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THE DYNAMICS OF CREATIVE LEADERSHIP FOR INDUSTRIAL ARTS EDUCATION

1983

American Council on Industrial Arts Teacher Education

32nd Yearbook

THE DYNAMICS OF CREATIVE LEADERSHIP FOR INDUSTRIAL ARTS EDUCATION

THE DYNAMICS OF CREATIVE LEADERSHIP FOR INDUSTRIAL ARTS EDUCATION

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32nd Yearbook, 1983

American Council on Industrial Arts Teacher Education

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Foreword

Copies of the thirty-one yearbooks of the American Council on Industrial Arts Teacher Education (ACIATE) are on a shelf next to my desk. It is interesting to note that the first yearbook, published in 1952, was centered on an analysis of programs in Industrial Arts Teacher Education. This particular copy of the yearbook has the original notes and comments of its editor and our first council president.

The first yearbook was concerned with the status of Industrial Arts Teacher Education and its facilities, personnel, and programs. It seems appropriate that Yearbook Thirty-Two is centered on creative leadership and opportunities offered by our profession in regard to the rapidly changing technological society. Clearly, the pressures of our day dictate that Industrial Arts Teacher Educators must be actively involved in all aspects of creative, substantive, and educationally sound leadership. Editors Robert Wenig of North Carolina and John Matthews of Tennessee, both show insight and perception in the development of this yearbook. These individuals and other chapter authors are to be commended for their scholarly and thought-provoking contributions. This yearbook is a welcome addition to the profession in a period of critical need for strong and constructive leadership in every aspect of our society.

The Council commends McKnight Publishing Company for its support and contributions to the publishing of the ACIATE yearbooks over the past thirty-two years. Our profession is truly indebted to them.

30 April 1983

Walter R. Williams III

President, American Council on
Industrial Arts Teacher Education

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Yearbook Proposals

Each year, at the AIAA international conference, the ACIATE Yearbook Committee reviews the progress of yearbooks in preparation and evaluates proposals for additional yearbooks. Any member is welcome to submit a yearbook proposal. It should be written in sufficient detail for the committee to be able to understand the proposed substance and format, and sent to the committee chairman by February 1 of the year in which the conference is held. Below are the criteria employed by the committee in making yearbook selections.

ACIATE Yearbook Committee

Guidelines for ACIATE Yearbook Topic Selection

With reference to a specific topic:

1. It should make a direct contribution to the understanding and the improvement of industrial arts teacher education.
2. It should avoid duplication of the publications activities of other professional groups.
3. It should confine its content to professional education subject matter of a kind that does not infringe upon the area of textbook publication which treats a specific body of subject matter in a structured, formal way.
4. It should not be exploited as an opportunity to promote and publicize one man's or one institution's philosophy unless the volume includes other similar efforts that have enjoyed some degree of popularity and acceptance in the profession.
5. While it may encourage and extend what is generally accepted as good in existing theory and practice, it should also actively and constantly seek to upgrade and modernize professional action in the area of industrial arts teacher education.
6. It can raise controversial questions in an effort to get a national hearing and as a prelude to achieving something approaching a national consensus.
7. It may consider as available for discussion and criticism any ideas of individuals or organizations that have gained some degree of acceptance as a result of dissemination either through formal publication, through oral presentation, or both.
8. It can consider a variety of seemingly conflicting trends and statements emanating from a variety of sources and motives, analyze them, consolidate and thus seek out and delineate key problems to enable the profession to make a more concerted effort at finding a solution.

Approved, Yearbook Planning Committee
March 15, 1967, Philadelphia, PA.

Previously Published Yearbooks

*1. *Inventory Analysis of Industrial Arts Teacher Education Facilities, Personnel and Programs*, 1952
*2. *Who's Who in Industrial Arts Teacher Education*, 1953.
*3. *Some Components of Current Leadership; Techniques of Selection and Guidance of Graduate Students; An Analysis of Textbook Emphases;* 1954, three studies.
*4. *Superior Practices in Industrial Arts Teacher Education*, 1955.
*5. *Problems and Issues in Industrial Arts Teacher Education*, 1956.
*6. *A Sourcebook of Reading in Education for Use in Industrial Arts and Industrial Arts Teacher Education*, 1957.
*7. *The Accreditation of Industrial Arts Teacher Education*, 1958.
*8. Planning Industrial Arts Facilities, 1959, Ralph K. Nair, ed.
*9. *Research in Industrial Arts Education*, 1960. Raymond Van Tassel, ed.
*10. *Graduate Study in Industrial Arts*, 1961. R. P. Norman and R. C. Bohn, eds.
*11. *Essentials of Preservice Preparation*, 1962. Donald G. Lux, ed.
*12. *Action and Thought in Industrial Arts Education*, 1963. E. A. T. Svendsen, ed.
*13. *Classroom Research in Industrial Arts*, 1964. Charles B. Porter, ed.
14. *Approaches and Procedures in Industrial Arts*, 1965. G. S. Wall, ed.
15. *Status of Research in Industrial Arts*, 1966. John D. Rowlett, ed.
16. *Evaluation Guidelines for Contemporary Industrial Arts Programs*, 1967. Lloyd P. Nelson and William T. Sargent, eds.
17. *A Historical Perspective of Industry*, 1968. Joseph F. Luetkemeyer, Jr., ed.
18. *Industrial Technology Education*, 1969. C. Thomas Dean and N. A. Hauer, eds. *Who's Who in Industrial Arts Teacher Education*, 1969. John M. Pollock and Charles A. Bunten, eds.
19. *Industrial Arts for Disadvantaged Youth*, 1970. Ralph O. Gallington, ed.
20. *Components of Teacher Education*, 1971. W. E. Ray and J. Streichler, eds.
21. *Industrial Arts for the Early Adolescent*, 1972. Daniel L. Householder, ed.
*22. *Industrial Arts in Senior High Schools*, 1973. Rutherford E. Lockette, ed.
23. *Industrial Arts for the Elementary School*, 1974. Robert G. Thrower and Robert D. Weber, eds.
24. *A Guide to the Planning of Industrial Arts Facilities*, 1975. D. E. Moon, ed.
25. *Future Alternatives for Industrial Arts*, 1976. Lee H. Smalley, ed.
26. *Competency-Based Industrial Arts Teacher Education*, 1977. Jack C. Brueckman and Stanley E. Brooks, eds.
27. *Industrial Arts in the Open Access Curriculum*, 1978. L. D. Anderson, ed.
28. *Industrial Arts Education: Retrospect, Prospect*, 1979. G. Eugene Martin, ed.
29. *Technology and Society: Interfaces with Industrial Arts*, 1980. Herbert A. Anderson and M. James Bensen, eds.
30. *An Interpretive History of Industrial Arts*, 1981. Richard Barella and Thomas Wright, eds.
31. *The Contributions of Industrial Arts to Selected Areas of Education*, 1982. Donald Maley and Kendall N. Starkeather, eds.

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*Out-of-print yearbooks can be obtained in microform and in Xerox copies. For information on price and delivery, write to Xerox University Microfilms, 300 North Zeeb Road, Ann Arbor, Michigan, 48106.

CONTENTS

Foreword . . . . **5**   Preface **17**

Section I. Selected Dimensions and Perceptions of Leadership **19**

CHAPTER

1 Ideals of Leadership and the Individual's Function (Wenig and Matthews) **20**

2 History and Development of Leadership Research and Review of Selected Theoretical Models (Coomer) **36**

Section II. The Dynamics of Creative Leaders in Gaining and Retaining Followers **57**

CHAPTER

3 Operating from the Art of the Possible (Peter) **58**

4 The Driving Forces of Creative Leadership (Wolansky and Shores) **70**

Section III. Dimensions, Selection, and Development of Creative Leaders **93**

CHAPTER

5 Dimensions of Creative Leaders: Profiles of Leadership (Miller) **94**
6 Identifying, Recruiting, and Selecting Potential Creative Leaders (Pyle and Farmer) **104**
7 Ways and Means of Developing Creative Industrial Arts Education Leaders (Todd) **119**

Section IV. Application of Creative Leadership to Selected Professional Activities **137**

CHAPTER

8 Achieving Goals Through Group Action (Horton) **138**
9 Departmental Leadership Through The Dynamics of Personnel Actions (Streichler) **150**
10 Achieving Appropriate Faculty Personnel Actions: A University Perspective (Rosser and Cochran) **176**
11 Gaining and Maintaining Professionalism (Hanson) **194**
12 Acquiring Financial Support and Providing Equitable Distribution (Matthews) **218**
13 Time Management (Householder) **232**
14 Coping with the Stress of Leadership: Leaders-Followers-Organization (Wenig) **253**

Section V. Reviewing and Implementing Creative Leadership **281**

CHAPTER
15 In Summary: A Guide To Implementation (Smith and Evans) **282**

Epilogue. Leadership Enhancement (Wenig and Matthews) **293**

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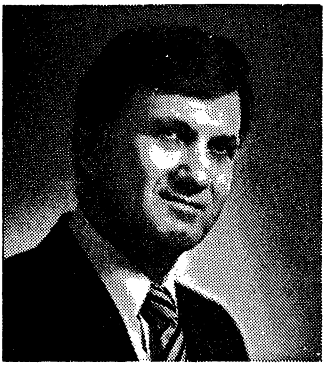

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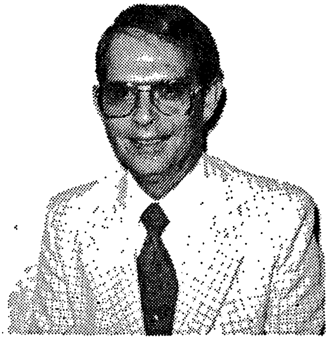

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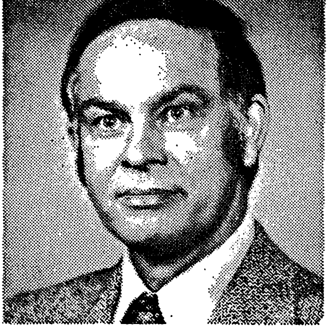

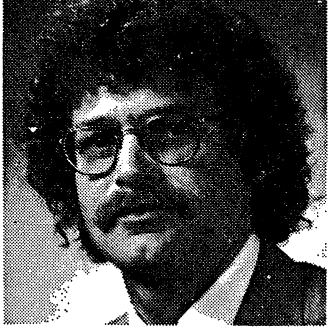

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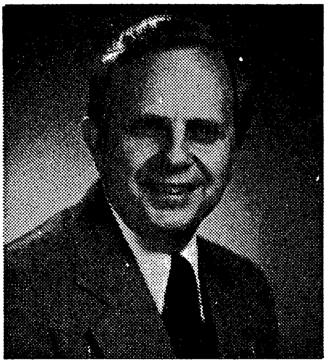

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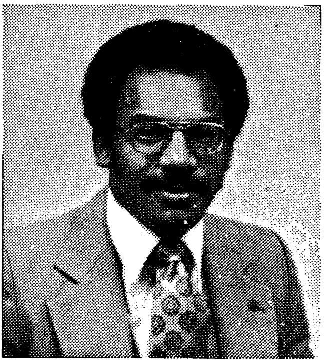

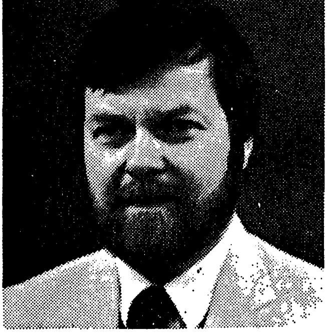

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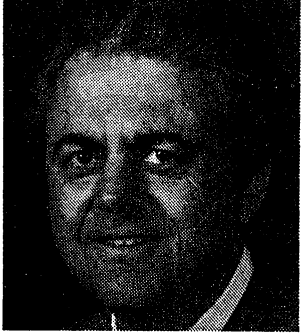

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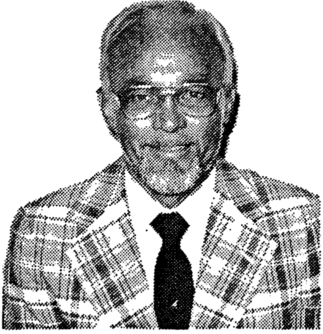

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Preface

Leadership can make the difference between the success or failure of an individual or group in a given situation or event. The dynamics of creative leadership are demonstrated when an individual or group is able to execute those behaviors which influence others to join in accomplishing a mutually agreed-upon task or goal.

Numerous library references on leadership suggest that it is the most studied, yet least understood social-political phenomenon in society. Distinguished scholars throughout history have attempted to identify the specific elements or factors of a successful leader. In each case, the specified idea, theory, and principle seemed to fall short when subjected to stiff scrutiny. The quest continues in seeking those leadership ingredients that will enable the leader, follower, and organization to better serve each other so as to reach the intended societal purpose in the most efficient and effective manner.

Industrial arts education has emerged from a rich historical background to be considered a viable school subject. It has achieved this important position through people of vision and dedication that gave the profession direction and purpose. The ability of industrial arts to serve students appropriately in an accelerating technological society depends on its leadership knowledge and skills. The best acid test of this leadership quality will rest with the consumer.

A consumer-oriented organization or profession provides ample opportunities for individual and group leadership development and execution. In contrast, those organizations and professions that become non-consumer oriented have typically failed to develop and use individual and group leadership dynamics. The result of leadership dominated by only a few functionaries, can be that the original goal to serve the consumer adequately will be replaced with merely preserving and maintaining the status quo. Eventually, the consumer might ask the question, "What is the value or worth of the services being provided?"

Industrial arts is an organization and a profession that has survived by serving specific educational consumers. As the consumer demands change, every industrial arts educator must be ready, willing, and capable to meet the challenge to provide effective service. For the profession to serve its consumers better, every industrial arts educator must learn how to be creative in influencing and working with others. Dynamic aspects of individual and collective leadership begin when leaders learn that obstacles can become opportunities. The resulting attitude can become positive and enthusiastic toward appropriate goal orientation that leads to group success, including the allowance for overcoming difficulties.

This yearbook on the dynamics of creative leadership attempts to provide the basic elements necessary for all industrial arts educators to rise above self-interest and improve their professional services. The significant benefit to the individual will come through that feeling of improved self worth and accomplishment that builds a happier, more satisfying professional life.

Results from a national survey of selected American Council on Industrial Arts Education (ACIATE) members indicated a strong desire for this yearbook. The respondents suggested specific direction, content, and leadership problems they would like to see discussed. Based on the survey results, literature review, and personal interviews, the yearbook has been divided into five sections. Section I (Chapters 1 and 2) introduces the specific dimensions of creative leadership. Section II has two chapters which outline the common behavioral characteristics of creative leaders. Section III (Chapters 5 through 7) provides the details on preparation, selection, and development of a creative leader. Section IV is the longest, with eight chapters that apply creative leadership to selected professional activities of industrial arts. The final chapter and Epilogue, Section V, provide a critique of the previous chapters and methodology for implementing creative leadership by individuals and the profession.

Section I

Selected Dimensions and Perceptions of Leadership

Chapter 1

Ideals of Leadership and the Individual's Function

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INTRODUCTION

There is a widespread interest in leaders and their appropriate function. It is generally agreed that leaders are not born as leaders, and it is uncertain how they are developed. Burns (1978) suggested that they emerge from complex socialization patterns involving varying degrees of motivation, values, and goals. A person possessing normal physiological and psychological qualities has the potential of exhibiting leadership in all facets of life (Krauss, 1974). Traditionally, the leadership image has been dominated by the few in power positions. Many have forgotten that most examples of personal influence are actually examples of leadership and are practiced quietly and subtly in everyday relationships.

The *key force* in any creative leadership situation is the ability of the individual to persuade others positively so as to find that common purpose in achieving desired results. The definitive action of this type leadership should focus on being a *servant first* and a leader second. This follows Greenleaf's (1977) argument, "The great leader is seen as a servant first" (p. 7). The process emerges through the natural feeling that one really wants to serve others. Then a conscious choice brings the servant to the point where he, she, or the group aspires to lead. The *leader first* and servant second concept is sharply different in that the leader attempts to build a power base first for satisfying the personal desires. Once the power motive is accomplished, then a service desire might be established. Greenleaf (1977) outlined the differences between the two practices when he stated the following:

> The difference manifests itself in the care taken by the servant—first to make sure that other people's priority needs are being served. The best test, and difficult to administer, is: Do those served grow as persons? Do they, while being served, become healthier, wiser, freer, more autonomous, more likely themselves to become servants? (pp. 13–14).

Perhaps industrial arts educators at every level could better serve their consumers if they learned to use the concept of servant first, leader second.

Here, the dynamics of creative leadership are portrayed as an all pervasive concept applicable to each industrial arts educator who honestly wants to influence others as a leader. An introduction to this type of leadership for industrial arts educators is outlined in the chapter's three major parts as follows:

1. Ideals of leadership and the role of the individual.
2. The leadership situation.
3. A suggested leadership philosophy for industrial arts education.

IDEALS OF LEADERSHIP AND THE ROLE OF THE INDIVIDUAL

The three key words found in the yearbook title are leadership, creativity, and dynamics. The most powerful and prominent of the three is leadership. At every level, for every person and in every event, leadership for the profession should be self evident. As a result, the yearbook committee, authors, coeditors, and surveyed leaders were interested in providing a yearbook on leadership that would mean as much to the local school classroom teacher as it did to the top college administrator. Several concepts about leadership are discussed briefly in order to clarify their function for each industrial arts educator. The role of the two supporting terms of creativity and dynamics are discussed specifically for their affect on motivating individual industrial arts educators to adopt the most successful leadership process.

Leadership: A Frame of Reference

What common ingredient might be found in the lives of successful people, institutions, organizations, businesses, or industries? The most obvious and yet profound answer is leadership. "Mention it and a perceptible aura of excitement, almost mystical in nature, appears" (McCall and Lombardo, 1978, p. 31). What is leadership? Each person has a personal definition, even when it is not articulated and verbalized. During the early stages of the research in developing the yearbook survey instrument, the coeditors identified the following definition in the cover letter: "the process of assisting people in an organization to weld themselves into a cooperative group for accomplishing a given task or goal." James MacGregor Burns (1979), winner of the Pulitzer Prize and National Book Award for his authorship of *Leadership*, defined it as follows:

> A leader induces followers to act for certain goals that represent wants and needs of both leaders and followers. The genius of leadership lies in the manner in which leaders see and act on their own and their follower's values and motivation. (p. 318)

In essence, leadership to Burns (1979) is inseparable from followership. Great leaders are sensitive to fundamental needs, wants, and values of others. Further, followers in a group could be considered as peers of the leader if they trust and communicate with each other.

Two different forms of leadership were suggested by Burns (1978), namely, transactional and transforming. Generally, these two forms represent an interaction between and/or among persons with different levels of motivation and power potential who are seeking a common goal. Specifically, transactional leadership occurs when a person seeks out others for exchange of some valued item(s). A bargain is struck between the leader and the follower to achieve a benefit that may be economical, political, or psychological. The relationship will be short-lived if there is no enduring purpose to hold it together. A leadership act takes place, but it does not bind the leader and follower mutually in any higher moral or uplifting pursuits.

By contrast, transforming leadership happens when a leader-follower interaction results in mutually raising each other to higher and higher levels of motivation and morality. Transforming leadership mobilizes and inspires both leaders and followers so that they join forces to achieve a mutually agreeable goal. The dynamics foster moral fortitude in a leader-follower relationship because the level of human conduct and ethical performance for each party is raised. The essence of applying transforming leadership by a developing leader is outlined by Burns (1978) in the following statement:

> In real life the most practical advice to an espousing leader is not to treat pawns like pawns, nor princes like princes, but all persons like persons. That people can be lifted into their better selves is the secret of transforming leadership. (p. 462)

A concept of transforming leadership that each industrial arts educator may find appropriate to use, is found in the process of positively *influencing* others. The use of the process by leaders was supported by Tannenbaum, Weschler, and Massarik (1961) in their basic definition of leadership when they described it as "interpersonal influence, exercised in a situation and directed, through the communication process, toward the attainment of specified goal or goals" (p.. 24). Leadership, as a functional process inducement was outlined in 1950 in definitions 1B, 1C, and 1E of The Ohio State "Paradigm for the Study of Leadership." Morris and Seeman (1950) identified the three definitions of a leader who attempts to influence others, as shown in the following account:

1B. [The leader is the] individual who exercises positive influence acts upon others.

