= 3.1$
Education Level	H.S.	1
	B.S.	3
	M.S.	5
Sex	Male	3
	Female	6

TABLE 9
 Demographic Data of Coordinators Who Used
 Benevolent Autocrat Style of Leadership

Number of Coordinators		6
Mean Age		$\bar{x}=41.83$
Years in Community Education		$\bar{x}= 1.83$
Years in Present Position		$\bar{x}= 1.16$
Educational Level	H.S.	1
	H.S.+	1
	B.S.	1
	M.S.	3
Sex	Male	2
	Female	4

TABLE 10

Demographic Data of Coordinators Who Used
Executive Style of Leadership

Number of Coordinators		4
Mean Age		$\bar{x}=37.25$
Years in Community Education		$\bar{x}= 3.25$
Years in Present Position		$\bar{x}= 2$
Education Level	H.S.+	1
	B.S.	2
	M.S.	1
Sex	Male	1
	Female	3

Tests of the Hypotheses

Six hypotheses were tested in this study. Each hypothesis will be presented followed by the results of its test or tests.

H_1 There will be no difference between the groups of effective coordinators and non-effective coordinators when the groups are compared with the demographic variable of age.

Hypothesis 1 was tested by using a student's t test to determine whether there was a significant difference between the two groups when compared to one another using the demographic variable of age. Results of the t test indicated that there was no significant difference between the groups. The results from the t test in Table 11 supported the hypothesis of no difference when the groups were compared with the demographic variable of age.

TABLE 11

Student's t Test Between Effective and Non-Effective Coordinators with Variable of Age

Group	N	Mean	t Value
Effective	20	40.45	.78
Non-Effective	10	37.8	

H_2 There will be no difference between the groups of effective coordinators and non-effective coordinators when the groups are compared with the demographic variable of years of education.

The results of hypothesis 2 were derived by using the median test and then using chi-square to test for significance. The results of the median test and chi-square indicate there was no significant difference between the groups and the data supported the null hypothesis of no difference. The data related to this hypothesis and its tests are presented in Table 12.

TABLE 12

Chi-Square Analysis Between Effective and Non-Effective Coordinators With the Variable of Education

Group	N	df	χ^2
Effective	20	19	.82
Non-Effective	10	9	

H_3 There will be no difference between the groups of effective coordinators and non-effective coordinators when the groups are compared with the demographic variable of years experience in present position.

Hypothesis 3 was tested by using a student's t test to determine whether there was a significant difference be-

tween the two groups when compared to one another using the demographic variable of years experience in present position. The results of the related data in Table 13 indicated that there was no significant difference between the groups and the data supported the null hypothesis.

TABLE 13

Student's t Test Results for Demographic
Variable of Years in Present Position

Group	N	Mean	<u>t</u> Value
Effective	20	2.55	.06
Non-Effective	10	2.50	

H₄ There will be no difference between the groups of effective and non-effective coordinators when the groups are compared with the demographic variable of years in community education.

The results of hypothesis 4 were acquired by testing the two groups with a student's t test for the demographic variable of years spent in community education. The related data in Table 14 indicated that there was no significant difference between the two groups when compared with this variable. Therefore, the data supported the null hypothesis.

TABLE 14
Student's t Test Results for Demographic
of Years in Community Education

Group	N	Mean	<u>t</u> Value
Effective	20	3.35	.64
Non-Effective	10	2.80	

H₅ There will be no difference between the groups of effective coordinators and non-effective coordinators when the groups are compared with the demographic variable of sex.

Hypothesis 5 was tested using a chi-square to determine if there was a significant difference between the two groups when compared with the variable of sex. The related data in Table 15 shows a significantly higher chi-square value than the 3.85 value needed to show significance at the .05 level of significance. The data, therefore, supported rejection of the null hypothesis. There was a significant difference between the two groups when compared with the demographic variable of sex.

TABLE 15

Chi-Square Analysis for Demographic Variable of Sex
Between Effective and Non-effective Coordinators

Group	N	df	χ^2
Effective	20	19	6.6
Non-Effective	10	9	

H_6 There will be a proportion of coordinators using effective leadership styles greater than 50 percent.

Hypothesis 6 was tested by using a binomial z test. The z score for the related data in Table 16 was 1.83. The related data rejects the hypothesis that the proportion of effective coordinators will equal 50 percent and accepts the hypothesis the proportion will be greater than 50 percent. On this basis, it can be concluded that the proportion of effective coordinators was greater than 50 percent.

TABLE 16

Binomial Distribution z Test Results for H_6

Group	N	Sample Proportion	z Score
Effective	20	.67	1.83
Non-Effective	10	.33	

Summary of Data Analysis

Six hypotheses were postulated and tested in this study. One hypothesis was rejected and five were supported. Results of the data analysis indicated that there was no significant differences between the two groups of effective coordinators and non-effective coordinators when compared with the demographic variables of age, educational level, years of experience in community education and years of experience in present position. There was, however, a significant difference between the two groups of coordinators when compared with the demographic variable of sex. There was also a significantly larger proportion of effective coordinators represented in the sample than there were non-effective coordinators in the sample.

CHAPTER V

Summary, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Community education coordinators are the key to an effective smooth-running community education program. They are called upon to coordinate, supervise, administrate and oversee most of the functions in their programs. Their leadership can influence the program to a great extent. A coordinator's knowledge about leadership, in general, and his or her own leadership style, in particular, can be crucial to the effectiveness of the coordinator.

This study's primary concern was to indentify the leadership styles of these community education coordinators. A secondary concern of this study was to describe the demographic variables that might influence leadership style.

Summary

This study was designed to identify the leadership styles used by community education coordinators and investigate the factors that could influence those styles. The investigator sought to determine if the demographic variables of age, sex, education level, years of experience in community education and years of experience in present position affected whether a coordinator used an effective

style of leadership or a non-effective style of leadership. Literature indicated that effective leaders would be better educated than non-effective leaders and would have more experience in their jobs and their field of study. Older leaders would tend to have more experience and time in the field of study, so age also was considered an influencing factor. Sex also was considered, for leadership has traditionally been a male-dominated area.

Of the 30 coordinators who responded to the survey, 16 were men and 14 were women. Their education levels ranged from high school graduates to coordinators with master's degrees. They ranged in age from 24 to 64 years. Their years of experience in community education ranged from one to eight years and their years of experience in present position ranged from one to eight years.

The data was analyzed with four statistical tests. Student's t tests were used to compare the two groups with the demographic variables of age, years of experience in community education and years of experience in present position. The demographic variable of education was treated with a median test and a chi-square for the two group's comparison of this variable. The demographic variable of sex was also tested with a chi-square.

No differences were found between the two groups of community education coordinators when compared with the demographic variables of education level, age, years of ex-

perience in community education and years of experience in present position using the afore mentioned tests. The chi-square analysis of the demographic variable of sex did demonstrate a significant difference between the two groups when compared by this variable. There was also a significantly larger proportion of effective coordinators represented in the sample than there were non-effective coordinators.

Discussion and Conclusions

The findings of this study supported the null hypothesis of no difference for the demographic variable of age. The researcher reasoned that older coordinators would have the benefit of their years of experience and possibly be more effective than younger coordinators. The study did not bear this out. An explanation of this might be that community education is a relatively new process and not enough coordinators have more experience than others in the field. Further study in this area might help clarify whether or not age does, in fact, affect leadership style in any way.

The null hypothesis of no difference for the demographic variable of education level was also supported by the findings in this study. Literature supports the expectation that better educated and better trained leaders tend to be more effective than leaders with less education

and less training. The study did not bear this out. It is recommended that additional research be done in the area to shed further light on this variable.

The demographic variable of years of experience in present position did not significantly affect the two groups of coordinators. Literature suggested that leaders with experience in their jobs tend to benefit from this experience. The data from the study did not support this expectation. It is not readily apparent why more experienced coordinators were not more effective than coordinators with less experience. This variable needs further research to help clarify its effect, if any, on leadership style.

The null hypothesis of no difference for the demographic variable of years of experience in community education was supported by the findings of the study. The researcher reasoned that coordinators with more experience in the field of community education would tend to be more effective than coordinators with less experience in the field of community education. A possible explanation for this lack of significant difference between the two groups of community educators might be the lack of experience of the coordinators as a whole. Community education is still a relatively new process and people with lots of experience in it are reasonably rare.