1C. [The leader is the] individual who exercises more, or more important, positive influence acts than any other member of the group.

1E. [The leader is the] individual who exercises most influence in goal setting and goal-achievement. (p. 151)

A more recent definition using the affective process in leadership acts comes from Hollander (1978) when he stated in his book *Leadership Dynamics* that:

> Leadership is a process of influence which involves ongoing transaction between a leader and a follower. The key to effective leadership is in this relationship. Although most attention is given to the leader, *leadership depends upon more than a single person.* (p. 16) (italics added)

Note that leadership involves more than a single person. Tannenbaum, Weschler, and Massarik (1961) include in their definition of leadership "the virtue of generality to all individuals" (p. 24). They also suggested that the concept of leadership is not limited to those specifically appointed functionaries nor to individuals whose prevalence rests with voluntary consent of others. Rather, leadership that positively persuades others is a process applicable to all interpersonal relationships regardless of individual situations and/or events. In essence then, the role of the leader (influencer) and follower (influencee) may shift often in any given situation, event, or relationship.

The dynamics involved in a creative-leadership process focus on mobilizing individuals and group peer members to assume changing leader-follower positions in a given situation or event. The changing leader-follower relationship process provides that critical ingredient which fosters the most productive individual or group accomplishment. Brandt (1979) agreed when he stated that "the ultimate engagement between leader-follower is where the follower becomes a leader" (p. 384).

Creativity: Its Role for an Individual Leader

Why do some individuals persuade people to act while others fail to make things happen? Schuller (1978) indicated that probably 95 percent of the people who fail do so because they have never learned to take charge of their lives and to show creative leadership. Those people who surrender leadership of their lives to others, situations, problems, money, etc., have never possessed the "key dimension" termed creativity. Creativity, as a force, goes to persons who are not drifting but have decided what their lives will be. Individuals have a choice. They can either live their lives marked by constant crisis intervention from a series of uncontrolled events, or they can be creatively in charge of their own destinies.

The often used concept "take charge of your life" needs a note of clarification. It does not mean that a person should disregard responsible service to the job, family, or group. It means that individuals can control how they will respond to situations, events, and/or others. Persons can control their moods, depression, and stress or be controlled by them.

The individual who makes a decision to be nonassertive, and looks for life's rewards from others instead of from her or his own volition, will no doubt experience difficulties as expressed by Gibb (1971) in the following account:

> For the person who learns to find his values from *without* is always at the mercy of other persuaders—teachers, companions, demagogues, groups, or other sources of approval and authority. He becomes dependent, passive, and susceptible to all sorts of external controls. He is motivated, not to achieve something, but to gain the approval of the teachers or administrators, to hunger for his satisfaction in status, grade, and social approval rather than to look

> for his satisfaction *within*, in terms of self-respect, self-approval, and the achievement of personal goals. (p. 170) (italics added)

Taking charge of one's life opens the human mind to receive new, novel, and enchanting ideas that allow creative leadership to happen.

The creative leader in industrial arts envisions greater opportunities above and beyond others in the profession; moves forward to capture the moment, mold it, and make it more productive for all concerned. Potential problems are taken into consideration. Steps are taken to affect personal and/or professional events in a positive way. Problems are avoided, defended against, or plans developed to turn them into new opportunities. The positive approach of turning problems into challenges provides that personal force required to be a servant first and leader second. A challenge becomes a project to serve others by positively taking charge of the opportunity to assist.

Dynamics: Its Role for and Individual Leader

The creative industrial arts leader dynamically urges others to accept greater responsibility for serving the consumer. The term dynamics refers to the motivation or enthusiasm generated by an individual or group for the role played in the industrial arts profession and/or life itself. The successful leader must promote dynamically her or his ideas honestly and positively to others. The process starts for the effective leader by first selling self on self. The previous statement agrees with the research of Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958) who stated:

> The successful leader is one who is keenly aware of those forces which are most relevant to his behavior at any given time. He accurately understands himself, the individuals and groups he is dealing with and the company and broader social environment in which he operates. . . .

But

> this sensitivity or understanding is not enough. . . . The successful leader is one who is able to behave appropriately in the light of these perceptions. If direction is in order, he is able to direct; if considerable participative freedom is called for, he is able to provide such freedom. (p. 101)

The honest dynamic leader is able to sell problem solutions to others who need answers but do not realize it. It is difficult to convince others that they should change their thinking and buy a given solution to a problem. The dynamic persuasive force, as applied by the leader, achieves results through blending the correct and acceptable relationship between scientific fact and common sense.

In selling new and novel ideas or solutions to others in industrial arts, the risks to the leader may be high. The ambitions and hidden motives of others may prevent them from correctly interpreting your values, methods, and enthusiasms. However, the honest achievement of productive results requires the leader to pay the price of hard work, tough thinking, risky planning, and brave decision making. The threat to self-esteem by personal criticism, or fear of failure to achieve effective results prevents many people from becoming successful dynamic leaders. The choice is to become a mere passive follower. This may mean surrendering to situations over which you have no control or to persons who may manipulate your life. Totally submissive followers in industrial arts education constantly face surprises which can threaten productive and self-fulfilling professional careers.

THE LEADERSHIP SITUATION

Rationale

Contemporary leadership thoughts focus on the specific situation, that is, the interaction among leaders, followers, and the specific situation. The degree of success, the effectiveness of leaders, relates directly to how they function appropriately within the entire situation. One facet of the situational approach to leadership is found in The Ohio State Leadership Studies (Halpin, 1967). The design incorporated a two-by-two grid. For example, the horizontal dimension related to getting the job done (task) while the vertical extent was a concern for people. The interaction of these two dimensional concerns (task-people) provided some clues as to the appropriate leadership style for a given situation. Some persons required more task-oriented leadership and others less. Later, the quadrant idea provided impetus for the managerial grid concept. It supplied a more detailed conceptualization of the task-people dimensions for selecting appropriate leadership behavior for gaining the best group productivity. Blake and Moulton's (1978) grid provided a nine-by-nine matrix where task-people dimensional concerns were related to a specific leadership style. The appropriate match depends upon the situation.

Hollander (1978) brought the three elements of the leader, follower, and situation together. An illustrative representation of his work is found in Figure 1-1. The area where the rectangles overlap is the leadership focus. It is the point where leader and follower are bound together in a given situation. The arrows represent the interactive exchange between leader and follower. The interactive exchange is where transforming leadership and the mutually influencing process of leader and follower should take place.

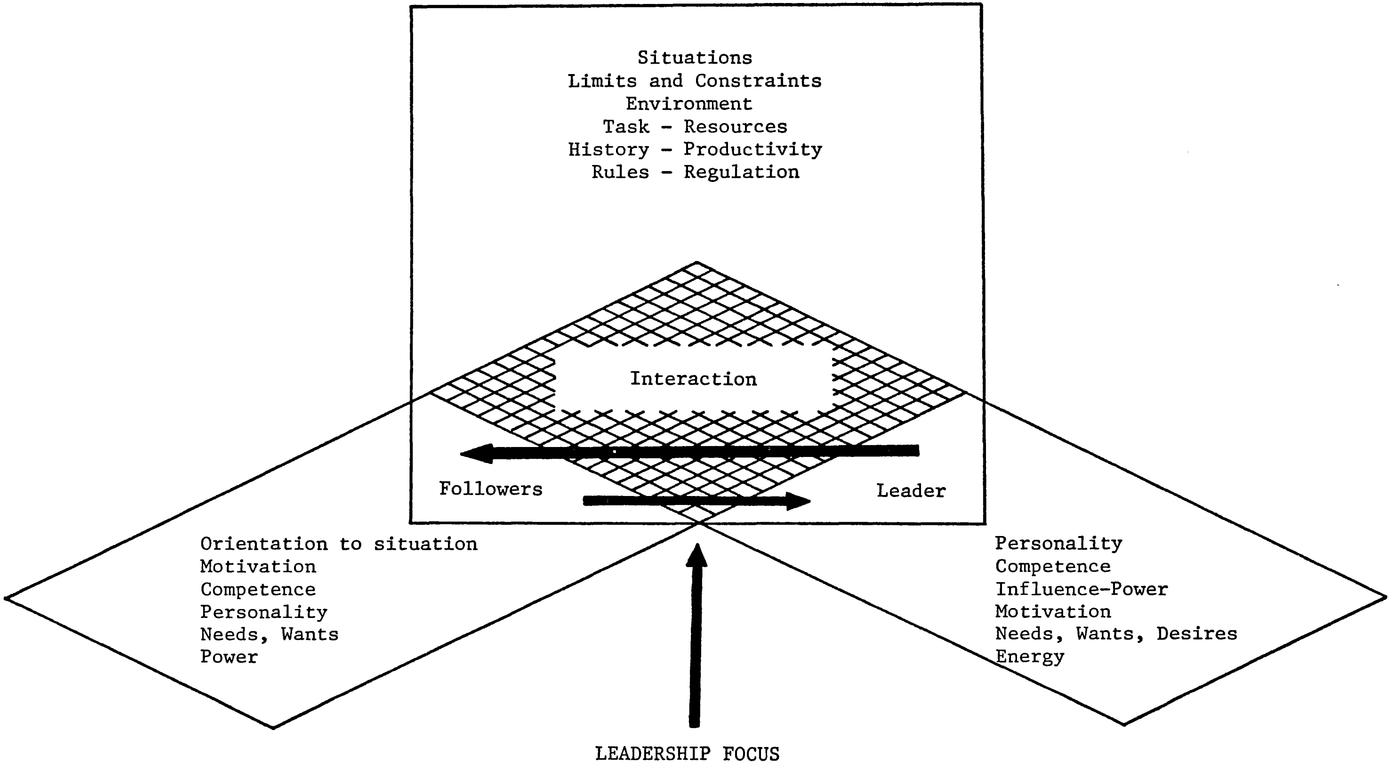
Situations
Limits and Constraints
Environment
Task - Resources
History - Productivity
Rules - Regulation
Interaction
Followers
Leader
Orientation to situation
Motivation
Competence
Personality
Needs, Wants
Power
Personality
Competence
Influence-Power
Motivation
Needs, Wants, Desires
Energy
LEADERSHIP FOCUS

Figure 1-1. The interaction of the situation with the leader and followers using identified factors.

When group direction is ambiguous, the leader must seek clarity of goals. In this situation, the leader uses one style. If the group already has direction, the situation requires a different leader performance. Effective interaction of the leader and followers to meet goals is related to the specific situation. A successful leader in one situation may fail in another. However, for the person to be effective in any leadership situation, the ability to mobilize and inspire through positive techniques is required in meeting the needs and wants of both the leader and follower.

Application

The three concepts—dynamic, creativity, and leadership—are uniquely brought together by the authors of the following chapters. The nationally known Center for Creative Leadership, Greensboro, North Carolina combines the two words *creativity* and *leadership* in the following definition: "The creation and management of change to improve the quality of life." The person who dynamically applies a creative leadership process within the concepts of transformation and serving others elevates followers to gain mutual benefits. The ultimate virtue would be for all industrial arts educators to assume a more active role in meeting their own goals as well as those of their profession.

LEADERSHIP PHILOSOPHY OF INDUSTRIAL ARTS EDUCATION

The formal concepts of leadership, creativity, and dynamics, having been presented, lead naturally to the more personal, philosophical, and practical illustrations of the process. These practical illustrations and the logic should help each reader find an area of positive leadership direction within the industrial arts profession.

The Environment

The philosophical frame of reference for each practitioner in industrial arts sets the attitudes and actions others see. One recognized leader in industrial arts education has, on several occasions, noted that for years he thought industrial arts was just a microcosm of trade and industrial education. Some have argued the benefits of the general-education frame of reference, while others have argued for specialized technologies. Words and phrases such as these easily bring personal biases into mind which filter concepts. For example, in a varied group, bring up the subject of the historical perspective of the Industrial Arts Curriculum Project (IACP), then carefully observe the directions of the conversation.

It is obvious at an AIAA/ACIATE convention that many leadership activities have been ongoing during the past year. As one observes the membership, however, one must note the extremes—from the chronic complainers to the enthusiastic problem solvers. Some also will note the organization people and those who, with apathy, discuss the organization's lack of direction and leadership. In each case, the profession is experiencing leadership activities. Some are productive, and some are counterproductive, but when there are followers, even in the negative discussions, there are dynamic leaders.

Leadership and Organization

Perceptions of leadership in the profession generally are verbalized in a jargon that requires clarification. In attempting to reduce expressions to fundamental terms, philosophical trends seem to emerge. Apparently we want to feel good about the industrial arts profession and desire that it flourish. This means we want to perceive the following:

1. AIAA/ACIATE has a good reason for existing.
2. Those in charge are doing a good job.
3. AIAA/ACIATE has ample resources.
4. AIAA/ACIATE programs are exciting, fun, and worth paying for.
5. There is unity of thought and purpose that is worthwhile and binds the group together.
6. Industry and business approve of the program.
7. The member feels a contributing part of the group.
8. The organization is doing something worthwhile and promoting programs that work.
9. One should belong to AIAA/ACIATE rather than to another organization.
10. The organization has power, prestige, and a good image.

This concept of feeling good about an organization is difficult to enhance and maintain because it is more perceptual than real. Reality, however, is rarely the basis for a decision. Perception always is. Maintenance, then, and further development of the organization, is a leadership problem.

Each point listed above has its roots in the reality of point number seven, "The member feels a contributing part of the group." As one analyzes personal feelings about the profession, the question of leadership inevitably arises. Each wants to feel the group is on the cutting edge of things. That means strong leaders are needed who are creative and dynamic in winning our support. In turn, we want to identify with the ideas of the effective leader. Next, the organization must be persuaded to identify with these creative ideas and become strong in meeting their goals. In the last analysis, members will contribute if they feel the ideas of the leader are strong enough to warrant their identification with them, and have the potential of moving the organization with them.

Origins of Leadership

One can move along the trail of perceptions until it is realized that strength and power, indeed, lie in the esteem of our comrades, to borrow a phrase from Phi Delta Kappa. We then begin to realize our obligations to the process of effective leadership. Indeed, esteem begins in self-esteem and bestowing esteem on others. It is also the beginning of personal leadership. As every successful salesperson knows, sincerity, enthusiasm, excitement, and knowledge of the product and buyer are the basic ingredients of success. The buyer buys when he or she identifies with the product, thus becoming a follower of the salesperson. The buyer helps to sell the product to others and boost the sales, the image, and the prestige of the salesperson.

Translated to industrial arts, leadership begins with the teacher who is the salesperson, and often the manufacturer, of the product to be sold. The student buys into the sales system by taking industrial arts classes, the product of the teacher. If the product is exciting, useful, and at a price that is affordable, the student becomes the second-order leader. The student is convinced of the value added, and "sells" the program to others, who in turn tout its wonders. Demand for the product, e.g. more classes, requires more faculty. More faculty requires organization. Organization requires structure and a more formal administration. Who then is the leader? It all began with the persuasive leadership of the teacher.

The foregoing scenario suggests the framework and basis for our often mistaken ideas about leadership. Two premises for leadership have emerged:

1. Leadership is a personal attribute that manifests itself in a charismatic way, e.g. an influential teacher.
2. Leadership is an organizational phenomenon where the leadership is vested in the administrator.

Both of these premises exist legitimately. Often, because of success in premise one, an individual may become the administrator leader of premise two. Perhaps, just as often, the organizational constraints and structures may stifle the leadership of the administrator who then becomes a manager, not a leader.

Some individuals are quite successful as managers, with little or no real leadership ability apparent. Behind the scenes, however, there is a leader. The leader may not, in fact, desire visibility but may enjoy being the "power behind the throne."

Characteristics and Creativity

Dr. Robert Schuller, of television's "Hour of Power" fame, once delivered a sermon entitled, "Anyone Can Be a Great Leader" (1978). His philosophical constructs have direct bearing for industrial arts education. In summary, his five major points were:

1. A leader grows—intellectually and otherwise.
2. A leader knows his business and speaks with confidence.
3. A leader shows—he reflects his leadership qualities.
4. A leader goes—leads the way before success is certain.
5. A leader bestows self-esteem on others.

These points speak to the concepts of transforming leadership and servant first, leader second of Burns (1979) and Greenleaf (1977) as a design that fits into the leader's function of carrying out positive affective acts.

In industrial arts education, we have come to equate leadership with position, usually an organizational or administrative position. The suggestion has been made that persons of leadership ability and skills will simply rise to fill positions. To some degree this may occur, especially if the quality of the leadership is not evaluated. Others, however, may respond, for example, "That fellow either fell into that position or knew somebody!" Quite often, the very nature of the officially designated power position has such constraints that only policy can be be carried out. Creative decision making and leadership for development and/or change sometimes are not possible.

Even the best design will falter, in time, without creative ideas and dynamic leadership moving behind policy. Education and industrial arts education in particular, is a good example. Select one of the popular curricular efforts in industrial arts and keep it in mind. As long as the whole system, including the designers, is in operation everything will probably work well. When others attempt to implement the same system, however, it often fails. Why? The feedback loop that injected corrective action or creative alternatives was a function of the people in the original loop. The leadership and creative structure may not have been translated to new practitioners in sufficient depth to sustain the system. An effective leadership process was obviously lacking in that situation and for that purpose. Who then should be the leader?

Individual Versus Position

Let us return now to the original two premises and consider perceptions of important leadership behaviors that surfaced in the Survey of Selected ACIATE Members on Leadership, used to gather data for this yearbook (Wenig & Matthews, 1980). It would seem that leadership behavior and skill are sometimes independent of position. At the same time, however, it is evident that respondents were dealing with leadership problems from the point of view of an administrative position. Many respondents held, or had held, such positions in either AIAA/ACIATE or in the school/college/university setting. Many did not seem to think of leadership in other than the positional perspective.

It appears that the dynamics of leadership, the influencing process in a creative sense, result from certain personal and organizational attributes and freedom. Three ideas were cited by the survey respondents as being quite important, although not of greatest importance. These ideas were that the leader:

1. Employs creative problem-solving techniques,
2. Surrounds self with smarter people, and
3. Engenders the best decision-making process.

These three behaviors are certainly position oriented, but not necessarily employed well by all position holders. The ideal administrator/leader would probably possess these skills, but where would they have been learned? Indeed, can they be taught? A primitive response would probably be that if a behavior can be learned it can be taught, that finding the teaching vehicle is the problem. If this is true, are we in industrial arts teacher education skilled in teaching leadership behavior? Do we improve on abilities or skills that are latent or already possessed? Perhaps some truth exists in each thought. Perhaps too, the internship/mentorship experience is our most valuable tool for confirming strength in these behaviors. If the mentor excels in the three behaviors noted, the intern can possibly learn to be effective by imitation. Probably there is considerable merit in the "monkey see, monkey do" teaching-learning style.

Focus on Dynamics

To bring the many related ideas into focus, one may return to the dilemma of a floundering national organization and industrial arts. Is floundering due to lack of leadership or is it merely an unaccepted perception of the present reality. Actually, when a "floundering" perception is present, leadership does exist and is evident when one listens to the conversations of critical groups. What is missing in the mix is not leadership, but direction. Leadership exists, but strength and coordinated purpose is insufficient to sway small group leaders to follow a particular leader's ideas and sense of direction.

When someone can persuade others to follow the logical course to accomplish some goal of importance to sustain the perceptions suggested earlier, purposely directed leadership emerges. It is the dynamics of this creative emergence of power that is viewed by most of the membership as leadership. This perceived power is not a negative force, but a binding force, often a personal charisma that convinces group members to trust and rally around a cause and its ideals and constructs. The ideals and constructs alone, in the hands of an unskilled and unpersuasive person, may go nowhere. A sense of floundering will spread and the perceived leadership may dissolve or pass on to another.

At play in the background of leadership action is the brokerage of power by groups of leaders. Many leaders in industrial arts were noted in the survey. Each has a significant following and each represents a cause. When groups of these leaders support a common cause, the person representing that cause or program emerges as the effective leader. Just as often, however, disaffection causes withdrawal of support, and then perceived leadership is brought into question.