The demographic variable of sex was the one

demographic variable that did show a significant difference between the two groups of coordinators when compared with this variable. The finding that the variable of sex may be attributed to several factors. Three possible factors are:

1. The traditional male-dominated styles of leadership.
2. Women may have innate superior communications or relating skills.
3. Women may have more need to be successful and work harder to achieve their aims.

The finding that two-thirds of the coordinators who responded to the questionnaire used effective leadership styles may be attributed to several factors. Some of those possible factors are:

1. The coordinators were effectively and thoroughly trained.
2. The theory and philosophy of community education is understood and applied by this sample of coordinators.
3. These coordinators were well matched to their positions.
4. Coordinators may have incorrectly assessed themselves.

The late entry of women into the field of leadership does not seem to be a strong influence on choice of style

of leadership. However, women do seem to have or deal with a different set of circumstances, goals, objectives than men might have or use. Environmental pressures are different on women than men, therefore, they will react differently and possibly carry a different set of values to the job.

The traditional male-dominated styles of leadership may hold little appeal to women as a group. Traditional leadership styles often call for the leader to control much of what goes on in an organization or group. Autocratic leadership is not congruent with the goals and objectives of community education. Community education is far more suited to group-centered and situational leadership styles which use the communication and relating skills of the leader to accomplish group needs and goals.

It is possible that women have innate superior communication and relating skills and are putting them to use to account for the superior number of effective female coordinators in the survey. Or, it could be that sex-role socialization has prepared women to be more effective with these particular styles than men. Finally, it could be that women, who for years have been kept out of leadership positions, have a greater need to succeed and are working harder to achieve their aims than are men in similar positions. Any single factor or combination of these factors may have influenced this finding.

Much research remains to be accomplished in the fields of community education and leadership. First, future research studies should endeavor to include the organizational factors of an organization as well as the personal factors of people or leaders involved in the study. Second, future research should consider formal evaluation of the institutions utilized in the training and educating of community educators. Future research should be aimed at all levels of community education.

Age, education, and experience are not major determinents of coordinators' leadership in community education programs in the State of Oklahoma.

Gender is a major determinant of coordinators' leadership style in community education programs in the State of Oklahoma.

Recommendations for Further Research

The suggestions for further research are:

1. Conduct a study concerning how age and experience affect leadership.
2. Conduct a study to assess the impact of education on leaders' effectiveness in their jobs.
3. Conduct a study to assess why gender influenced choice of leadership style in this study.
4. Conduct a study to evaluate state institutions to see whether they are adhering to community

education philosophy and thought.

5. Conduct a study to evaluate the effectiveness of other leaders involved in state community education programs; leaders such as superintendents, principals and building-level supervisors of school districts that have community education programs.
6. Conduct some norming studies on the Reddin Managerial Diagnosis Test to test for biases involving gender, experience, and education.
7. Conduct a study with a larger sample.

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APPENDIX A

April 15, 1983

Dear Community Educator:

Realizing your time is at a premium, I would appreciate your spending 20 minutes assisting me in the collection of valuable data relating to a study about leadership styles in community education that I am conducting as a doctoral student for completion of my degree in adult and community education.

As a person who has responsibility as administrator of the district's community education program, your input will be greatly appreciated. The survey instrument being used is called the "Management Style Diagnosis Test" developed by W. J. Reddin.

The purpose of the survey instrument is to identify the different styles of leadership used in community education programs across the state. The programs being sampled by this study are those funded or recognized by the Oklahoma State Department of Education.

Would you please help by completing the enclosed questionnaire as accurately as possible and return it in the stamped, self-addressed envelope, which is provided for your convenience, before May 15, 1983?

Coordinators will not be referred to in this study other than as the number assigned to each returned survey instrument. If you would like a copy of the results of this study, please make a notation on the questionnaire and you will receive a copy of the results shortly after the completion of the study.

Your time and consideration in this matter are sincerely appreciated.