Preparation

In industrial arts education, an area of study perhaps overlooked is the preparation of leaders. Since skills in leadership are absorbed and developed over long periods of time, preparation must begin early. Youth clubs such as AIASA are examples of how the leadership-development process may begin. Everyone has leadership potential. How it is developed may be due to accident as well as design. Encouraging the individual to exert persuasive leadership skills in the classroom, labs, and shops is probably the key element. Position holder success probably is an extension of the creative ways the teacher develops and executes his or her instructional program. The convincing sales techniques and program alterations will reflect a dynamic mind and goal orientation. The creative ways one is allowed to pursue these ends may stimulate clientele and self as well. As imitation is born so is the persuasive leader allowed to emerge. Hopefully, this creative person will aspire to a more preeminent leadership position in the industrial arts profession.

SUMMARY

Leadership is a common element of successful people, institutions, organizations, businesses, and industries. Leaders are sensitive to fundamental needs, wants, and values of followers. Using Burns' model, leadership takes the form of the transforming or the transactional style. Industrial arts education appears to foster the transforming style of mutually raising leader and followers to higher levels of motivation and morality. Greenleaf's idea of the "servant first, leader second" seems, appropriately, to fit this style. The chief concept that encompasses Greenleaf's and Burns' ideas is found in the generality of the influencing-leadership process and is applicable to all industrial arts educators.

Creativity seems to be a necessary ingredient in leadership, both in theory and in perception of those in industrial arts. When coupled with the dynamic urge to discharge greater responsibility, a creative leader attracts others and becomes a prevailing power base.

The best in leadership occurs when the interactions among the situation, followers, and leader are congruent. When any one of these three elements is not in synchronization, difficulties typically arise. The role of the leader is to help set direction and/or enhance it so the followers and leader can function effectively within the specific situation to meet each other's needs and wants.

Philosophically, industrial arts appears to have no deficit in leadership. Direction in leadership, which may be a problem, is a function of persuasion of others to follow a cause or lend a group's support. Accomplishing this is, in itself, a leadership function. The most creative leader may not hold an official position, but may actually hold the power that supports the position holder. Positions held by administrators may or may not be actual leadership positions, but rather managerial in nature. Lack of imagination or creative exercise of the specific leadership role can cause an organization to falter. The dynamics of the creative leadership function must be exercised by all in industrial arts to maintain and enhance its necessary position in the schools.

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Chapter 2

History and Development of Leadership Research and Review of Selected Theoretical Models

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ONE–BEST–WAY APPROACH TO LEADERSHIP

There is an old Spanish phrase which goes, "Dios me libre de hombre de un libro." The translation is, "God deliver me from a man of one book." If I were to revise this old saying into the contemporary vernacular used in today's organizations it would probably read "Stay away from him. He knows just enough to be dangerous." The application of this mentality to leadership theory can be seen in the literature.

The Great Man Approach

World War I brought a dire need for leaders in numbers far beyond those already working. Researchers began directing their efforts toward isolating those characteristics necessary to be a good leader. It seemed like such a good idea and had such marvelous prima facie validity that the effort continued for about thirty years.

The first major group of studies on leadership took place from 1920 to 1950, and they all seemed to center around different concepts of what is whimsically termed the "Great Man" approach. This approach seems a most fitting caption for early leadership theories because they all contained the simplistic and naive assumptions that: (a) in every group and in every situation a leader would emerge; (b) all other persons in the group would be nonleaders; and (c) settings and situations had little to do with leadership, i.e., a leader is a leader is a leader.

These were comfortable theories because they made the task of identifying leaders much easier. All one had to do to predict who would be a good leader was: (a) study many other successful leaders, (b) identify their common traits, and (c) find someone with the identified traits.

This approach most often identified attributes such as aggressiveness, intelligence, persistence, dominance, physical and nervous energy, sense of purpose, sense of direction, integrity, faith, friendliness, affection, height, weight, and so on. No one seems to have raised the question of possible differences in leadership effectiveness between men and women. It may have been taken for granted as having an obvious answer.

The results of about thirty years of research were ambiguous and conflicting. Experimental designs were often poor, as were (a) the definition of characteristics and (b) the various instruments used to measure personality. The inadequacy of the "Great Man" approach soon became apparent. Seldom, if ever, did the lists enumerate the same essential leadership characteristics. Moreover, the lists were confusing. They used different terminology and contained too many different numbers of characteristics.

One analysis or summary study of twenty such "Great Man" studies conducted prior to 1940 produced a list of 79 traits, 51 of which were delineated in just one study. These studies provided no assurance they could select leaders with the particular traits identified nor could they promise to develop these traits in current leaders. However, after comparing a 1948 survey of leadership characteristics with 163 studies conducted in industrial and military settings between 1948 and 1970, Stogdill (1974) concluded that a selected group of characteristics does in fact differentiate (a) leaders from followers, (b) effective from ineffective leaders, and (c) high level from low level leaders. He goes on to state the following:

> The leader is characterized by a strong drive for responsibility and task completion, vigor and persistence in pursuit of goals, venturesomeness and originality, drive to exercise initiative in social situations, self-confidence and a sense of personal identity, willing-

> ness to accept consequences of decision and action, readiness to absorb interpersonal stress, willingness to tolerate frustration and delay, ability to influence behavior, and capacity to structure social interaction systems to the purpose at hand. (p. 81)

The major conclusion of all these studies, however, is the one which should be emphasized to proponents of a particular leadership theory. The major weakness of the "Great Man" approach was not so much in its research design and instrumentation, as in its "one-best-way" assumption.

It is important to make a point here. The "trait approach" (Great Man) to identifying leaders was over (and badly) done. After several summary studies were published, it seemed that the idea of leadership traits was totally disregarded. Putting the notion under the glass after twenty years had passed has revealed that there are, as Stogdill (1974) pointed out, a *few* leadership characteristics which seem to have commonality among effective leaders. These traits still are in name only (e.g., there is no standard definition given, for instance, of exactly what "self-confidence" is, how this trait manifests itself in terms of behavior, and finally how much "self-confidence" is enough and how much is too much).

Those instances, where the situation is well defined and specific, seem to yield the most success for leadership-trait identification. Some personal characteristics do seem to relate or vary with leadership effectiveness in managerial selection. Sisk and Williams (1981) pointed out that an undated Standard Oil of New Jersey (SONJ) study of 443 managers yielded a correlation of .70 with success on the job. This, of course, accounts for about 49% of the variance in effectiveness. They write further:

> Thus, for SONJ managers a significant relationship existed between success and personal attributes, even though many different types of managers were grouped together in the study. . . . Thus, we should expect that in a variety of business situations, managers who have a high degree of decisiveness, self-objectivity, resistance to stress, assertiveness, and motivation to succeed may have an edge over persons who have fewer of these qualities. (p. 374)

OTHER ONE-BEST-WAY APPROACHES

There always has seemed to be a strong desire to find a way of simplifying the confusing and ambiguous term called leadership. As the literature on the subject expanded, theorists began identifying their own one-best-way of being a leader. (It can be very hard for God to deliver us from that fellow with only one book.)

Leadership Style

The idea of allowing and using group members' input was one that was toyed with in the "Great Man" theories before the movement to the "leadership style" theories which dominated the literature from 1950 to 1965.

The original leadership-style approach put all leader behavior into one of three styles: Autocratic, Democratic, and Laissez-Faire (hands-off) leadership. However, in light of present research results, it is most probable that by altering the situation instead of only the leadership style, either democratic or autocratic styles could produce vastly superior results.

Taking up with the two broad styles of democratic and autocratic leadership, Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958) put them at opposite ends of a single continuum. They identified five other styles between the two extremes.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Leader "tells" decision	Leader "sells" decision	Leader presents ideas & invites questions	Leader presents decision subject to change	Leader presents problem, consults group, makes decision	Leader defines limits, allows group decision	Leader "joins" group to function as equal authority

Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958) listed the following four internal forces which a leader must face in the process of chosing a leadership style:

1. The manager's value system: personal convictions or beliefs about how much responsibility should be given to subordinates for making decisions and participating in decision-making.
2. The manager's confidence in subordinates: perception of their knowledge, competence, and beliefs about how much they are able to contribute to the decision-making function.
3. The manager's own leadership inclinations: whether more comfortable taking a directive or a team role.
4. The manager's feelings of security in an uncertain situation: personal need for structure and predictability versus level of tolerance for ambiguity and uncertainty. (pp. 95–104)

Although recently recognized, theorists seem generally to support the use of participative leadership style only if the group and situation seem appropriate. However, there are two notable exceptions. The first exception is Douglas McGregor (1960) who classified leaders according to basic leadership styles: (a) an authoritarian style he labeled theory X, and (b) a democratic style he termed theory Y. His theory was actually two sets of assumptions leaders hold about people. These assumptions then determine what methods the leader will use in leading the group. The sets of assumptions are that:

> *THEORY X*
>
> 1. The average human being has an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if possible.
> 2. Because of this human characteristic of dislike of work, most people must be coerced, controlled, directed, or 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.
>
> *THEORY Y*
>
> 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. People will exercise self-direction and self-control in the service of objectives to which they are committed.
> 3. Commitment to objectives is a function of the rewards associated with their achievement.
> 4. The average human being learns, under proper conditions, 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 conditions of modern industrial life, the intellectual potentialities of the average human being are only partially utilized. (pp. 33–34)

After a quick glance at the above list, most persons would claim to be holders of Theory-Y assumptions and hence support or pursue an across-the-board equalitarian style of leadership. To support the use of autocratic measures forces leaders to admit they hold the assumptions of Theory X, which would be repugnant to most persons in our culture. McGregor was clearly suggesting that most nonparticipative leadership is barbaric.

The other prominent proponent of participative leadership was Rensis Likert. Likert (1961) developed a questionnaire which attempted to classify organizations in one of four "systems." His systems were:

System 1. Exploitive Authoritarian
System 2. Benevolent Authoritarian
System 3. Consultive
System 4. Participative

Huse and Bowditch (1973) said the following of Likert:

> Likert has used this questionnaire to study a number of different organizations. His basic findings show that management systems leaning toward System 4 are more productive (high output, less waste, and better labor relations), have lower costs, and have more favorable attitudes toward supervision and the organization than do organizations leaning toward System 1. Likert asserts that the overall consistency of his findings indicates that System 4 has widespread applicability and although its application in different organizations may vary, the basic principles of System 4 management can be applied to all types of situations. (p. 152)

Here again was the emphasis on one style as being superior to the point of claiming panacea. This mentality most likely is ingrained by our political heritage which would likely say, "If it is democratic it must be good, if it not democratic it cannot be good." Sadly enough, we may be confusing management with government. *The objective of managerial leadership is results while the objective of government is fairness and equality.*

This kind of literature, as well as our culture, make it difficult to be objective about democratic leadership of groups. So many theorists are trying to describe the same thing with terms such as "System 4," "Consult," "Join," "Theory Y," "Participative Decision-Making," "Democratic Decision-Making," and many more. These are all varying forms of participative leadership. The degree of group participation can vary considerably and still be correctly labeled as "democratic."

Although the terms "participative" and "democratic" leadership are often used interchangeably, the latter is a less desirable term in that it tends to communicate the notion of vote taking. A "purely" democratic leadership style would make leader accountability impossible and would be painfully slow.

Managerial Grid

Among the older arguments in leadership philosophy is the continuing debate of the relative importance of the two major responsibilities of a practicing leader. These two perennial contenders for being designated as the most important concern of any leader are (a) getting the job done (task), and (b) the support and attention of the human agents (people).

With relative ease, each of these concerns can be vigorously forwarded and defended as being most important. Allow the following example:

1. The *task* itself is necessarily the most important concern of the leader. Let's face it, if the job has to be done or at least should be done, the leader must see to it regardless of the amount of push to be endured by people. We must get the job done and done well since that's the only justification for having the people here in the first place. To sum it up, *we should expect everything and every effort from our people in order to accomplish objectives* and whatever degree of excellence which may accompany those objectives.
2. The *people* are obviously the most important responsibility of a leader since there is no way anything is advanced unless people make it happen. *As leaders, we should direct our attention toward our people. It is people who address their attention to the task.* Our energies should be consumed providing necessities and comforts to people.

The managerial grid (Blake & Moulton, 1981) provided the means of making a rough estimate of our concern for *people* along with an estimation of our preoccupation with *task. The result was two different measures which were independent of each other.* This presents a cheerful new way of looking at an old gloomy dilemma. It has always been assumed a trade off was necessary or that some kind of compromise between task and people was needed. The managerial grid provided the concept that we could maximize both. The research, however, is not so cheerful, as noted by Fiedler and Chemers (1974) when they commented:

> Although the Management Grid is a very attractive and popular theory among business and military executives, there are no substantial empirical data that support the claim that the method improves organizational performance. Nor have we found evidence in other studies that one type of leadership approach is consistently better than the others. The same leader may be highly effective in one situation but relatively ineffective in another. (p. 371)

Fiedler's Contingency Model

The leadership-style theory which seems closest to coming from more than "one book" is the Contingency Model (Fiedler, 1974). In this theory the leader's behavior was once again classified as people centered or task centered similar to the Managerial Grid, although not in those specific terms.

The theory then asserts that since leadership style is fixed, effective leadership style *depends on the situation*. The situation is defined in terms of three factors. These factors are: (a) leader-member relations, (b) amount of structure in the task, and (c) amount of position power of the leader. A leader can be highly directive and tell people exactly what to do, or at the other extreme the leader can involve the group in the planning and execution of the task, thereby *sharing* leadership responsibilities. His contention is that a very authoritarian leader can be most effective and even well liked by group members if the group make-up is appropriate and the conditions are correct for such an approach.

Motivation Approaches to Leadership

For purposes of analyzing or instructing about leadership, it is useful to discriminate between leadership theory and motivation theory. In practice and application, it really is not that clean. It is rather naive to imagine effective leaders who are not employing sound motivational techniques, albeit they may not be able to verbalize exactly what they are doing correctly. Probably the most widely known and accepted motivation theory is Abraham Maslow's Heirarchy of Needs (Maslow, 1942, pp. 370–398). Since Maslow's Theory is so well known, it will not be summarized here.

Herzberg's Dual Factor Theory

Following Maslow, and relating more to leadership, is the Dual Factor Theory (Herzberg et. al., 1959) which gave leaders a new concept. The idea suggested was that factors which people do not like about their jobs (hygiene) cannot be improved to the point of increasing motivation or performance to any worthwhile degree. Hygiene items can only bring about contentment. A second and different list of factors or variables, when managed correctly, cause improved performance. The following is greatly simplified model of the Dual Factor Theory:

> *Hygiene Factors*—Variables which have high potency to cause poor motivation but little power to create high motivation.
>
> 1. Working Conditions
> 2. Salary
> 3. Organizational Policies
> 4. Supervision
> 5. Interpersonal Relationships

Motivation—Variables which have high potency to produce high motivation but have small potential to create negative job satisfaction.

1. Responsibility
2. Recognition
3. Advancement
4. Achievement
5. Challenging Work

It is ironic that when practicing leaders apply this particular concept, they usually feel as though "it works." When researchers "put it under the glass," it does not seem to hold up well. The result of this situation is that practitioners continue to believe and the behavioral scientists continue to doubt.

POWER AND LEADER BEHAVIOR

For the sake of analysis, power can be defined as the *ability* to influence persons to do something they may or may not have done otherwise. When power is properly applied and put into action, it can be called a form of leadership. If these preceding definitions are valid, then it follows that leaders need power, and that it is difficult to understand leadership without understanding the phenomenon of power.

A small problem here is that the word power usually generates two different initial reactions. The first reaction is negative, visualizing self-serving, abusive actions which inspire revolt from those on the receiving end. The other face of power is the less obvious, but more effective, use of power which causes organizational objectives to be achieved. Paraphrasing McClelland (1975) a successful power person:

1. Believes in the authority system. The leader is in charge and after a decision is made, the best action for everyone concerned is to try to make it work.
2. Believes in fairness and organizational justice. Power is to be used for, not against, those in the organization.
3. Will sacrifice his or her own self-interest in order to benefit the organization (often in an obvious way for all to see).

These attributes describe an effective power person. They could be classified within the "*identification*" category of power. Identification power, according to the French and Raven (1959) model, is derived from subordinates', peers', and supervisors' acceptance as a reference person. This acceptance is actually caused by one's own beliefs and behavior. In its most potent extreme, identification power could be called charisma. Neither Mahatma Ghandin or Martin Luther King held powerful formal authority positions but certainly could and did strongly influence great numbers of followers and nonfollowers. Any popular celebrity can exercise a great deal of identification power over many people in this country. A person meeting with peers in a variety of business, government, or educational situations could exercise more influence than someone else simply because people want or desire to believe.

Expert power is based on the authority of knowledge. Physicians or lawyers, for example, may have a great deal of expert power. Within any organization, people having this type of power can wield a great deal of influence with peers and even managers. A microprocessing expert may, in fact, have the greatest amount of influence simply because no one else with sufficient knowledge is available.

Identification and expert power are both forms of *personal* power. That is, they are generated, developed, and transported by the individual. What kind of power comes with the job? It is known a generous helping of power can be supplied with a particular job and this is how the following describes these kinds of power.

Legitimate, or position power, is derived from the job. This is especially true in organizations having layers of authority; those at lower levels in the organization accept the authority of those higher in the organization. Huse and Bowditch (1973) concurred when they stated the following:

> For example, a judge has the "right" to levy fines; the Congress has the "right" to pass laws; the president of an organization has the "right" to make certain management decisions. In a formal organization, legitimate power is exerted primarily between positions or offices rather than between individuals. (p. 141)

A second form of power inherent with the job is *reward* or sanction power. This type of power is based on the leader's ability to reward a person and could influence the amount of identification power. In many companies, reward power is closely related to the manager's legitimate power to award pay increases or promotions. Again, Huse and Bowditch (1973) agreed in the following account:

> The nature of work-flow relationships is such that an individual manager may have a great deal of reward power simply by his place in the work flow, e.g., a purchasing agent can "reward" a cooperative manager by expediting his orders, or a maintenance manager may "reward" another manager by giving his requests higher priority. (p. 144)

Other forms of reward could be purely subjective, such as praise and recognition. This can be a potent power tool since great efforts are made by some individuals just for recognition from their immediate superior. An obvious form of reward power for an educator is the assignment of grades.

The fifth and final kind of power, the opposite of reward power, is called *coercive* power. This, in plain terms, is the power to deny something that someone wants or to do something to them they do not desire. In its most obvious form, it is the power to punish, for example, by firing a person. Coercive power in its routine use is far more subtle than this example. It is silence in a situation where a person is expecting and desiring praise. It is assignments to undesirable working hours or to unwanted and uninteresting tasks. It is not seeking a person's input or ignoring this input when given.

The five kinds of power are interrelated and often may reside with the same person. Obviously then, the use or abuse of one kind of power affects the exercise, impact, or potency of the other kinds of power. A leader (or industrial arts educator) who applies coercive power too liberally may reduce identification power. It follows then that to do the opposite action would yield the opposite result.

All five of these power bases are important to industrial arts educators seeking to exercise leadership. They are not equally important in all situations, but some generalizations still can be made. The power base that keeps the organization or the job going each day and routinely "carries the mail" is legitimate power. This one still seems to have the most potency in most situations. Its potency is severely reduced if not accompanied by the other two job-oriented power bases (reward and coercion). An example of this situation would be chairman of a committee or head of a task force typical of those often found in professional associations. Often, in these types of assignments, legitimate power is granted to the holder of the position, but there is no reward power and no coercive power. The accomplishments of ad hoc committees often bear witness to this lack of accompanying power given to the leader. Committee results may be slightly higher in quality because of the number of minds involved and usually slightly higher in quantity because of the number of hands involved. These increases, however, often are not large enough to justify the number of people involved. One person probably did almost all of the work (the committee chairperson) while the others collectively contributed to a small improvement in quality and quantity. Output perhaps could improve significantly if committee leadership carried reward and coercive powers.

Identification power is often the least effective form of power. Unless a person has this power to its highest extreme (charisma) it is not likely we will be influenced to a great degree by this form of power alone. We all know persons we like and relate to in our organizations, but unless they have other forms of power it is unlikely we will do anything different than we would have done otherwise.

Using this power model we can provide the answers to some well worn questions which go like this:

1. *Question*: Is it important for the industrial arts leaders to be liked by those being led?

   Answer: This response requires a three-step extension of logic which begins with the definition of leadership. (a) Leadership is the active application of power. If there is no power (ability to influence) there can be little leadership. (b) All five power bases are important, but not equally so. (c) Identification power by definition is being *liked* and accepted by subordinates, peers, and superiors. Therefore, the answer is "Yes, it is important." Identification power is the weakest of the five power bases and so we could be effective without it but our tasks may be more difficult to accomplish.

2. *Question*: Is it important for the industrial arts leaders to have specific content knowledge of the area in which they are trying to lead?

   Answer: This might be somewhat like asking, do you have to know how to wait on tables before you could be head waiter? It is usually not mandatory to know how to weld in order to effectively supervise the welding section of the factory. Subordinates will forgive a lack of specific knowledge in their leader for an *initial* time period. Eventually they expect their leadership to know more and more detail about the jobs subordinates are doing. Job knowledge is an obvious form of expert power. All power bases are important. Yes, it is important to have or gain content job knowledge in the areas you are trying to lead.

3. *Question*: Are leaders made or born?

   Answer: Three of the power bases—legitimate, reward, and coercive—are usually granted with the job. These potent forces in providing the influences to lead are granted to whomever holds the job title. Leaders are made! The other two power bases, identification and expert, only can be generated by the individual. The person has to obtain necessary knowledge and has to develop the type of personality or behavior which will allow a certain amount of acceptance by people. Leaders are born! Actually the correct answer is both. If an individual only has the personal types of power there is not much chance of effective leadership. If an individual only has job related powers, results are also likely to be very limited.

The discussion of power also should deal with some other issues which affect power. Power is not static, it is dynamic. The job and personal power of any position or person changes constantly. For the sake of convenience, from this point on, no distinction shall be made between job power and personal power. The term "power" will be used to include both.

Power is affected by the degree of involvement in issues. The more important or controversial the issue the more impact on power. If an individual is involved in low priority and noncontroversial issues there is little chance of increasing power. If this person is involved in a very critical and high-priority issue, but no powerful people are involved, the individual is wasting the effort. Changes on issues are only accomplished if power (influential) persons become involved.

What makes an issue important? When several power people become involved in an issue, that automatically makes the issue important. Real issues are opened and created by power people. Other issues, felt to be important by unpowerful people, will not become real issues until power people become actively engaged in the process. It is worthy to note that of these three items about issues: (a) who is involved, (b) how they are involved, and (c) what the issue is, the last item is actually least important.

If there is a desire to increase individual power, the person must become involved in issues with other power people. This involvement usually will increase power *even if the involvement is in opposition.* Examples of this can be seen in political candidates for office. Most of the people who run for high office (or national professional office) become well known names even if they lose. Their views on issues carry more impact than they would have before running for that office.

People already having power, or wanting to increase it, will decide to participate in issues if (a) they think they can make a contribution, or (b) there are adequate rewards associated with winning in the issue, or (c) the chances of any losses are small.

BEYOND THE ZONE OF INDIFFERENCE

There is much disagreement on how to predict good leadership ability, and that ought not be so terribly surprising. There often is a paucity of agreement even "after the fact." That is to say, after a person has been put to the test for a more than reasonable amount of time, the argument of leader effectiveness can still continue even with known performance facts.

A very real test of leadership, to this writer's way of thinking, deals with the "psychological contract." If (a) a leader has the legitimate power, or authority, as explained earlier, and (b) the leader asks a person being led to do something which is clearly within the expected duties of the position, and (c) the person indeed does comply up to normal standards of quantity or quality, this would not be an example of leadership.

Almost all people of a mature age will respond adequately to normally accepted duties regardless of how poorly regarded the leader making the request may be. They do most of what they do because they feel they should. The leader, in a case such as this, is of little influence at all, hence, did not provide real leadership even though the task was done. If it were a task which was not well accepted as a normal or reasonable request, or if it was something the person would not have expected to do and would not have done without having been influenced, then indeed any resulting actions could be chalked up to leadership.

Those things people expect to be asked to do and expect to comply with are contained in what is called their "Zone of Indifference." Any enlargement of this zone as a result of personal influence could be correctly labeled as "leadership" *regardless of the nicety of the methods used*. The notion here is that not all good leaders use socially accepted means, or for that matter, have laudable ends in mind.

BOILING IT DOWN

An examination of the history and development of leadership research and review of some major theoretical models should provide us a useful perspective. This perspective (resulted mostly from Stodgill's 1974 research) can be applied in analyzing the results of the ACIATE survey of perceived leadership characteristics (Wenig & Matthews, 1980) as identified in the following:

1. Communicates well.
2. Has highly developed interpersonal relations.
3. Motivates and challenges.
4. Finds time to listen.
5. Gets people to accept leadership responsibilities.
6. Fosters and maintains high morale.
7. Gives credit to others for accomplishments.

8. Develops positive attitudes toward new ideas.
9. Promotes the profession.
10. Has the ability to see and build esprit de corps in others.

Before analyzing these ten perceived leadership characteristics, it must be pointed out that Stogdill's (1974) results seem to be aimed at the task or the leader while the ACIATE study findings are oriented towards groups or people. Further, Stogdill used studies taken from industry and military settings, which may not be the same as educational situations. Finally, most leadership characteristics research uses a criterion, while the ACIATE survey was intentionally designed to be a simple ranking.

Let's look at each of these more closely through the following account:

1. *Communicates well.* Very few epistles on leadership would neglect this one and of course it has good face validity. One nagging problem is that Stogdill's (1974) classic and definitive study, which is a compendium of 163 studies on leadership characteristics (see Great Man Approach), does not mention communication skills. Despite that, since we all have things which we know are true but just can't prove, let's continue. Communication ability may fit into that category of something which can hurt you if you do it badly but won't help a great deal if you do it well. I believe this is indeed the case and, just like the hygiene factors in Herzberg's (1959) Dual Factory Theory, it is important to communicate well in order to avoid the negative consequences as opposed to doing it well to enjoy the positive benefits.
2. *Has highly developed interpersonal relations.* That's the problem with studying characteristics. We can write reams about one obscure meaning we had in mind. Here is another characteristic which does not appear in Stogdill's (1974) conclusions unless he meant the same thing but said it a different way. Stogdill mentions "willingness to absorb interpersonal stress" as a common trait of effective leaders. It may follow that the leader's absorbing allows other people (followers) to feel as though things are going along nicely. A sensitivity for people usually has been considered important in the literature, especially in the Managerial Grid (Blake & Mouton, 1964) and in Fiedler's (1974) Contingency Model. Likert's (1961) System 4 also had a good amount of research which indicated the importance of the ability to work with people. Herzberg (1959), on the other hand, found this to be a hygiene item (it can't help but it can hurt). In either case,

interpersonal relations would be a desirable trait even if only for defense.

3. *Motivates and challenges.* This behavioral characteristic is supported by almost every model and every study. Herzberg (1959) called it a motivator but used the term "achievement." That is, a leader arranges assignments so that those doing the job get a psychological kick when it is accomplished.

   David McClelland (1953) found in his research that the "challenge" being referred to was not only common sense but indeed scientifically valid. His conclusion, from many years of empirical studies, was that to maximize motivation, tasks of intermediate difficulty should be given. Tasks which are too easy provide no psychological payoff and tasks which are too difficult do not provide opportunity to succeed *often* enough to be satisfying.

4. *Finds time to listen.* It could be somewhat difficult to separate this one from the first factor discussed. In theory, communicating includes receiving as well as sending communication. It is well documented that good listening is an important skill for effective communication. Beyond this, listening skill becomes more difficult to establish objectively as an effective leadership characteristic. Here again it seems more like a hygiene item; something we would like our leaders to do well, but we may not perform better if they do. It also is not among the sacred findings of Stogdill (1974). One redeeming possibility here, however, is the finding of a study done with industrial supervisors. It was determined that one of the characteristics of the more successful supervisors was not that they tended to spend more time with their people but that they did it in larger blocks of time, although less often. For example, instead of spending five minutes per day with each person, they would spend 25 minutes with each but only once per week. It could be argued then that one of the things going on was "finding the time to listen."

5. *Gets people to accept leadership responsibility.* This seems to tie directly with Stogdill's (1974) finding namely, "ability to influence behavior." It has been supported fairly well that leadership is the exercise of power or influence. If someone takes on responsibilities as a result of the leader's influence, it is obvious their "Zone of Indifference" has been increased. Taking this to its fullest expansion could produce the exclamation, "I must hurry for there they go and I am their leader!" It could be a very fine mark of leadership if such a situation was created. The leader would have to possess enough self-

confidence to give authority to people and the knowledge that Drucker (1974) was probably right when he exhorted, "push the responsibility down."

6. *Fosters and maintains high morale.* Morale just might be the most studied human factor in organizations. Usually these studies are done to determine the level of job satisfaction and its causes. Sadly enough, good morale does not seem to contribute toward better group or individual productivity. Victor Vroom (1964) reviewed twenty morale studies and found the *average* correlation between job satisfaction and performance to be insignificant. He stated:

   > There is no simple relationship between job satisfaction and job performance. . . . We do not yet know the conditions which affect the magnitude and direction of relationships between satisfaction and performance. (p. 186)

   This is a surprising finding for many people, but perhaps it can be satisfactorily explained. Although job satisfaction and morale are often considered to be about the same thing, it is crucial to realize that job satisfaction and motivation are distinctly different. Job satisfaction or "global satisfaction," as sometimes it is known, denotes the degree of contentment. Those hygiene items in the Motivation-Hygiene theory (Herzberg, 1959) can bring about high contentment without necessarily making us desire to accomplish organizational objectives. "Yes I like my job. I have security; it is a comfortable place to work; I don't have to work very hard; and the pay is good." Obviously this person is satisfied, but just as obviously, is not highly motivated.

   The studies Vroom (1964) reviewed, however, concerned semi-skilled or unskilled jobs and so perhaps results could be different in a more professional group. Lest we dismiss morale entirely as being of no concern of a leader, pause for a moment. There is no doubt that good morale is linked with somewhat lower absenteeism and also with lower turnover rates. These two factors should have some eventual impact on overall productivity. A third factor, however, is more subjective but just as important. A wise leader, even though knowing there is no proven link between morale and performance, should still make every effort to maintain high morale. At least there is no evidence that high morale is damaging, and so why not have everyone feeling good about what they are doing while at the same time improving the leader's identification power?

7. *Gives credit to others for accomplishments*—In a word this is called recognition. Recognition, according to Herzberg (1959), indeed is a potent motivator. It is also easy to include recognition as part of "concern for people" and relate it to the Managerial Grid (Blake & Mouton, 1964). It is quite an easy thing to do, thus "giving credit to others." It is surprising how little of it most leaders do. There is no cost associated with this kind of reward and it has a concomitant payoff in that the giving of praise usually increases the identification power of the leader. When "credit giving" or praise giving is discussed, most people in a leadership position mentally review all their people who are past due for some deserved verbal recognition.
8. *Develop positive attitude towards new ideas*—In order to do this it would seem leaders must have an acceptable amount of identification power before anything else could happen. It also follows that they would have to be able to communicate well. Elaborating on the leading of people to new ideas, J. Clifton Williams (1978) wrote the following about the views of Eugene E. Jennings:

   > Not to be confused with the "great man" of the trait approach or with Weber's charismatic leader, Jennings' leader does, in fact, have qualities of greatness. Leadership at its best is a high-risk venture requiring personal initiative and the courage to deviate from the standards of mediocrity promulgated by our society. Unlike the low-confidence chairperson, coordinator, facilitator, and therapist-type bureaucratic executive, Jennings' leader leaves a mark on the organization. The leader is no public relations expert who senses group sentiments and merely takes the group where it wants to go. Although Jennings recognized that a situation must be ripe for greatness to be expressed, he also pointed out that the leader must be prepared to be a value-creator and a tradition-breaker. Unwilling to be bound by situational unfavorableness, the optimally effective leader takes the position that aggressive action often can overcome a bad situation. The notion that leaders should or often do leave their mark on an organization and the people with whom they interact is not a new idea. It is, in fact, a very old one, but one that needs to be restated occasionally. (p. 223)

9. *Promotes the profession*—Many people promote their profession and of these a goodly number of them do it well. That in itself does not make them good leaders. On the other hand, it

would be hard to imagine a good leader who did not promote the profession. Promotion of the profession may be an "outcome" of good leadership as well as a behavioral characteristic of a good leader. To illustrate the notion further, we could make a list of the ten people who have promoted their profession most effectively. Then a second list could be made of the ten best leaders in the profession. Odds are good that there would be a surprisingly high correlation.

If this were the case then the profession would be well served by identifying the *actions* which in turn promoted the profession. That list could look much similar to Stogdill's (1974).

10. *Has the ability to see and build esprit de corp in others*—It can be difficult to separate morale from esprit de corps. Although there is not much evidence that high morale causes good performance, it has been determined that higher job satisfaction may *follow* better job performance. The logic is that this may create good group cohesiveness or esprit de corps. It is still crucial, however, to note that if this logic holds up, then esprit de corps is another end result as opposed to a causing variable.

In summary it appears that Stogdill's (1974) definitive findings from 22 years and 163 studies of leadership characteristics do not match well with the ACIATE (Wenig and Matthews, 1980) study. Although a few seem to be similar, there are several key differences between the two lists, as noted in the beginning of this analysis.

THE NECESSARY INGREDIENT—INTUITION

Empirical inquiry does not allow for such things as mood and sentiment. It also can be pointed out that behavioral research is notoriously inconsistent. The findings have little meaning until the human mind interprets and makes useful sense of the conclusions. Leadership intuition is beginning to find a respectable place in the most recent wave of research. It is a natural follow-up from what is being learned about specialized brain hemispheres, namely, that one side is logical, rational, and objective while the other half is more devoted to intuition, wholistic, and emotional processing. Henry Minzberg (1975), in his award-winning article in the Harvard Business Review, described how much reliance effective managers place their intuition. His findings indicate that, contrary to popular beliefs, many successful managers and administrators are not very scientific or systematic. Most organizational leaders process information, schedule times, and make decisions using a system locked deep in their brains. They themselves don't know how or why they know what action to take in a given situation so, correctly or not, they often call these abilities judgement and intuition.

It would be difficult to exclude good intuition from any list of leadership characteristics. It should be known that good intuition is built on good information. If a leader has internalized all the research, knows all the well accepted theories and models of people such as McGregor (1960), Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid (1964), Vroom (1964), McClelland (1953), Herzberg's Dual Factory Theory (1959), Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958), and Fiedler (1974), it is still necessary to have the intuition which tells what approach to use with whom and when to use it. They have to avoid the curse of the "man with one book" which is over-reliance on one approach for leading. They must have the intuition to lead rather than to rely on simple authority.

The discussion of leadership characteristics probably could be boiled down to one paragraph as Stogdill (1974) did or it could go on endlessly. A quote from Edgar Allen Poe causes this writer to stop with the following thought: "In one case out of a hundred, a point is excessively discussed because it is obscure; in the ninety-nine remaining, it is obscure because it is excessively discussed."

SUMMARY

Most professionals feel they know the essential traits and characteristics of good leaders. After reviewing the myriad of leadership theories, models, and studies we should have some serious doubts about what we think we "know." In identifying traits of leaders we often confuse *causing* variables with *resulting* variables, e.g., "ability to build good morale." Leadership trait identification can be valid if it is for a specific situation as opposed to identifying global leadership traits. The exception to this would be those identified by Stogdill (1974) such as strong drive, vigor and persistance, venturesomeness and originality, etc., as outlined at the beginning of this chapter.

Analyzing those ten behavior characteristics found in the ACIATE study (Wenig & Matthews, 1980) indicated less agreement with Stogdill (1974) than would have been desired. However, the differences could be due to the different settings, purpose, and research approaches used by the investigators. Each of the ten ACIATE characteristics were scrutinized individually in the light of all available leadership literature with the conclusion that the strongest were the ability to:

(a) motivate and challenge, (b) get people to accept leadership responsibility, and (c) develop positive attitudes towards new ideas.

Intuition, even though not specifically scientific, is beginning to be more valued as a leadership characteristic possessed by certain individuals. These gifted intuitive individuals seem to function through a complex and scientific mode locked deep in their brains.

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Section II

The Dynamics of Creative Leaders in Gaining and Retaining Followers

Chapter 3

Operating from the Art of the Possible

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The very notion of operating from the art of the possible should cause anyone in industrial arts to conjure up visions of what could be if only. . . . Without belaboring the idea, the notion should also carry with it the euphoria and excitement you feel as someone enthusiastically supports your creative idea about what industrial arts could become. Those operating from the vantage point of a leader often must take the pragmatic view of the results of this enthusiasm and excitement. While difficult to define the origins, the results are amazingly and positively directed.

Whatever causes the euphoric feeling, certainly the formula should not be changed while one is searching for its cause. This often is the judgment one must make when observing the results of creative leadership in industrial arts, whatever the instructional level involved.

Creative leadership is a scarce commodity that is valued by all organizations in our society. Like any scarce commodity, it has been analyzed and described and its parts have been scrutinized. It is bought and sold and is an asset to be cherished and encouraged in our young. Its elusive qualities have prompted a multitude of authors to describe how it works and how to develop it if you don't have it. All of this implies there must be some observable characteristics that can be listed and studied.

Most of us have had ample opportunity to pass judgment on the creative leadership of various individuals such as teachers, administrators, colleagues, politicians, and friends. It is not too difficult to evaluate leader effectiveness as "good" or "bad." It is difficult, however, to identify with certainty why a leader succeeds or fails.

Gordon (1977) stated that many people who assume a leadership role do not find it a rewarding and fulfilling experience. He also believed that special skills and traits could be learned by those who aspired to become effective leaders, as is shown by the following:

> If being a leader turns out to be a bad experience, it is almost always because of the leader's own ineffectiveness. And, considering that few people ever get any kind of specific training in leader effectiveness, it is easy to understand why being a leader so often is difficult, draining, and disappointing. (p. 3)

Research studies have attempted to identify and describe the complex relationship that exists between leaders and followers, the understanding of group behavior and development, what motivates group members, and what triggers creative activity in both leaders and followers. These studies can be very useful to industrial arts educators who are concerned about leadership development in their profession. Selected studies will be examined which will provide lists of characteristics of leaders and attempt to identify commonalities which appear frequently in the literature. The focus will be on the leader as an individual whose personal characteristics and perceptions determine the effectiveness of that individual in the leadership role. That which is possible becomes real when the leader is able to tap the creative potential of the group and direct its efforts toward desired goals.

LEADERSHIP BEHAVIORS

We all work in a world where tasks or jobs need to be accomplished and where we need to interact with people in completing those tasks. A simplistic approach to categorizing leadership characteristics could be developed using these two concepts as organizers. Robert Blake and Jane Moulton (1978) were foremost in showing that a leader-manager needed to deal effectively with a concern for work (task accomplishment) and a concern for people (building and maintaining effective work relationships with others in the organization). Their book, *Managerial Grid*, first published in 1964, paved the way for grid-oriented strategy development for organizations attempting to define the complex relationships between tasks and people.

A good example of further development of a conceptual model for leadership characteristics was presented by John Ingalls (1976, p. 14) in the book *Human Energy*. He developed the concept of Type-A and Type-B behaviors found in leaders, which identified characteristics that might be useful to this study. The Type-A behavior is opposite Type-B, as shown in the following chart:

Type A	Type B
1. Searches for certain answers	1. Tolerates ambiguity or uncertainty
2. Evaluates and passes judgment	2. Seeks non-judgmental assessment
3. Is concerned about motives of why people acted in a certain way	3. Willingness to experiment and explore without concern for motive
4. Retains absolute control	4. Shares control with the group

The Type-A behavior in a leader requires a highly structured group. "Members of this group have their plans made for them, are organized into task teams for efficient production, are motivated, usually with carrot-and-stick symbols, and are controlled by being required to produce periodic evidence that they are working and producing up to a standard" (p. 80).

The Type-B behavior in a leader reduces the need for structure in the group. "Type-B leaders plan for themselves and consult others about their plans, organize around the interests, needs, and values of group members as well as around demonstrable competencies, motivate through participation and involvement, and foster internalized self control among group members" (p. 81).

The behavior characteristics of the two types of leaders are presented as opposites on a continuum in theory, but in practice, no leader is purely a Type-A or Type-B leader. That is to say, one is not mutually exclusive of the other.