Respectfully yours,

Ricky Blackburn

pl

enclosures: questionnaire
stamped envelope

APPENDIX B

May 5, 1983

Dear Community Educator:

In April of this year a questionnaire was sent to you requesting information which will be of value to me in completing my dissertation.

The information is vital to the study in which I am engaged; therefore, I urge you to complete the questionnaire and return it to me as quickly as possible.

Please accept my sincere thanks for your cooperation in this study! If you have already returned the questionnaire, I am most appreciative.

Sincerely,

Ricky Blackburn

pl

APPENDIX C

INSTRUCTIONS

To decide which statement best applies, ask yourself: Of the two statements given, which best describes what I actually do on the job I now have?

It may be helpful, in difficult cases, to answer as someone would who really knew and understood your present approach to your job. Some statements you may find a little ambiguous, sometimes both will apply, often neither will seem to apply. However, in every case pick the one statement that best describes you at present if you were faced with the circumstances described.

DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

1. Number of years in present position. _____
2. Position previously held and years employed in that position. _____

3. Highest education level attained. _____
4. Age. _____
5. Male or female. _____
6. Indicate all training received in community education, including state and national conventions.

7. Indicate number of years in community education. _____

QUESTIONNAIRE

1. A. He or she overlooks violations of rules if he or she is sure that no one else knows of the violations.
B. When he or she announces an unpopular decision, he or she may explain to his or her subordinates that his or her own boss has made the decision.
2. A. If an employee's work is continually unsatisfactory he or she would wait for an opportunity to have the employee transferred rather than dismiss the employee.
B. If one of his or her subordinates is not a part of the group, he or she will go out of his or her way to have the others befriend their co-worker.
3. A. When the boss gives an unpopular order, he or she thinks it is fair that it should carry the boss's name, and not his or her own.
B. He or she usually reaches his or her decisions independently, and then informs his or her subordinates of them.
4. A. If he or she is reprimanded by his or her superiors, he or she calls his or her subordinates together and passes it on to them.
B. He or she always gives the most difficult jobs to his or her most experienced workers.
5. A. He or she allows discussions to get off the point quite frequently.
B. He or she encourages subordinates to make suggestions, but does not often initiate action from them.
6. A. He or she sometimes thinks that his or her own feelings and attitudes are as important as the job.
B. He or she allows his or her subordinates to participate in decision making, and always abides by the decision of the majority.

7. A. When the quality or quantity of departmental work is not satisfactory, he or she explains to his or her subordinates that his or her own boss is not satisfied, and that they must improve their work.
B. He or she reaches his or her decisions independently, and then tries to "sell" them to his or her subordinates.
8. A. When he or she announces an unpopular decision, he or she may explain to his or her subordinates that his or her own boss has made the decision.
B. He or she may allow his or her subordinates to participate in decision making, but he or she reserves the right to make the final decision.
9. A. He or she may give difficult jobs to inexperienced subordinates, but if they get into trouble he or she will relieve them of the responsibility.
B. When the quality or quantity of departmental work is not satisfactory, he or she explains to his or her subordinates that his or her own boss is not satisfied, and that they must improve their work.
10. A. He or she feels it is as important for his or her subordinates to like him or her as it is for them to work hard.
B. He or she lets other people handle jobs by themselves, even though they may make many mistakes.
11. A. He or she shows an interest in his or her subordinates' personal lives because he or she feels they expect it of him or her.
12. A. He or she believes that disciplining subordinates will not improve the quality or quantity of their work in the long run.
B. When confronted with a difficult problem, he or she attempts to reach a solution which will be at least partly acceptable to all concerned.
13. A. He or she thinks that some of his or her subordinates are unhappy, and tries to do something about it.