Kenneth Benne and Paul Sheats (1948) identified several behaviors or roles that were observed to achieve results. Ingalls (1976) expanded on the research and stated that these behaviors become group characteristics with a Type-B leader who shares the leadership role with everyone in the group. This is outlined in the following account:

A. *Leadership Behaviors for Task Effectiveness*

1. *Initiating.* Proposing tasks or goals; defining a group problem; suggesting ideas.
2. *Seeking information.* Requesting facts; asking for expressions of opinion; seeking suggestions and ideas.
3. *Giving information.* Offering facts; asking information, opinions, and ideas.

4. *Clarifying and elaborating.* Pulling together related ideas of others; offering a tentative decision or conclusion for the group to accept or reject.
5. *Summarizing.* Pulling together related ideas of others; offering a tentative decision or conclusion for the group to accept or reject.
6. *Consensus testing.* Sending up trial balloons to test for or prepare for a possible decision for commitment or action.

B. *Leadership Behaviors for Maintaining Effective Interpersonal Relationships*

1. *Harmonizing.* Attempting to reconcile disagreements; reducing tensions.
2. *Gatekeeping.* Helping to keep communication channels open; facilitating the participation of others; inviting silent members to share their views.
3. *Encouraging.* Being friendly, warm, and responsive to others; offering nonverbal or verbal support to the suggestions or recommendations of others.
4. *Compromising.* Admitting error; modifying personal behavior in the interest of building group cohesion or growth.
5. *Standard setting and testing.* Testing whether the group is satisfied with its procedures; pointing out explicit or implicit norms that have been set and may need to be changed.
6. *Sensing and expressing feelings.* Sensing feeling, mood, relationships within the group; sharing own feelings with other members; soliciting feelings of others (p. 82).

Ingalls (1976) left no doubt that he favored a Type-B leader who shared leadership responsibilities with the group. He predicted that an organization that utilized this form of leadership would see a dramatic increase in work quality, quantity, and group creativity.

Creative Leadership

The concept of creativity is very difficult to describe as it relates to the characteristics of a leader. The literature, if it deals with the topic at all, provides little insight into specifically what is creative. Some sources imply that *any* activity is creative and that everyone is naturally creative. Some, of course, have learned to stifle many of their creative tendencies and potential unique contributions. Psychologist Michael F. Andrews (1972) supported this concept when he stated "Creativity is an expression of one's uniqueness. To be creative then is to be oneself" (p. 38).

Krauss (1977) accepted the idea that every person *can* be creative. He and others apparently believed that one could increase his or her creativity. Eugene Raudsepp (1980), president of Princeton Creative Research, published extensively in this field. He listed the following twelve principles which he claimed would increase anyone's creativity:

1. Keep track of your ideas by writing them down. Listen to your hunches and intuitions, particularly during moments of relaxation, before going to sleep or upon awakening.
2. Pose new problems for yourself every day.
3. Maintain competence in your field.
4. Learn about things outside your specialty to improve cross fertilization of others.
5. Avoid rigid, set patterns of doing things and develop alternative solutions to your problems.
6. Be open and receptive to other people's ideas.
7. Look for similarities, differences, unique and distinguishing features in situations, processes and ideas.
8. Engage in creative hobbies.
9. Improve your sense of humor because you are more creative when you are relaxed.
10. Adopt a risk-taking attitude. Nothing is more fatal to creativity than fear of failure.
11. Have courage and self confidence.
12. Learn to know and understand yourself. (pp. 26–29)

The principles listed above were the result of many years of research by Raudsepp in the area of creativity. They were not written as principles needed by leaders, but the application is obvious. Raudsepp (1980) also developed a test of 310 questions designed to determine if one had personality traits, attitudes, values, motivations, and interests that best equipped a person to handle new and difficult situations, and therefore, to be "creative." The questionnaire is quite interesting, and while not suitable for reproduction here, should be reviewed by anyone interested in research or development in creativity.

The development and use of test instruments to determine one's managerial, creative, and leadership profile is not new. In 1971, the American Management Association (A.M.A.) funded research to determine "worthy performance" competencies in successful managers. The McBee Company of Boston analyzed the profiles of more than 2,000 managers who were considered to be superior performers in providing leadership and management in their companies. A competency model developed by A.M.A. (1980) included 18 basic competencies. The competencies were grouped into the following five categories:

1. *Entrepreneurial*—which have to do with how managers deal with problems.
2. *Intellectual*-which have to do with the reasoning ability of managers.
3. *Interpersonal*—which relate to how managers interact with people.
4. *Socio-emotional*—which have to do with ego develop ment and maturity.
5. *Knowledge*—which is the special information a manager needs to perform effectively (p. 92).

The A.M.A. (1980) developed a Master of Management program which offers an assessment of competencies that a candidate possesses and also lists competencies they do not possess. A Master's degree is offered through the New York University system to candidates who develop all of the management and leadership skills identified in the program. The importance of this program to our consideration is that it demonstrates the concern of industry to develop appropriate leadership-behavior characteristics in managers. It lends credibility to the belief that these characteristics can be identified, measured, and taught.

One of the most clearly defined systems for assessing leadership characteristics was developed by Dr. James Mahoney (1977). His system, entitled *Personal Leadership Analysis*, was designed to assist individuals in assessing their leadership profiles. The analysis materials may be used by an individual to determine his other strengths and weaknesses in six management functions of (a) Evaluation, (b) Decision making or planning, (c) Implementation, (d) Leadership, (e) Follow through, and (f) Public relations. (p. 4)

Each of the six functions may be divided into "sets." The primary function that concerns us here is leadership. Mahoney identified the following five sets for leadership: (a) Management focus, (b) Production emphasis, (c) People emphasis, (d) Excitement/Intensity, and (e) Restraint. (p. 82) These sets become more meaningful when they are broken down into their subsets or descriptions against which a person assesses his other abilities, likes, and dislikes. Mahoney (1977) presented a listing of subsets under headings of assets and liabilities. For purposes of demonstrating the desirable characteristics of leaders, only selected behavior characteristics will be presented from the numerous checklists provided in his program. These include the following:

Management Focus (Assets)

1. Comfortable with decision making.
2. Can cope with pressure created by difficult decisions.
3. Pays attention to the implementation and details.
4. Good at organizing skills.
5. Possesses specialized knowledge or skill.
6. Gets things done.

Production Emphasis (Assets)

1. Promotes high achievement.
2. Motivates the group to do its best.
3. Gets group involved.
4. Focuses on concrete objectives.
5. Supports subordinates.
6. Realistic about what each group member can do.

People Emphasis (Assets)

1. Excellent communication with group members.
2. Strong subordinate loyalty.
3. Promotes a "we" quality.
4. Motivates group members to do a good job.
5. Tough minded but yet objective and shrewd.
6. Can make unpopular decision.

High Excitement (Assets)

1. Actively involved with the group.
2. Provides individual and group incentives.
3. Group identifies with the manager.
4. Develops a hard-charging group.
5. Keeps cool under pressure.
6. Provides a stable environment.

Restraint (Assets)

1. Runs quiet, mature operation.
2. Thinks through implications.
3. Very fair minded.
4. Will try anything, not tied to the past.
5. Open to outside suggestions. (p. 88)

The leadership characteristics identified by Mahoney are typical of those found in many other sources. His approach was unique in that it allowed one to perform self assessment and interpret the results as an individual. The result is a management-leadership profile that can be used to identify strengths and weaknesses. Suggestions are made in Mahoney's program on how to improve oneself if one's weaknesses are judged to be detrimental to the leadership role. The point must be made, however, that while it is very possible to improve leadership skills through training and practice, it is unlikely that dramatic changes will occur in how the leader approaches the task. A definite benefit of Mahoney's program is that it develops an awareness of leadership characteristics that assist or are detrimental to group effectiveness. Such awareness could well steer a leader away from certain pitfalls in the process of leading. There is little doubt that small changes in leadership behavior may pay big dividends in the resulting group activity.

WHAT IS POSSIBLE?

The preceding investigation into the behavior characteristics of creative leaders has a direct application to what industrial arts educators perceive as possible in their leadership roles. The substitution of the words "industrial arts teacher," or "educator," or "administrator" for the words "leader" and "manager" as they appear in the preceding pages, will demonstrate an obvious connection with the roles each of us pursues in our professional lives. It is also apparent that the key to success in an organization, whether it be a school or industry, is the leader and what he or she perceives as possible.

Figure 3-1. depicts a conceptual model of the perceptions that a leader must cope with in leading others toward possible goals.

This model shows that character traits of leaders are profoundly affected by what the individual thinks of himself or herself, how he or she perceives others, and how he or she perceives the organization. All three perceptions form an integrated unit or platform from which the leader operates in helping followers achieve what is possible in terms of personal and organizational goals.

Perception of Self

Ancient philosophers claimed that knowledge of self is the first step toward wisdom. This viewpoint is supported by the efforts of those authors who developed checklists and other assessment forms for determining leadership strengths and weaknesses in an individual. It is supported also by authors such as Dr. Robert H. Schuller who preaches that "Anyone Can Be a Great Leader" (printed sermon, 1978). He convincingly argued in his book *Reach Out for New Life*

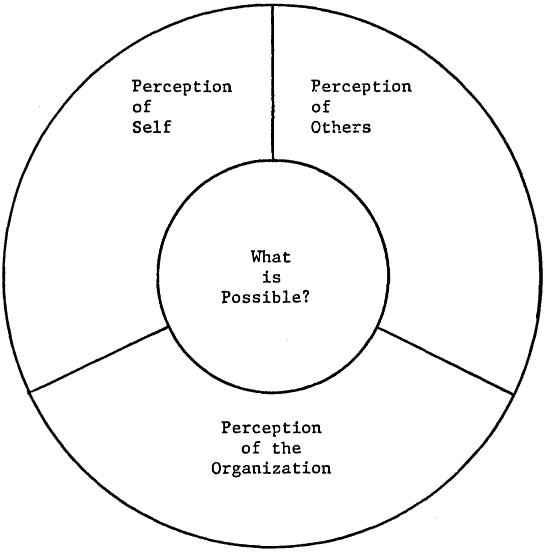

Figure 3-1. Perceptions that a Leader Must Have in Leading Others

(1977) that a creative leader (whom he calls a "possibility thinker") begins with the "I can do it" attitude. (p. 17)

Obviously, a strong self concept will not stand alone in a leader's role. It must be supported by a solid knowledge base, interpersonal skills, and other leadership characteristics related to the task to be accomplished.

Perception of Others

The basic definition of leadership by Burns (1978) (see Chapter 1) includes interaction between the leader and the group. Any interaction between the two will be influenced by the leader's perception of others.

The Type-A and Type-B behaviors described by Ingalls (1976) fall within this category. The Type-A leader needs to master and control subordinates, which usually increases psychological and interpersonal tension. (p. 22) The Type-B behavior in promoting openness, shared leadership, and free choice reduces the interpersonal tension because it is based on trust. It can, however, create other tensions if the trust between leader and group is violated, and consequently, the goals are not met (p. 23).

The implications of these concepts for industrial arts teachers and administrators makes an interesting study. Most readers will have no difficulty in recalling colleagues who have exhibited one or more of the behavior characteristics described above, and they have probably drawn their own conclusions about which are considered "best" or "worst." The point to be made here is that the perception leaders have of their followers (student, colleagues, etc.) has a dramatic effect on the approach that will be taken in tapping the potential of the group. "What is possible" will become reality when the leader is able to assess the forces which tug and pull at each person in an organization. The flexible leader will attempt to provide structure for those group members needing a structured work environment, and also will try to provide freedom and self direction for those members who function best in an unstructured setting.

Leonard Sayles (1979) stated that most leadership questions do not have cut-and-dried formulas for solving them. "The multiplicity of competing values, subgoals, special interests, and perceptual biases requires most decisions to be worked out in an interpersonal process using advice, solicitation, negotiation, persuasion, sounding out, and consensus building" (p. 18).

Perception of the Organization

Few studies have dealt with this topic as it affects leadership, and yet it is an extension of the concept of the leader's perception of others. Leaders and groups need to abide by the rules of the company or organization for whom they work (Ford, 1981). The chain of command requires department heads to be subject to the policies of deans, and deans are subject to policies of other administrators on up the line. Frequently, the effectiveness of the group can be thwarted as the result of a poor working relationship between the leader of the group and the superiors in the organization. The personal characteristics of leadership required in one's group may take on a different quality in dealing with the rest of the department, the college, or the university organization.

Burns (1978) stated that group leaders need to identify the power structure of the organization in order to facilitate the operation of the group within the organization. Communication is the key to influential leadership as revealed in the following:

> They (leaders) must be able to communicate with a variety of people of widely different background, temperament, interest, and attitude. Much of the leader's influence in the organization will turn on their own qualities of character, expertise, prestige, intelligence, charm and credibility. (p. 374)

The ultimate success or failure of the leader to accomplish organizational goals, in turn, can have a cyclical effect on the leadership role.

Success breeds success. Herzberg (1959) presented a two-factor theory of human motivation, which stated that people needed appreciation, recognition, and a feeling of accomplishment if they were to be satisfied with their jobs. He also listed "poor company policies and administration" (p. 23) as an element that causes job dissatisfaction. Hence, a realistic perception of what the industrial arts department expects and/or demands, is essential to the success of the leaders as well as the department.

Dr. Thomas Gordon (1977) stated that leader effectiveness is tied directly to the leader's perception of how he or she is being treated by the organization. The work itself must be perceived as rewarding, and the leader needs to perceive the opportunity for growth, responsibility, recognition, and advancement. For example:

> If leaders have little opportunity to satisfy their needs for self-esteem and job satisfaction, they will seek opportunities off the job to satisfy their needs. This is why many people put forth only just enough energy to keep their jobs and receive their pay; in addition, they feel alienated from (or uninvolved) in the organization. (p. 24)

The other side of the coin of how leaders perceive their departments or colleges would be the persons whose lives are dedicated to the work of the department itself. Their personal interests are the industrial arts program's long-term development and success. They tend to overvalue the program in relation to their families, and when they are away from their work, they feel insignificant and/or lost.

Obviously, dedication to one's program, department, or organization is an essential characteristic in a leader. A middle-of-the-road approach is recommended for those in the two extremes of low motivation or excessive zeal for success.

SUMMARY

Leadership is a fragile entity and a scarce commodity. It is sought after not only by industrial arts educators, but by business, industry, politics, education, and all realms of human endeavor where groups of people are united in a common cause. The work of the leader is often hectic and fragmented, and it demands an ability to shift from one problem to another in rapid succession. Leadership in industrial arts education is, and must be, action, process, and being. It is the unending succession of telephone calls, meetings, and personal responses to people, whether they are students, administrators, or colleagues, and yet it is rewarding. Who can tell what is possible when leaders acquire the skills that enable them to release the productive potential of people and harness the collective capabilities of the group? Some of them may move mountains. (Gordon, 1977, p. 11)

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Chapter 4

The Driving Forces of Creative Leadership

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THE NEED FOR CREATIVE LEADERSHIP

Leadership is a complex phenomenon which has attracted much attention from social scientists. Our insights into this important area of Human Resource Development (HRD) are continually expanding as theorists attempt to examine and consolidate the accumulated body of research.

Leadership: HRD and Positive Influences

One definition of leadership which has a growing acceptance is the one supported by Tannenbaum, Weschler, and Massarik (1961). They described leadership as "interpersonal influence, exercised in situation and directed, through the communication process, toward the attainment of specified goal or goals" (p. 24). An important consideration within this definition is that any member may influence positively others in the group process toward the attainment of organizational goals and fulfillment of their motivational needs. The other important aspect of the definition of leadership was observed by Stogdill (1948) when he stated, "many definitions did not provide insight into the structure of process involved in the emergence or maintenance of leadership" (p. 38).

It was not until the introduction of the goal-attainment concept that leadership was viewed as a continuous process. Even then, realization of leadership as a continuous group process was lacking. The positive influence of any member through the interpersonal relationships with other members within a group creates the dynamics for change and goal achievement.

The concept of human development is consistent with the expanding capability and capacity for leadership development. Campbell (1980) explained the "upward spiral of leadership" as follows:

> You can constantly grow through a series of expanding challenges; you can master new skills, study more involved concepts, gather broader experiences, meet a wider circle of friends, and develop bigger plans for the future. At every leadership level, there are personal improvements you can make, and the cumulative result is an enriched life. (p. 12)

The notion of an "upward spiral" (See Figure 4-1) represents growth, increased capacity, and opportunity for greater participation and influence. Industrial arts teachers at all levels can view their involvement and their influence on others—and can identify others who profoundly influence their lives—and recognize the importance of interaction, influence, and personal growth.

One other definition which simplifies the critical element of leadership was provided by Kampmeier:

> Leadership is the ability which enables an individual to get other people to do willingly what they have the ability to do but might not spontaneously do on their own. Leadership implies that an individual has a special effect on others which commands their respect, admiration, or affection and causes them to follow him. In other words, leadership consists of getting a positive response from others and utilizing that response to bring about a desired attitude or course of action. (1976, p. 360)

Again, the notion of positive influence or "special effects on others" suggests that a leader serves as a catalyst to persuade group

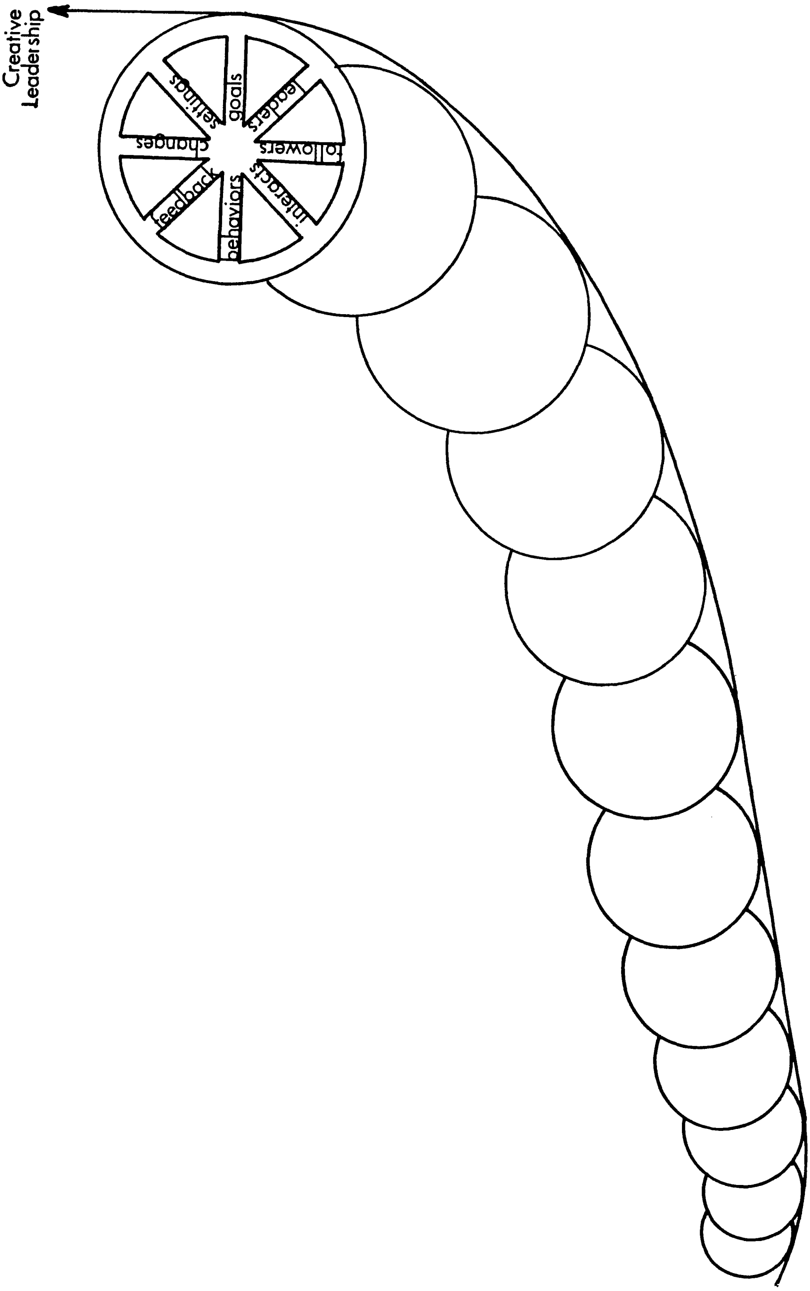
Creative Leadership
goals
leaders
followers
interacts
behaviors
feedback
changes
settings

Figure 4-1. Whirlwind Spiral of Expanding Leadership Capabilities

members to act and make things happen. Perhaps it would be best to reconceptualize the nature of leadership as a continuous, expanding, and dynamic process which operates within successful groups to accomplish mutually derived and beneficial goals.

Campbell (1980) suggested that leadership was a developmental process and that this process generally allowed a person to "organize your experiences, take some initiative, and impose your will upon the shape of your life" (p. 15). This is a period of collecting experiences by trying a wider range of activities, by meeting more and different types of people, by taking some risks, and by learning that a few failures are not catastrophic and that even they give you valuable experience.

Evolutionary Development of Leadership

The definition of leadership has evolved from a simple, unidirectional concept involving only the leader to a complex, multifaceted phenomenon as shown by the many definitions and classifications. However, it is safe to say that leadership is a behavior involving the interaction of persons to attain individual and/or group goals within a specified situation. Since leadership is a very complex process, let us exam briefly several concepts and models to provide more meaning to the chapter.

IDENTIFICATION OF EFFECTIVE LEADERS

The purpose of this section is to provide information regarding various leadership concepts and models that lead to identification of effective leaders. The information presented, in conjunction with the definition, allows the reader to glean a more complete picture of leadership and how it relates to identifying effective leaders.

Trait Theory

The idea that leaders possessed superior characteristics which separated them from their followers led to the rise of the Trait Theory. If such superior characteristics existed, then it should be possible to identify them.

Fiedler and Chemers (1974) stated that between World War I and World War II the emphasis was on the identification of leadership traits. They stated that a trait can be defined as "a personality attribute or a way of interacting with others which is independent of the situation, that is, a characteristic of the person rather than the situation" (p. 22).

Stogdill (1974) surveyed the literature on leadership traits and found the overall concept to be disappointing. He concluded:

> A person does not become a leader by virtue of the possession of some combination of traits, but by the pattern of personal characteristics, activities, and goals of the followers. The leadership must be conceived in terms of the interaction of variables which are in constant flux and change. The factor of change is especially characteristic of the situation, which may be radically altered by the addition or loss of members, changes in interpersonal relationships, or changes in goals. (p. 64)

Stodgill did find some relationship between leadership traits and status, and he came to the following conclusions: "The average person who occupies a position of leadership exceeds the average member of his group in (a) intelligence, (b) scholarship, (c) dependability in exercising responsibilities, (d) activity and social participation, and (e) socio-economic status" (p. 63). When the trait approach to leadership identification failed to hold up under close scrutiny researchers searched elsewhere for answers.

Behavioral Theory

A new and major period in the study of leadership took a dramatic shift in attempting to answer the question, "What do leaders do?" instead of "What characteristics make good leaders?" Two major forces under the behavioral theory approach to leadership are provided here.

Critical incidents. The first major study to determine leader behaviors was organized by Shartle at The Ohio State University (1950). These studies, started in 1945, spread over a twenty-year period. The major purpose was to determine critical incidents (behaviors) which could predict good and bad leaders. This was the area where prior theories had failed.

The basis for the behavioral studies stemmed from an item called *Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire* (LBDQ). This instrument was designed to determine critical behaviors. Such behaviors were defined as actions observed as crucial to effective leadership performance. Initially, the LBDQ compiled a list of approximately 1,500 behaviors. Utilizing the techniques of factor analysis, Hemphill (1950) found two major themes—consideration and initiating structure.

Consideration involves behaviors which indicate friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth between the leader and the follower. A leader who rates high in consideration directs his concern and effort toward establishing and maintaining good interpersonal relationships, high group morale, and job satisfaction.

Initiating of structure involves the act of organizing. In this case, the leader who ranks high in initiation has a concern for performance which is expressed in directing the structuring of the group's effort toward a common goal.

Humanistic Theories Emerged. Following the concentrated efforts in determining critical behaviors, a group of concepts categorized as "humanistic theories" emerged. Theories such as Likert's System Four (1961), McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y (1960), Herzberg's Two Factor Theory of Satisfaction (1966), and Tannenbaum's Theories of Influence (1961) were presented. Each of these ideas was based on the behavioral sciences. They integrated the concepts of need fulfillment, motivation, and job satisfaction into the ongoing search for what makes a good leader.

Humanistic theories, a part of the human relations movement in management, appeared during the 1960s. Stogdill (1974) summarized the following principles of the movement:

1. The development of effective and cohesive organizations is a prime concern.
2. The human being, by nature, is motivated.
3. The organization, by nature, is structured and controlled.
4. The function of leadership is to modify organizations in order to provide freedom for individuals to realize their own potential and fulfillment of their own needs and yet contribute to the organization's goal attainment.

Many new and exciting ideas resulted from the humanistic leadership theories period. A greater emphasis was placed on leadership as a process rather than a role. For example, in his book, *Leadership and Organization: a Behavioral Science Approach*, Tannenbaum (1961) outlined four components of effective leadership. They were interpersonal influence, the situation, the communications process, and goal orientation. Each of these elements seemed to play an equally important role in exercising effective leadership.

In order to obtain goal achievement, certain behaviors must be exhibited by the group. The leader, through the communications process, attempts to direct the behaviors of the followers. The process chosen is dependent upon the situation. The message may be transmitted consciously, subconsciously, verbally, or nonverbally; however, the communication process is an important leadership function.

Each individual, including the leader, has personal goals. It is the leader's responsibility to understand the relationship between personal and organizational goals. Tannenbaum (1961) stated that leadership effectiveness is measured against the attainment of goals.

The successful leader will not only direct the group toward organizational goals, but also will allow the pursuit of individual goals.

An important aspect of the influence process is the idea of perception. How does one perceive another? Influence exerted by leaders depends upon how they perceive themselves, the group, and the situation. Ideally, these perceptions are accurate, therefore resulting in effective leadership. However, incorrect views cause misunderstandings which lead to unsuccessful goal attainment and ultimately destruction of the leadership process.

In discussing influence relationships, Rensis Likert (1961) developed the "linking-pin" concept. The crucial point of this concept was that the leader is a member of two groups, that of subordinates and that of superiors. Likert stated that the "interaction-influence" principle must be in operation if effective leadership is to occur. This principle contains two important factors: First, the amount of influence a leader exerts upward in the organization determines the extent of the influence exerted downward. Secondly, leaders who allow the group to influence them will be able to exert more influence upon the followers. If the group members are involved in the decision-making process, they will be more apt to abide by the decision.

These ideas had great implications toward developing a participative style of leadership. Likert believed that the application of scientific research to human behavior in the social setting of the workplace was the basis for managing people effectively.

Organization Development

The discussion of leadership-theory development would be incomplete unless "organization development" (O.D.), an approach which has gained prominence in managing people, was included. With great frequency, the term O.D. keeps reappearing. Professional journals contain numerous articles concerning organization development. Industry has long since begun implementing O.D. principles into its organizations. Hackman and Suttle (1977) defined organization development as "a long-term process by which people in an organization become involved in examining how they and the organization are functioning or might want to function" (p. 389).

Beach (1975) provided a slightly different meaning. He stated, "O.D. is a complex strategy designed to increase organizational effectiveness and health through planned intervention" (p. 426). A number of observations can be made concerning these definitions of organization development. Leaders continue to learn and grow while striving for greater successes in directing others toward group goals. Interaction is taking place since organizational development requires this involvement. The setting of goals is obvious. The concept of structure is integrated.

Educators generally are aware of the principles and processes of learning. Leading a group to obtain desired behaviors demands change—organizational change. Thus, the changes can be viewed as organizational learning. For this to occur, the leader must view himself or herself as the facilitator of the learning process.

Seven assumptions were presented by Hackman and Suttle (1977) for improving life and work:

1. People and organizations must be ready and motivated to change in order for change to "take."
2. Changes in individual's knowledge and attitudes must be accompanied by changes in organizational constraints that shape behavior, such as organizational structure, practices, leadership, and reward systems.
3. People learn best from their own experiences. For this reason, change comes about from opportunities to experiment with new ways of doing things.
4. People become committed to changes when they are involved in and help to create them.
5. The quality of the solution improves when people who are part of the problem participate in shaping the final solution.
6. People can become self-directed in creating change only when they have learned to take responsibility for change.
7. Trust, collaboration, and open confrontation of conflict are needed in order for organizations to be continuously adaptive. (p. 391)

An interesting point of organization development is that it attempts to encompass the total system. Contrary to earlier theories and beliefs, it considers not only the leader, but also superiors, subordinates, environments, and other factors. This view recognizes that different approaches are required for different situations. Organization development strives to create an atmosphere of trust, open communication, and self-directed change—yet, enough structure to obtain change. A recent issue of *Personnel Administrator* (April, 1980) contained an article which summed up the advantage in implementing O.D. as a strategy. William Crockett, author of the article, stated:

> Through the process of O.D., we have a chance of seeing our behaviors, evaluating our behaviors, and changing our behaviors so that we can unhook ourselves from creating dependency at all levels below us. This will create the situation and climate that will enable people to take responsibility for their own lives, values, outlooks, and to show initiative at all levels within the organization.

> People will grow! This creates the opportunity for everyone to win! (p. 69)

A CASE FOR CREATIVE LEADERSHIP

Creativity Defined

Perhaps it will be helpful to define the term creativity before discussing the creative individual or creative leadership. For example, Torrance (1966), one of the most prolific writers on creativity, has defined creativity as follows: "The process of becoming sensitive to problems, deficiencies, gaps in knowledge, missing elements, disharmonies, and so on: identifying difficulty, searching for solutions, making guesses, or formulating hypothesis and possibly modifying and retesting them, and finally communicating the results" (p. 3).

Campbell (1980), commenting on creative leadership, observed that "you learn to be creative, to do things slightly differently from the people around you. You see where improvements can be made, where changes can be useful. Perhaps you find a better way to organize a collection you have started." (p. 15) Changing something based on the experience accumulated allows a person to be creative by discovering where improvements can be made, in breaking away from the useful thought routine, and reaching an unusual and useful solution to a perceived problem.

Stages of Creativity

The very developmental nature of leadership implies that leaders must create organizational structure and meaningful individual involvement if crystallized goals are to be achieved. Creativity must go beyond the generation of ideas, however, and continue through solving problems innovatively. Employing the ideas of others, making opportunities for creative behavior, and rewarding original thinking (which elevates the responsiveness of the entire group) are critical functions of a creative leader. The important fact here is that leaders need to recognize that they may be interacting with individuals who have considerable experience in functioning as a cohesive group or with persons where there is limited readiness to function as a creative group.

People seem to learn best from their own experiences. It is therefore necessary to raise the levels of motivation and creativity of group members by being sensitive to the fundamental needs and values of each one as well as to the organization goals and means to achieve them. Leaders learn to recognize the roles which inspiration, direction, and patience play in producing creative work (See Figure 4-2).

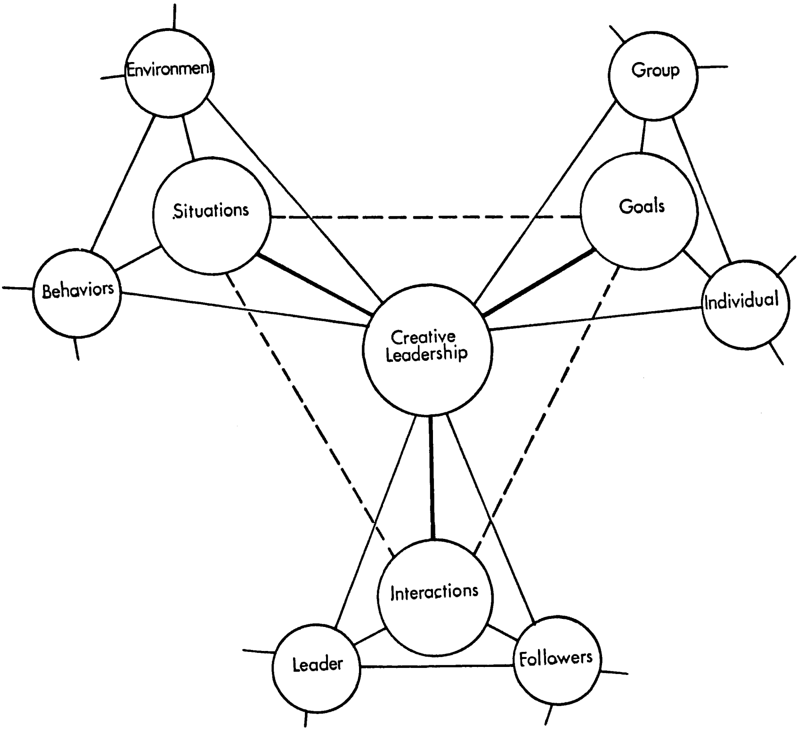

Figure 4-2. Interrelationship of Leadership Forces

As with individuals, so it is with groups that the creative process manifests itself through several stages. These stages follow a sequence of (a) preparation, (b) incubation, (c) inspiration, and (d) verification. There are no definitive boundaries between these stages, but they serve to describe the major parts of the creative process.

Preparation Stage. It involves an arousal or awareness of a need; for example, a need to assess the appropriateness of the curriculum. Becoming sensitive to problems, deficiencies, and disharmonies is a form of preparation to search for solutions. Obviously, the status leader or any other member within a group may initiate the communication and personal exchange to take place which heightens the awareness of the problem. If the group perceives an unmet need, a desirable goal, or means to achieve a probable solution, and a potential benefit to the group, such awareness will predispose the group to devote its time and creative energies to the task of changing the situation.

Information, experience, willingness to experiment, and preoccupation with the problem will enhance the predisposition to remain involved with the search for a solution. Most often, the realization of extreme dissatisfaction with established order initiates the struggle for creative solutions. Perhaps Ghiselin (1952) captured the significance of the preparation stage in the creative process in the following observation:

> A great deal of the work necessary to equip and activate the mind for the spontaneous part of invention must be done consciously and with an effort of will. Mustering accumulated knowledge, gathering new facts, observing, exploring, experiencing, developing technique and skill, sensibility and discrimination, are all more or less conscious and voluntary activities. (p. 28)

Creative individuals recognize that to improve most of what we do, whether it is in our classroom, in an organization, or in personal life, will take considerable preparation and work.

Incubation stage. This is a period during which ideas are allowed to develop and accumulate. A favorable environment for incubation of ideas can be facilitated by reducing stress for immediate solutions while providing opportunities for creative exchange of ideas and working within a tolerating relationship with other members of a group. Ideas and solutions to problems tend to take form through the energies of cross examination and selection processes. Creative individuals often will see relationships among significant concepts and derive a Gestalt, thus providing a clearer picture of workable solutions. The incubation stage is an active, ongoing, evolving experience rather than a dormant process.

When major changes are sought, it may be helpful to devote sufficient time to the incubation period so that attitudes and other essential behaviors can be fostered. Making plans, considering, and carrying them out requires substantial imagination, judgment, and risk taking. The incubation stage allows for the developmental process to occur.

Inspiration Stage. This involves any stimulus or creative thought or action which influences behavior. Most authorities on creativity tend to agree that inspiration is somewhat dependent upon previous energy and attention to a particular idea or task. Inventiveness and creativity may be dormant and rise to consciousness at most unpredictable moments. Inspirational moments allow us to see and understand relationships we were not capable of comprehending previously. Ghiselin (1952, p. 30) pointed out that although the work that tests, refines, and consolidates what is attained in moments of inspiration is not likely to be all conscious calculations, it is largely so.

Sometimes these are the simplest solutions that previously escaped us. Experience and practice in problem solving generally facilitate our ability to be creative and make new things happen. The authors recall a perplexing problem of monitoring the progress of many students in the graduate program. After several discussion sessions, one faculty member outlined a very systematic computer-based management program to the graduate committee. When asked about the conception of the model, he replied that it was easy. "Yesterday, while I was having breakfast, it all seemed to fall together." It was the "eureka" moment. The interesting point to note is that our subconscious mind still continues to concentrate on perplexing problems if they are compelling to us. As Campbell (1980) indicated, the results of inspiration are pleasant, and such results will benefit the group and the individual. These are the moments that make all the previous attention, courage, preoccupation, and perseverance with the task meaningful and satisfying.

Verification Stage. This is the confirmation of the idea or theory through practice. Many ideas or proposed procedures may sound plausible; however, it is their revision, correction, and ultimate application which demonstrate their relevancy to serve our goals or purposes.

Ideas are adopted, integrated, or applied to the extent that they are perceived to be useful and relevant to the group. Obviously, one of the remaining responsibilities which goes beyond the verification stage is communication of the ideas or solutions in a lucid manner to other members of the group.

Guilford (1952) indicated he believed creativity to be similar to most other learned skills and that it could be extended within the limits of the individual (p. 48). By recognizing the four stages of creativity, leaders are able to assist group members at different levels of readiness to participate and expand their creative capabilities. Moreover, the individuals find the intellectual excitement of discovering new worlds, new meanings, and new solutions which are beneficial to all members.

Ghiselin (1952) summarized the significance of the creative process as follows: "even the most energetic and original mind, in order to reorganize or extend human insight in any valuable way, must have attained more than ordinary mastery of the field in which it is to act, a strong sense of what needs to be done, and skill in the appropriate means of expression" (p. 29). The creative psychologists who understood and promoted the concept of learning by doing for industrial arts had germinal insights that prove to be valuable in practice. The conceptual stages of creativity are manifested through learning to do what you do and nothing else.

The Creative Individual

While research results indicate that some individuals who possess certain characteristics may be more creative than others, it should be noted that no one descriptive characteristic should be considered as a complete description of a person thought to be creative. MacKinnon (Razik, 1966) wrote the following of his research findings on creative adults: "Creative people have an inordinate drive toward their work . . . ; they also have an immense commitment to what they choose to do" (p. 160–165).

Torrence (1963) listed some 84 characteristics of creative individuals. The presence of such characteristics can serve only as guides for differentiating the highly creative individual from the less creative individual, using personality measurements and life experience inventories. Some descriptive characteristics are as follows:

1. Acceptive of disorder.
2. Adventurous.
3. Disruptive of organization.
4. Energetic.
5. Independent in thinking and judgment.
6. Intuitive and original.
7. Persistent.
8. Self-assertive.
9. Self-confident.
10. Not interested in small detail.

Later, Torrence (1966) listed several non-test indicators for identifying the creative individual. Several of these were:

1. Curiosity.
2. Originality.
3. Courageous behavior.
4. Non-conforming behavior.
5. Bent on experimentation.
6. Unwillingness to give up.
7. Preoccupation with an idea.
8. Going beyond assigned task.

It is important to recognize that all persons exhibit a certain amount of creativity and that creativity skills can be developed. A leader who has to work with given group members can structure the group in such combinations as to combine individuals who have strong interest and varying amounts of expertise in working on a problem. Recognizing persons with talent and expertise and assigning them to areas of their interest will likely bring satisfactory results. On the other hand, a leader also must be patient with the very creative person who has the ability to synthesize facts and information and derive meaning from a large variety of seemingly unrelated bits of information. Such persons tend to be adventurous, seek a greater variety of alternatives, and tend to be more tenacious in their preoccupation with a problem. Creative persons, being curious, generally will ask more penetrating questions which can stimulate the thinking of the entire group. An astute leader will capitalize on the creative individual's potential to work on compelling problem areas.

Facilitators of Creativity

Creative leaders must take the initiative in helping the group form its goals. This can be the first indication to the group that leaders recognize their job is concerned with getting the best contribution from those for whose work they are responsible. Commenting on the influence of leaders on group members, Levinson (1968) wrote: "They, too, call for the generalist who is a specialist in managing people, in creating a climate in which people can do their best, and who will be judged by what his followers do" (p. 116).

In the majority of situations there are opportunities for improvement, for critical analysis, for new ideas to be tested and confirmed. Creative leaders can serve their groups best by creating opportunities for participation, releasing potential of group members, removing obstacles, and assigning resources to accomplish group derived goals.