- B. He or she looks after his or her own work, and feels it is up to higher management to develop new ideas.
- 14. A. He or she is in favor of increased fringe benefits for management and labor.
- B. He or she shows concern for increasing his or her subordinates' knowledge of the job and the company, even though it is not necessary in their present position.
- 15. A. He or she lets other people handle jobs by themselves, even though they make many mistakes.
- B. He or she makes decisions independently, but may consider reasonable suggestions from his or her subordinates to improve them if he or she asks for them.
- 16. A. If one of his or her subordinates is not a part of the group, he or she will go out of his or her way to have the others befriend him or her.
- B. When an employee is unable to complete a task, he or she helps him or her to arrive at a solution.
- 17. A. He or she believes that one of the uses of discipline is to set an example for other workers.
- B. He or she sometimes thinks that his or her own feelings and attitudes are as important as the job.
- 18. A. He or she disapproves of unnecessary talking among his or her subordinates while they are working.
- B. He or she is in favor of increased fringe benefits for management and labor.
- 19. A. He or she is always aware of lateness and absenteeism.
- B. He or she believes that unions may try to undermine the authority of management.
- 20. A. He or she sometimes opposes union grievances as a matter of principle.

- B. He or she feels that grievances are inevitable and tries to smooth them over as best he can.
- 21. A. It is important to him or her to get credit for his or her own good ideas.
- B. He or she voices his or her own opinions in public only if he or she feels that others will agree with him or her.
- 22. A. He or she believes that unions may try to undermine the authority of management.
- B. He or she believes that frequent conferences with individuals are helpful in their development.
- 23. A. He or she feels it is not always necessary for subordinates to understand why they do something, as long as they do it.
- B. He or she feels that time-clocks reduce tardiness.
- 24. A. He or she usually reaches his or her decisions independently, and then informs his or her subordinates of them.
- B. He or she feels that unions and management are working toward similar goals.
- 25. A. He or she favors the use of individual incentive payment schemes.
- B. He or she allows discussions to get off the point quite frequently.
- 26. A. He or she takes pride in the fact that he or she would not usually ask someone to do a job he or she would not do himself or herself.
- B. He or she thinks that some of his or her subordinates are unhappy, and tries to do something about it.
- 27. A. If a job is urgent, he or she might go ahead and tell someone to do it, even though additional safety equipment is needed.
- B. It is important to him or her to get credit for his or her own good ideas.

28. A. His or her goal is to get the work done without antagonizing anyone more than he or she has to.
- B. He or she may assign jobs without much regard for experience or ability but insists on getting results.
29. A. He or she may assign jobs without much regard for experience or ability but insists on getting results.
- B. He or she listens patiently to complaints and grievances, but often does little to rectify them.
30. A. He or she feels that grievances are inevitable and tries to smooth them over as best he or she can.
- B. He or she is confident that his or her subordinates will do satisfactory work without any pressure from him or her.
31. A. When confronted with a difficult problem, he or she attempts to reach a solution which will be at least partly acceptable to all concerned.
- B. He or she believes that training through on-the-job experience is more useful than theoretical education.
32. A. He or she always gives the most difficult jobs to his or her most experienced workers.
- B. He or she believes in promotion only in accordance with ability.
33. A. He or she feels that problems among his or her workers will usually solve themselves without interference from him or her.
- B. If he or she is reprimanded by his or her superiors, he or she calls his or her subordinates together and passes it on to them.
34. A. He or she is not concerned with what his or her employees do outside of working hours.
- B. He or she believes that disciplining subordinates will not improve the quality or quantity of their work in the long run.

35. A. He or she passes no more information to higher management than they ask for.
- B. He or she sometimes opposes union grievances as a matter of principle.
36. A. He or she sometimes hesitates to make decisions which will be unpopular with his or her subordinates.
- B. His or her goal is to get the work done without antagonizing anyone more than he or she has to.
37. A. He or she listens patiently to complaints and grievances, but often does little to rectify them.
- B. He or she sometimes hesitates to make a decision which he or she feels will be unpopular with his or her subordinates.
38. A. He or she voices his or her own opinions in public only if he or she feels that others will agree with him or her.
- B. Most of his or her subordinates could carry on their jobs without him or her if necessary.
39. A. He or she looks after his or her own work, and feels it is up to higher management to develop new ideas.
- B. When he or she gives orders, he or she sets a time limit for them to be carried out.
40. A. He or she encourages subordinates to make suggestions, but does not often initiate action from them.
- B. He or she tries to put his or her workers at ease when talking to them.
41. A. In discussion he or she presents the facts as he or she sees them, and leaves others to draw their own conclusions.
- B. When the boss gives an unpopular order, he or she thinks it is fair that it should carry the boss's name, and not his or her own.