It has been the authors' experience that the establishment of goals can be stimulating academically and also the first group exercise which creates both group cohesiveness and a climate of mutual trust. Further, the goals serve as the road map for many avenues of participation which allow the leader to draw upon the group members' initiative, imagination, and competencies in achieving these goals. Levinson (1968) concluded that "He who would lead must follow. That is, he must understand the values and expectations of his followers. Unless he does, he will be unable to win their consent. Without consent, he cannot lead" (p. 58).

One must admit that at times errors are made in assessing a member's genuine values and expectations. In one incident, a creative faculty member was appointed to serve as coordinator of undergraduate studies. The appointment carried no extra remuneration and the administrative routines had little appeal to this person. His creative talents in curriculum development, student interactions, and cross-discipline activities were diminished because of an inadequate assessment of his values, expectations, and talents. Administrative experience and regard for an individual's talents and potential contributions generally would prevent a mismatch of personnel and necessary functions and activities. Most seasoned leaders will facilitate creative productivity by matching assignments with an individual's talents, strengths, and enthusiasm for a particular type of activity.

Hahn (1968) summarized the importance of facilitating creativity when he wrote, "More specifically, the task of leaders is to identify creative talent and to provide the kind of total environment which will facilitate its development and expression" (p. 1). Perhaps the greatest contribution and service a leader can provide is to foster continuous growth and development of all group members he serves. Creative leaders recognize that they have an obligation and an opportunity to serve others. Greenleaf (1979) made a perceptive observation regarding the importance of serving others. He stated, "While being served, they grow as persons, they become healthier, wise, freer, more autonomous, more likely themselves to be servants" (p. 81). An effective leader must benefit the members of the group through service.

There is an atmosphere of exhilaration in seeing a group succeed—a group that has worked together for a realizable goal. It seems to the authors that regard for colleagues, tolerance and good humor, and periodic face-to-face encounters, does facilitate creativity and productivity. One might conclude that creative leaders serve rather than rule, maintain an attitude that each person is capable of contributing, and have a sense of self-confidence about what they are doing.

Inhibitors of Creativity

Effective leaders must gain the confidence and support of significant groups if they are to create a climate and organizational arrangement in which creative members can work to achieve or implement significant change. On the other hand, an ineffective leader may inhibit the development of creativity and create turmoil. Much of the leadership in a dynamic interactional system must evolve from groups and individuals within these groups. If the uniqueness of the personalities involved in the group are disregarded, if the group is ruled in a dominating manner, criticized too often, and creative ideas are not rewarded, it is unlikely that creative development will take place.

Less effective leaders tend to react with threat and often counter with aggressive behavior when under attack. When an openness to ideas is not encouraged, original ideas are not rewarded, goals are ill defined, and resources are poorly distributed, the atmosphere will not create the dynamics or the desire on the part of group members to explore meaningful change. Inhibition of creativity results from placing barriers in the way of creative individuals.

It has been an important observation that a critical mass of approximately 25 percent of group members can impact the group significantly for positive change. The important consideration is that creative leaders will derive much satisfaction in removing barriers to creative solutions and in observing their members succeed. For creative individuals and group processes to function, a conducive atmosphere (one of openness and trust) must exist.

STRATEGIES FOR LEADERSHIP IN DYNAMIC ENVIRONMENT

Creative Group Environment

Every individual, with varying degrees, has potential to be creative and inventive. Some group environments are more conducive to creative thinking than others. The stress on the purposefulness or goal directedness in the group facilitates the creative process.

A goal-directed group, according to Palleschi and Heim (1980) will experience greater interaction, cohesiveness, and productivity providing the following elements are present:

1. Shared knowledge.
2. Shared territory.
3. Same stature.
4. Same communication availability. (p. 14)

These same authors made another observation, "Being the same as other group members, following the norms of the group, is one way an individual communicates commitment to a group's goals" (p. 14). The challenge to a creative leader is to recognize the above tendency and then to reconcile it with the definition of creativity as expressed by Simpson (1922) when he stated, "Creative ability is the intuition which one manifests by his power to break away from the usual thought routine and into altogether different patterns of thought" (p. 234). It should be noted that while group members may possess common knowledge and experiences and may be committed to a common goal, it is also possible through individual differences to arrive at an unusual, original, and useful solution to the problem related to a specific goal.

Creative leaders must not only seek to improve their creative talents, but also must be supportive to those group members who exhibit creative productivity. Based upon our knowledge of human development, Guilford (1952) stated that he believed "creativity to be similar to most other learned skills and that it could be extended within the limits of the individual" (p. 48).

Creative leaders need to provide opportunities for group members to explore alternative solutions to complex problems, to examine the benefits and consequences of each, and eventually to believe in an innovation until experience proves its value. There is an intellectual excitement in observing creativity in leadership stimulating group members to change, improve, and expand that portion of the world they are experienced in, and then making new things happen.

The authors recall an incident in which faculty members were discontented with student evaluation of instructors. A voluntary committee worked on this perplexing and disrupting problem. The creative chairman of the committee asked for multiple solutions to the problem. As a result, the committee went beyond the traditional reliance on faculty evaluation by students and proposed student, peer, administrative, and self evaluation. These were followed by an administrative conference for providing comprehensive feedback to the faculty members. Deviating from past practice takes added energy, a willingness to change, and accepting a degree of risk. Campbell (1980) provided us with encouragement to be creative by these observations: "The results are pleasant—a sense of growth, greater freedom, a feeling of relevance, a belief that what you do matters—and that is heady wine" (p. 26).

A strategy for creative leadership has been proposed by Kampmeier (1976) in his article, "Creative Leadership in the School," which should prove to be valuable to industrial arts teachers and administrators. In its simplified version, Kampmeier presented the strategy for creative leadership as "a face-to-face process to be worked through in dialogue between a principal and teacher who share the mutual desire for more productivity and satisfaction from their work" (p. 360).

Creative Leadership for Leader and Followers

Obviously, the strategy for creative leadership would apply as well to a department head-faculty member relationship, and to other situations where greater commitment and greater desire to perform are important. Kampmeier maintained that "face-to-face encounter with your teachers presents your most effective and efficient opportunity for meaningful change in your school" (p. 361). He raised a series of common-sense questions designed to create a situation where high human development can and will occur. They are listed as follows:

1. Can we work together?
2. What do you really want?
3. Why do you want that?
4. Why don't you have it already?
5. What are you willing to do to get it?
6. Will you commit? (p. 361)

The strategy is deceptively simple—implying mutual support, goal-setting, value clarification, motivation, willingness to act, individual responsibility, and commitment.

The dramatically powerful developmental capacity of the strategy for creative leadership provides only a part of the explanation for the success of the model. Carl Rogers (1962) noted another significant dimension which contributes to the effectiveness of creative leadership. He said that "it is the quality of the interpersonal encounter with the client which is the most significant element in determining effectiveness of human development" (p. 361).

Creative leaders recognize that their attitudinal and experiential backgrounds enable them to interact with other individuals with differing expectations. Still, within each situation, the leader has the responsibility to promote a relationship growth.

Individuals tend to respond more positively to leaders who are genuine, who are tolerant of diverse ideas, and who have a positive regard for the other person. The predisposition for an effective goal-setting and motivational process is fostered in a situation where quality interpersonal relationships exist.

Kampmeier (1976) distilled the importance of creating and maintaining quality interpersonal relationships. "The essential task of management is to arrange organizational conditions and methods of operation so that people can achieve their own goals best by directing their own efforts toward organizational objectives" (p. 362).

It is not only a matter of facilitating a better opportunity for others to achieve goals, but as Killian (1979) reminded us, "An important responsibility of leadership is to use ideas to solve problems, to make the department more successful, to get more done, and to make your own job easier" (p. 217).

There is mutual benefit to the creative leader and to the individual members when all persons engage in creative and constructive thinking in terms of solving a problem.

How does a leader promote human motivation and potential? By working together, it should be possible to achieve individual and departmental objectives. Kampmeier (1976) viewed the responsibility of a creative leader as "a process primarily of creating opportunities, releasing potential, removing obstacles, encouraging growth, and providing guidance" (p. 362).

Generally, when opportunities for meaningful participation are present and individuals perceive the attainment of goals as realistic, there is little likelihood of resistance to the leader by members of a department. "Leaders must lead" is a common phrase in our successful enterprises. Words such as excellence, effectiveness, productivity, and results are a function of well-defined goals. It seems to the authors that one critical area where most persons could improve in leadership effectiveness is in the devotion of more time to crystallizing goals before allocating resources and releasing human energy in attempting to achieve such goals. Most people will work to accomplish goals if they identify with these goals and perceive them to be worthy. Ask the more productive faculty members what they really want and contrast those responses with the less productive faculty members and observe which group has a more clearly defined set of goals. (See Figure 4-3.)

It has been the authors' experience that productive faculty members tend to define their goals more realistically and display a greater awareness of their unmet needs.

Participative problem solving is also developmental in nature. Individuals who are encouraged to participate and contribute to the solutions of a problem and are rewarded for their contributions are more likely to identify with the success of a department. Leaders can be more effective if they utilize previous experience, acquire a clear perspective of the situation, and accurately assess the potential of an individual in assigning tasks in which the person can succeed. Success breeds self-confidence, development, growth, and enthusiasm. There is a benefit to the leader and the other individual involved.

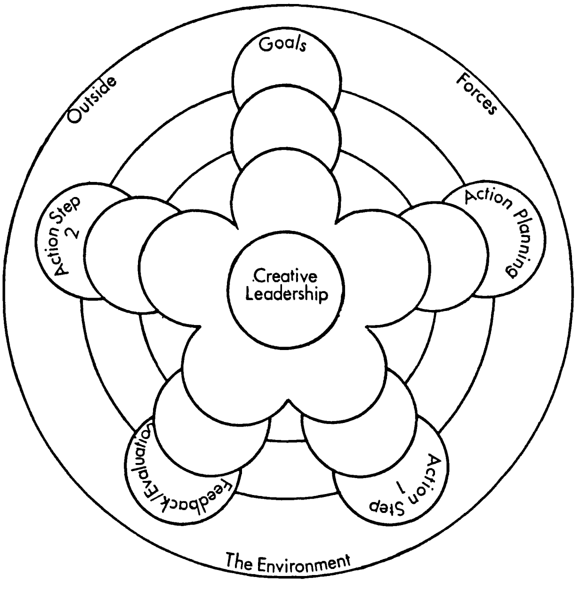

Figure 4-3. Leadership Process Model

Killian (1979) made two statements which capture the central essence of creative leadership:

> Only when there is an understanding of individuals and human relationships can supervisors be effective in their daily job of influencing people toward specific goals. . . . Top management recognizes that departmental leadership is the most decisive single factor affecting the accomplishments of the department (p. 245).

Every leader discovers sooner or later that leadership positions are complex and that each situation poses several possible responses. The creative leader plays many roles simultaneously, sets priorities, and divides energies and attention among various pressing problems. That is what keeps many persons in leadership positions. When the excitement, enthusiasm, and challenges wane, it is time to search for new levels of opportunities, new goals, and perhaps even a new organization.

SUMMARY

As a reader, you probably anticipated finding wise, winning, and wonderful things an effective leader could and should do. There are no simple procedures, paths, or practices that enable a person to be a creative and efficient leader in every situation. Leadership can be learned through systematic acquisition of knowledge and specific skills appropriate to leadership functions and reinforcement through experience and continued practice. Campbell's spiral concept of expanding challenges, broader experiences, and a wider circle of friends all contribute to a personal sensitivity of leaders to their own and other group members' potentials and weaknesses.

The concepts of influence by the leader getting a positive response from others and utilizing that response to attain desired actions to benefit group members is significant to every leadership situation. Setting group goals and achieving these goals through the creative group process is important in satisfying organizational goals and individual motivational needs. Leaders recognize that leadership is a continuous and dynamic process. The balance between achievement of organizational goals and meeting human aspirations and satisfactions is a complex phenomenon which calls for the greatest insights into one's own behavior; attitudes, needs, and other characteristics of the followers; purposes and structure of the organization; and the social economic and political milieu. As McGregor (1976) pointed out, "It means that leadership is not a property of the individual, but a complex relationship among the above variables" (p. 19).

The essential task of leaders is to arrange organizational conditions and allocate human and other resources so that individuals can achieve their own goals by directing their own creative efforts toward organizational objectives.

After much is said and done, the interpersonal influence through face-to-face encounters—which create a situation where high human development can and will occur—is the reason for being a leader.

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Section III

Dimensions, Selection, and Development of Creative Leaders

Chapter 5

Dimensions of Creative Educational Leaders: Profiles of Leadership

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This chapter is designed to give the reader an intimate view of a selected group of leaders. As pointed out in previous chapters, leadership is a multi-dimensional quality. No one person possesses all of the leadership qualities that have been identified through the observation of leaders over long periods of time. Actually, each leader possesses some generalizable qualities; however, his leadership is manifested through a unique blend of hereditary and environmentally determined characteristics. The creative and dynamic educational leader is more than the observable characteristics and behaviors; there is a charismatic quality that results from the unique orchestration of characteristics and behaviors into something we may call *style*. To draw upon one of the late John F. Kennedy's works (1965), *Profiles in Courage*, for an analogy, leadership "is a diamond with many facets and it owes much of its brilliance to its setting" (p. 8).

The reader must realize that much of the research conducted and reported in this yearbook provides a profile of the characteristics and behaviors exhibited by particular leaders. While it is true that there are certain characteristics and behaviors which nearly all leaders possess or exhibit, there is a uniqueness in individuals that causes them to deviate significantly on some attributes. Therefore, it was decided that one chapter of this yearbook would be devoted to an in-depth view of selected leaders in the field of industrial teacher education, to provide the reader with several "profiles in leadership."

SELECTING LEADERS

The author suspects that the leadership dimensions of professionals in the broad career field of industrial education are similar, whether the individual exhibits leadership (a) as a teacher at the elementary or secondary levels, (b) as a local or state director or supervisor, (c) as a teacher of technical or professional subjects at the college or university level, (d) as a program administrator or (e) through professional organizations. However, it was decided that the target group for this study would be individuals who had served in the field of industrial teacher education for twenty years or more. The initial group of leaders to be considered for selection were identified through the original survey of ACIATE members by the yearbook editors (Wenig & Matthews, 1980). The group of twenty leaders identified through this survey were contacted in an effort to identify a small group of "consensus leaders" in the profession.

Through this process, individuals were identified for an in-depth study. Each of these individuals was contacted in order to identify four or five colleagues (references) who would be in a position to describe his leadership style, personal characteristics and professional behaviors as exhibited over a considerable span of time. Each of these persons was contacted and descriptive statements were requested about the previously identified leader on a selected group of variables associated with leadership.

SYNTHESIZING THE RESPONSE

The "profiles in leadership" result from the author's synthesis of responses from colleagues who had had substantial contact with these leaders. While a review of the responses provided by the references for each selected leader did reveal a number of common attributes, the behaviors exhibited by the selected group of leaders in this rather restricted professional area were also diverse.

It was quite evident that *verbal facility* is a common attribute exhibited by leaders in industrial teacher education. The individual profiles revealed a tremendous variance, ranging from an individual who had written fewer than twenty professional journal articles and no booklength publications to an individual with more than a dozen books and more than fifty journal articles to his credit. Likewise, the variability with regard to oral presentations was also substantial, although all profiles indicated that the leaders were effective in oral communication.

Another common attribute of the selected leaders was that each seems to have a *well developed self-concept*, although the manifest behaviors associated with self-concept ranged from "gregarious" to "reserved and humble." Among the characteristics held in common by the selected group of leaders were (a) a high level of professional competence, (b) integrity (as perceived by their colleagues), and (c) a commitment to the continuing development of individual professionals. A wide variety of unique as well as other common attributes are revealed through the following profiles.

Profile A

As is the case with many leaders in industrial teacher education, Leader A comes from a working class background and has a strong commitment to the work ethic. He has an unusually strong commitment to young people and young profesionals who need his assistance in their development. As one of his colleagues reported, "Leader A values family relationships highly. He is very ethical and will stand strongly behind something he believes in even if he is standing alone." Like many other professional leaders in education, he is well organized and punctual. Although he may not be classified as a workaholic, he does work long and hard for his profession.

As we look back upon his life, we see a record of active involvement and achievement in school, community and military affairs which build a foundation of productivity for his professional life. As is characteristic of many other leaders in education, Leader A writes and speaks with a high level of competence, but unlike many of his peers he seems to listen and he functions effectively as a member of a team. To quote one of his colleagues, "he is a good communicator; he keeps his point of view very basic and tries to get it across without complicating the issue. When he gives a presentation, he often sounds like he is preaching because of his enthusiasm and voice control."

His professional career highlights his belief that it takes active involvement and commitment to bring about change. As a member of a group, he can disagree without being antagonistic. He is clearly a humanist who does not take himself too seriously, and he seems comfortable with both subordinates and superordinates. He uses his own work as an example of dedication that gets the job done. In addition to this modeling, he uses persuasion effectively and is doggedly persistent in achieving the goals he sets for himself and others. He is much more inclined to use gentle persuasion and a rational argument than power or influence to achieve goals. In conclusion, a colleague referred to him with the following statement:

> He is a creative person whose leadership recognition has come primarily from his innovative ideas which he has turned into action through his own hard work and dedication. Further, he has entered the arena of thought and ideas systematically by writing for professional publications and by appearing on national convention programs. He has a compelling drive to bring a high level of achievement to his profession.

Profile B

Coming from a middle-class background as he does, Leader B has a strong commitment to hard work and frugality. Even though he knows what it is to work hard, he seems to be able to discipline himself to keep his compulsion for work under control. He is viewed by his colleagues as an intelligent person who sets high goals for himself and the individuals with whom he works. Patience is not the long suit of Leader B who works continuously to weed out mediocrity within the profession.

Self-confidence seems to radiate from him almost to the point of arrogance, but he has a ready smile that can be charming. He always has been able to reduce a problem to its simplest terms and to offer a solution in clear and forceful terms. As one of his colleagues states, "He has something to say and he speaks with confidence and distinctiveness." He exhibits a very persuasive manner in either a large group or in a one-to-one situation. Even though he has not written extensively for professional publications, he writes well and with great clarity of expression.

He is perceived to have excellent small group skills and as one of his colleagues said, "at time he plays a devil's advocate to enliven discussion and is quite adept in running discussion opponents out on a limb." He always has been able to interact effectively with others and has the uncanny knack of being able to disagree without becoming disagreeable.

He has been effective in surrounding himself with high-quality faculty and students through which he is able to extend his own influence. He views his role as a change agent in the profession and actively has sought a national leadership platform from which to bring about this change. As one of his colleagues recounts, "he is well respected by industrial arts people but uses his trade and industrial education background to an advantage so that both groups regard him as a member of their group."

Profile C

As is true with most of the educational leaders profiled, Leader C has a strong commitment to family, and this commitment seems to carry over to the extended family of students and junior colleagues. He dresses well, although conservatively, which is true with most of his peers. Although average in size, his posture and bearing exude confidence. His voice is strong and determined, which seems to reveal a strong and positive self-image.

Leader C is viewed as highly intelligent and a logical thinker. He is task oriented and well organized. He is respected in his institution but chooses carefully the committee assignments in which his time is invested. Even though he is task oriented he is personable and well liked.

Leader C has been involved professionally at the state and national level. He has been relatively stable in his career as he has had a strong base of operation in two major state universities. As one of his colleagues has said, "He chooses well those areas in which his time and energy can be maximized; he works hard and is a high achiever, but he can also delegate." Even though he is "unrelentingly tenacious and strong willed," he seems to engender the respect of both subordinates and superiors. This leader has been able to combine a keen intellect with effective communication skills which allow him to get at an issue in a direct manner, "on the spot," and articulate his position in a convincing and powerful manner. His self-confidence allows him to appear casual and relaxed in nearly any group. As one of his colleagues relates, "He is a leader because of the progressive ideas he espouses, the logic of his thinking process, and his ability to communicate the logic which causes people to be on their toes and do their best work. His confidence causes others to have confidence in his propositions."

Profile D

A colleague has said of Leader D, "He is above all else a man of immense integrity who has great capacity for work and almost childlike respect for the academic community and what it represents in our society." He is clearly a participant as he sets an example of involvement in his community and in his profession. He has a strong family orientation although his family and community involvement appear to be subservient to his professional commitment.