42. A. When unwanted work has to be done, he or she asks for volunteers before assigning it.
- B. He or she shows an interest in his or her subordinates' personal lives because he or she feels they expect it of him or her.
43. A. He or she is as much interested in keeping his or her employees happy as in getting them to do their work.
- B. He or she is always aware of lateness and absenteeism.
44. A. Most of his or her subordinates could carry on their jobs without him or her if necessary.
- B. If a job is urgent, he or she might go ahead and tell someone to do it, even though additional safety equipment is needed.
45. A. He or she is confident that his or her subordinates will do satisfactory work without any pressure from him or her.
- B. He or she passes no more information to higher management than they ask for.
46. A. He or she believes that frequent conferences with individuals are helpful in their development.
- B. He or she is as much interested in keeping his or her employees happy as in getting them to do their work.
47. A. He or she shows concern for increasing his or her subordinates' knowledge of the job and the company, even though it is not necessary in their present position.
- B. He or she keeps a very close watch on workers who get behind or do unsatisfactory work.
48. A. He or she allows his or her subordinates to participate in decision making, and always abides by the decision of the majority.
- B. He or she makes his or her subordinates work hard, but tries to make sure that they usually get a fair deal from higher management.

49. A. He or she feels that all workers on the same job should receive the same pay.
- B. If any employee's work is continually unsatisfactory, he or she would wait for an opportunity to have him or her transferred rather than dismiss him or her.
50. A. He or she feels that the goals of union and management are in opposition but tries not to make his or her view obvious.
- B. He or she feels it is as important for his or her subordinates to like him or her as it is for them to work hard.
51. A. He or she keeps a very close watch on workers who get behind or do unsatisfactory work.
- B. He or she disapproves of unnecessary talking among his or her subordinates while they are working.
52. A. When he or she gives orders, he or she sets a limit for them to be carried out.
- B. He or she takes pride in the fact that he or she would not usually ask someone to do a job he or she would not do himself or herself.
53. A. He or she believes that training through on-the-job experience is more useful than theoretical education.
- B. He or she is not concerned with what his or her employees do outside of working hours.
54. A. He or she feels that time-clocks reduce tardiness.
- B. He or she allows his or her subordinates to participate in decision making, and always abides by the decisions of the majority.
55. A. He or she makes decisions independently, but may consider reasonable suggestions from his or her subordinates to improve them if he or she asks for them.
- B. He or she feels that the goals of union and management are in opposition but tries not to

make his or her view obvious.

- 56. A. He or she reaches his or her decisions independently, and then tries to "sell" them to his or her subordinates.
- B. When possible he or she forms work teams out of people who are already good friends.
- 57. A. He or she would not hesitate to hire a handicapped worker if he or she felt he or she could learn the job.
- B. He or she overlooks violations of rules if he or she is sure that no one else knows of the violations.
- 58. A. When possible he or she forms work teams out of people who are already good friends.
- B. He or she may give difficult jobs to inexperienced subordinates, but if they get in trouble he or she will relieve them of the responsibility.
- 59. A. He or she makes his or her subordinates work hard, but tries to make sure that they usually get a fair deal from higher management.
- B. He or she believes that one of the uses of discipline is to set an example for other workers.
- 60. A. He or she tries to put his or her workers at ease when talking to them.
- B. He or she favors the use of individual incentive payment schemes.
- 61. A. He or she believes in promotion only in accordance with ability.
- B. He or she feels that problems among his or her workers will usually solve themselves without interference from him or her.
- 62. A. He or she feels that unions and management are working toward similar goals.

- B. In discussion he or she presents the facts as he or she sees them and leaves others to draw their own conclusions.
- 63. A. When an employee is unable to complete a task, he or she helps him or her to arrive at a solution.
- B. He or she feels that all workers on the same job should receive the same pay.
- 64. A. He or she may allow his or her subordinates to participate in decision making, but he or she reserves the right to make the final decision.
- B. He or she would not hesitate to hire a handicapped worker if he or she felt he or she could learn the job.