As is true with most educational leaders profiled, Leader D writes and speaks exceptionally well. He gives the appearance of strong self-confidence, but he is at times judged by his peers to be too opinionated which may lead to rhetorical "overkill." He has a strong commitment to the committee process within the academic community.

This is borne out by his dean who says:

> He takes the general model of the committee as a significant and decisive vehicle in academic governance and academic productivity and makes it work just that way. If I have a difficult chore that I want to be done well and finished on time, I assign it to [Leader D], and he will do it extremely well.

Consideration of others, especially younger colleagues and graduate students, is Leader D's hallmark. He does push for excellence and tends to expect too much of everyone including himself. He has some difficulty at delegation because of his high standards. He generally is regarded as one who relates well to others although his tendency to be "overly serious and opinionated may adversely affect his interpersonal relationships." He has, nevertheless, gained the respect of his colleagues, both subordinates and superordinates, as a result of his good organization. This is because he does his homework, and is perceived as professionally committed.

Leader D is clearly a forward thinker in the profession. This has caused some problem in that he has seen no reason to bridge the gap between the existing profession and the direction that he feels it should move. As one of his colleagues has said, "He knows his discipline well and presents information in great depth but sometimes has difficulty in getting acceptance since he takes a quantum leap from current thinking." In characterizing his style, another colleague has reported that, "He always has the goal in sight. His knowledge base gained through personal study tends to result in acceptance and recognition by others. His personal drive becomes almost combative at time."

Profile E

As is true of many leaders in industrial teacher education, Leader E has a strong work orientation and values family and responsibility. He is a larger than average man who is always appropriately attired although not fastidious about dress. Like many other leaders in industrial-arts education, he writes well and shares his writings frequently with the profession. His oral communication skills are effective although slower paced and more deliberate than most. However, unlike many others with whom he might be compared, he listens exceedingly well. He values highly the traits of integrity and honesty and has an unusually selfless commitment to his profession.

Leader E has been a master at compromise. He seldom stakes out an extreme position but continually looks for ways to bring adversaries within the profession to a middle ground. He has been an active and responsible committee person both within the profession and at his institution. He has maintained a strong commitment to his institution and that has provided him with a firm platform for leadership. He is a socially well integrated person who places a high priority on the feelings of other people. He approaches controversial topics with objectivity, always looking at the broader perspective with a flexibility that allows compromise. He thinks through the task to be accomplished and effectively delegates responsibilities to others. As one of his colleagues has said, "He always does his homework, is well informed, comes across honestly and plays the game well, but he has not been a wave maker."

Profile F

Good organization and attention to detail are commonplace characteristics among leaders in industrial-arts education and Leader F is no exception to this generalization. He has been strongly committed to hard work and sets this example for others. He is conservative in his dress, almost to the point of monotony, and this conservatism shows in much of his life style. He involves himself in only a limited number of community activities as they "take too much time and accomplish too little." He has a strong commitment to his institution which has provided him an excellent platform for leadership.

His writing style and his speech are direct and efficient as he seldom uses three words when one would do. He has an uncanny ability to reduce an issue to its fundamental core and to deal with it in a direct manner. He has a strong commitment to students and sees their development and achievement as his reason for being. As one of his colleagues said about him, "He has much compassion for the welfare of those with whom he has worked; never promotes himself; gives credit when due; has a high level of integrity; has a reasonable sense of humor but never makes an effort to be funny or clever and is sensibly consistent in his actions." He commands the respect of an audience, whether a large or small group, and his confidence spreads to others. He has been an excellent public speaker, is well organized, and sprinkles his presentations with appropriate analogies that are often humorous. He is charismatic, and as one of his associates put it, "You always feel his professional presence whenever you are in his company. You can observe his bias but somehow his enthusiasm for the profession causes you to want to accept his direction even if you are not sure why you are doing so."

Profile G

As one would expect from a leader in industrial-arts education, Leader G has a strong commitment to his profession. He has high standards and sets his own achievement goals very high. However, he is less demanding of others as he tries to increase the achievement and productivity of peers and students through example and encouragement. As one of his colleagues has said, "He attracts and holds respect based on thoroughness and complete reliability." He is always well groomed, and carries himself with assurance. It is clear that he recognizes his responsibility as a role model in the profession. He has a strong family oriented value system. However, his professional commitment sometimes demands that he must set aside family concerns. He is regarded as a highly moral and ethical person. One of his colleagues has said, "He is honest, direct and issue oriented as he never engages in and will not permit others to mount personal attacks." His communication skills are of a high order as he writes, speaks, and listens well.

Leader G is looked upon as an excellent committee person and member of a team. Another of his colleagues has said, "He leads by example. His position is very defensible. He knows what he believes and articulates the position clearly. He is persistent, consistent and goal orientated without being insensitive to the feelings of people he works with."

Of all the leaders profiled, Leader G seems to be the leaders' leader with an unusual blend of personal qualities and professional behaviors that cause him to be both well liked and highly respected. He is exceptionally sensitive to the needs of other people and works hard to keep from being misunderstood. One of his colleagues has said, "He has established himself as a standout leader in the profession but does not go out of his way to take credit for any of his contributions; he is the most honest and straightforward individual with whom I have ever been associated." Another has said, "He exudes professional dedication and competence based on a long successful track record."

Profile H

Most leaders in teacher education are perceived as well organized and task oriented and Leader H is no exception. However, he is not viewed as a perfectionist although he is a highly productive author. As one would expect of an author, he does write well; however, he seldom makes large group presentations, even though his verbal skills are perceived as strong. He, like Leader F, works toward compromise and consensus within the profession rather than to seek conversion to his point of view. Although he is above average in height he would be thought of as typical in his appearance. He is judged to be personable, but he is not gregarious and has played a relatively minor role in the associations of the profession. He is judged to be an effective administrator who manages well and can delegate effectively.

He is action oriented and does not like to take hours of committee time to settle an issue. As one of his colleagues said, "What impresses me most about him is his ability to get right to the heart of things; he sees what is important and does something about it; he sees what is unimportant and doesn't worry about it." He has been stable in his career but his platform of influence has been somewhat weakened by the institutions with which he has affiliated. While most leaders are outgoing and somewhat gregarious by nature, Leader H, while personable, is not very "outgoing." As one of his colleagues said, "He keeps his ideas pretty much to himself and advances them only when asked. He appears abrupt since he operates on a tight schedule and does not have much time for socializing." He does have a professional commitment but sees the improvement of the profession as coming about through well developed instructional materials which set the pattern for teachers and their students.

CONCLUSION

As one contemplates the characteristics of the leaders profiled in this chapter, a number of commonalities are revealed, but most of all one must conclude that "they have it all together." They know where they are going. They understand themselves, and they know how to exploit their strengths. These are integrated, confident people. This high level of confidence is a key to leadership, since leadership implies the ability to influence or persuade others, and nothing is more persuasive than an unshakable faith in oneself.

Even the study of leaders in a rather narrowly defined professional arena reveals evidence that leadership is an art as well as a science, and that the variance among individual leadership styles is substantial. Although the profiles revealed that the leader in industrial teacher education possesses highly developed verbal skills, the subtle ways in which these skills are employed are not well documented. The art of expression flows from a myriad of variables that comprise the human personality. This results in substantial differences in effectiveness of individuals who may, in fact, be using the same words.

Psychologists have delved into the personality factors, which allegedly contribute to and detract from leadership. Social scientists have expounded upon the phenomena in given societies, which can explain the motives and the factors that induce leaders to perform in one way or another. There are models to follow, matrices to use for analytical studies, sociograms, personality tests, and concepts of transactional analysis which have been posited as facets of leadership.

As Heller (1974) argued, it appears altogether possible that the words used to describe this very complicated task called leadership may becloud the real issue. As one sweeps all the verbiage aside, it is clear that leadership depends a great deal upon execution. The leader is active and highly visible. He doesn't hide himself. He doesn't run away from the crowd. He must be where the action is and be visible to his followers.

The true test of leadership is followership. No matter how leadership might be defined, there are no leaders unless there are followers. Thus, the person who considers himself a leader must be able to do more than hold a position. The power of a position or of an institutional base cannot be ignored, but by itself that power is inadequate. If the leader is not able to develop insight and talent for delegating authority, looking at alternatives in any situation, communicating effectively, organizing his tasks, working effectively with constituent groups, and coordinating the total effort, then the positional power will soon slip away. Likewise, followers must respect their leaders. Respect cannot be forced, but rather, in the professional arena, it must evolve over time as the followers observe not only competence, but integrity and a genuine concern for the individuals who make up the profession.

It is only natural for us who are in the personnel-development business to look for ways to develop leaders. However, we will probably have to remain content with the cultivation and enhancement of leadership qualities, and clearly acknowledge that a leader cannot be created through a curriculum of contrived experiences. It simply cannot be tied in a neat package and delivered. Leadership is an essence, a quality to which we have given a name. We can recognize it; we can appreciate it; and everyone can have some of it; but, when it exists in full measure within a given individual, we then have a LEADER.

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Chapter 6

Identifying, Recruiting, and Selecting Potential Creative Leaders

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THE PROCESS OF IDENTIFYING POTENTIAL LEADERS

Perhaps the most crucial issue faced by the field of industrial arts education is not financial, but rather the early identification of potential creative leaders and their recruitment into leadership training. Once these young people with creative potential have been identified, it is then that the serious recruitment process must begin. The contents of chapters two and four have reviewed seriously the research dealing with leadership, management, and administration. Further, it has been pointed out that leadership is needed at all levels, and that administration is not the sole containment of leadership. It also is shown, in other chapters, that leadership appears to migrate to leadership positions. This chapter will attempt to address the process as one of identifying potential leaders very early while showing the enormous task of selecting those candidates for leadership positions.

The theme to be developed will follow a pattern. As industrial arts education has become more and more complex, its leadership has become more and more difficult. Greater skill is required at all levels for the successful operation of today's increasingly high technology oriented industrial arts programs. Nothing that we as educators do is more important than selecting and employing professionally creative leaders. The dilemma rests, not in the selection process, but in the early identification of those with potential for leadership to pursue a career as an industrial arts educator. Can the process be reduced to a few simple rules? Perhaps.

The future of industrial arts education, according to Streichler (1979), depends directly upon its leaders and teachers.

> Yes, we need leaders. The rewards and satisfactions of leadership are substantial. To apply mastery of communication, socioeconomics, educational philosophy, psychology of learning, and management to effectively move people to greater heights of performance is a worthy and rewarding endeavor. For those who have the inclination and the talent, leadership is an obligation which must not be avoided. (p. 3)

Bennis (1977) asked the primary question, "Where have all the leaders gone?" (p. 27). Certainly, all the leaders have not disappeared, but there is, equally, a need for more creative leadership and industrial arts will reward vitality, intelligence, far-sightedness, and inspiration in its leaders.

Student Identification

Hanson, in chapter 11, discusses the student organizations in industrial arts as a vehicle for developing professionalism. It also is noteworthy that these same student organizations, when operated effectively, provide a genuine growth opportunity in leadership skill development as well. Attending a single national meeting of a student organization, and observing the competitive skill displayed, should convince any believer in the fertile valley of creativity that has been cultivated. Here is a major source where future leaders can be identified early.

Once someone has identified a potential leader for industrial arts, that someone, generally an instructor, must assume the task of recruitment into the field of industrial arts teaching. Once in an industrial arts education program, some professor must assume a mentorship role and urge involvement in the American Industrial Arts College Student Association (AIACSA). It is proper guidance at this level that develops the professionals and the leaders. It is only a step from college to teaching, and a progression to graduate school has begun. Many potential leaders have been lost to the profession simply because there has been no effective identification of the young talent that can be recruited and trained systematically to assume a leadership role.

Mentor Identification

Many good industrial arts teachers have come to the attention of their supervisors and college or university professors as well. Graduate programs in industrial education have been the breeding ground for excellence in teaching the technology. In many cases, however, nobody exploited the opportunity to identify the potential leader and develop that potential to assume the leadership training role. Perhaps, at some time, the better understanding of the intuitive process in neural psychology will give us a better vehicle for this identification process. In the meantime, the professional educator will have to compare the known needs of the profession with the potentials of the graduate students, then assume the responsibility of mentoring those individuals. Even the identification of one or two per year will greatly enhance the profession. It may be that the identification of the potential leader must be followed with the opportunity to see how the mentor will handle the leadership situation. This is, again, fertile ground for learning by imitation of the professional. It can lead to success, and eventually to recruitment and selection of a well trained leader.

While there may be little research to back up the idea, it seems logical to assume that the leadership in professional organizations follows the mentor relationship. Simple observation of the operation of the American Industrial Arts Association (AIAA) and its associated organizations should show the movement of key individuals into positions of leadership. In most cases, it would appear, the individuals were selected and groomed by a mentor.

RECRUITMENT AND SELECTION FOR LEADERSHIP POSITIONS

Since both the public and private sectors of business and education appear to be having some difficulty with their leaders, there could be something wrong with the recruitment and selection process. Streichler (1979) seemed to observe that leaders lack nerve and that is their downfall. However, studies of leadership problems seem to indicate that many holders of leadership positions lack the creative skill to address the problems of the day. This lack of creative ability, as identified by Bowen (1972), may cause the downfall of many of our leaders in industrial arts. If this is true, then the actual fault may lie with the recruitment and selection process.

Finding the right person for the right job sometimes can be a Herculean task. Yet, each year, the increased demand for leadership quality in candidates increases the recruitment difficulty. The nature of leadership traits has been treated exhaustively in other chapters, but the creative leader often is thought of as having outstanding cognitive, affective, and manipulative skills. Certainly, in the industrial arts profession, these basic domains must be highly represented in its leadership if it is to be sustained.

Howard Bowen (1972) noted that a creative leader was one who (a) inspired trust, (b) used sound judgment, (c) was able to communicate and listen, (d) had a sense of direction, and (e) had plans and aspirations which could excite the interest and dedication of faculty, students, trustees, and other constituencies. However, the professional effectiveness of the individual will depend a great deal on his administrative competence as a creative leader in a given situation. Streamlining faculty and staff responsibilities and reducing "red tape," while maintaining program effectiveness, exemplifies a leader who possesses creative administrative skills.

For industrial arts leaders, a competency that must not be overlooked is in the area of technological capability. In order to command the respect and admiration of colleagues, a creative leader in industrial arts should possess technological competence in a specific program area, e.g., electronics, manufacturing processes, plastics, metal fabrication, or others. This consideration makes the leader in industrial arts a different type of individual from what is normally recruited in higher-education institutions. This single characteristic may well be the most unique characteristic of the creative industrial arts education leader.

The process of selecting creative leaders, then, follows the three steps of identification, recruitment, and selection (IRS). However, in most institutional settings, the early identification process is too late to be of value since it is a long-range development process. Instead, the identification step is more related to identification of the proper person already having the capabilities being sought. Furthermore, most positions requiring leadership also are in the category of administrative-type positions. The three-step IRS process is accomplished through one of four approaches in most cases, e.g., (a) traditional administrative approach, (b) internal committee approach, (c) internal consultant review approach, and (d) external consultative service approach.

In an article in *Educational Leadership*, William Huckaby (1980) stated that approaches to leadership should be more comprehensive than most of the current situational models, yet simple enough to be easily understood and applied. This also is true of approaches used in the selection of leaders.

Basically, each approach attempts to find the right person for the right job. The challenge is in actually identifying creative people for the job. This is predicated on the assumption that a creative person is what is needed for the position. In addition, appropriate measures must be taken to determine what is expected for the person to be employed. Each approach utilized in the IRS process, for industrial arts education, is dependent upon several factors to be outlined in the next section.

THE IRS PROCESS FOR INDUSTRIAL ARTS EDUCATION

The suggested (IRS) process for industrial arts education refers to a method that could be employed to obtain creative individuals for leadership positions. These processes are utilized by most institutions of education in hiring individuals for leadership positions. Each phase of the IRS process will be discussed briefly and a detailed outline of each step will be included for reference. The outline is comprehensive in nature and indicates the multifaceted questions and steps of the process which must be considered in doing an effective job of selecting creative leaders.

Identification Process

A plan of action is a *must* in the IRS process if one wants to be effective and successful in finding the right person. Prior planning prevents poor performance, and the same theory applies to identifying these individuals. In essence, there are no shortcuts or substitutes for proper planning in order to select creative leaders for industrial arts education programs.

A plan of action should include the following: (a) the type of creative leader(s) needed for the industrial arts education program(s), (b) prescribed criteria for identifying a particular type of leader, (c) a policy statement of the program, (d) a set budget with upper and lower limits for negotiations, and (e) an effective public relations program which necessitates working with the media.

Before attempting to recruit anyone for a position, one must have a clear understanding of what the individual is expected to accomplish.

This should be stated clearly in writing and approved by all involved in the IRS process. This is the first step.

This task may be accomplished by having all participants in the recruitment process list qualities they would either require or desire in their choice of a candidate. All parties involved in the process should meet to discuss and approve the final list. At the top of the list will be those qualities and competencies the IRS committee deems appropriate for the specific leadership role in the organization. Failure to complete this initial step could prevent recruitment of the proper or most capable leader for the position.

Example Case Study

An industrial arts supervisor was being sought for a local educational agency. The finalist in the selection process was to have references able to verify the candidate's ability to inspire, use sound judgment, ability to communicate and listen, and demonstrate creativity in planning. The recruitment process included the usual publication of the vacancy notice and qualifications in professional journals and with regional colleges and universities preparing quality professionals with advanced degrees. During the entire screening process, everything appeared to move smoothly. Using the internal search committee approach, the list of applicants was narrowed to three and sent to the assistant superintendent for subsequent review by the superintendent and the Board of Trustees. All three candidates were rejected.

Two problems surfaced in the review process. First, the exact list of qualifications had never been reduced to written form. Not everyone had approved and/or included his or her particular view of the qualifications or suggestions for the proposed position. The second problem was the major concern of the superintendent and the Board of Trustees; that of the applicants' research capabilities and willingness to enlist school faculty in a major institutional research effort. Clearly, the first step of the IRS process had not been completed acceptably. All concerned had not included the characteristics and qualifications they had deemed most critical. The creativity of the candidates to meet the hidden agenda of criteria was never given the opportunity for success.

The identification of capable leadership candidates is an essential phase of the IRS process regardless of the four approaches employed in the selection process. As just indicated, it is a waste of effort and financial resources to attempt to recruit and select candidates for a position when the qualifications used for the identification process are faulty. The candidates were improperly identified in the first place. Failure to specify exactly what type of leader was to be recruited was tantamount to assurance of negative results. The identification stage is the most critical of the IRS process and the most difficult to accomplish fully.

The Recruitment Process

The second phase of the IRS process, recruiting, follows several logical steps. Recruitment involves announcing the vacancy, organizing the screening procedures, establishing a procedure for handling applications, setting up interviews, and the actual interviewing procedures. The recruitment process may involve many different individuals depending upon which of the four approaches the institution is using to recruit its creative leaders.

One important aspect of the recruitment process is the vacancy announcement. Failure to advertise the position properly may lead to a limited number of applicants. Announcing the vacancy should involve formal as well as informal communication networks. Both are essential. Formal networks probably are the most obvious, but the informal network may be overlooked, even though it may have the greatest chance for success. These include letters to others in the profession, announcements to the private sector, and a thorough review of potential individuals in other professional areas who may have the background and expertise to be a creative leader for industrial arts education. Some large educational institutions send form letters to all employees and all retired persons from the institution asking for suggestions regarding applicants for the position. Another approach is through parallel institutions involved. The process of leadership recruitment can best be summed up by saying that "recruitment" procedures are most effective in an atmosphere of good public relations.

An obstacle that may be encountered in the IRS process, regardless of the approach, is that of matching the individual's perception of the position with the actual position to be assumed. This step is critical to recruiting someone and essential if the individual is to stay and be productive once selected. Quite often the recruitment leads to an interview process that is one-sided.

Recruitment Example

A school district was attempting to recruit a supervisor of industrial arts programs. An excellent list of qualities had been prepared, reviewed, and approved by all persons in the approval process. This school district utilized an external hiring agency and consultants to select the three best applicants for the position. They then scheduled interviews with the applicants. The interviews went well, and a candidate was selected. Within a year, the new supervisor, a leader showing creative potential, was looking for a new position.

After consultation with the supervisor, it was found that little attempt had been made by school officials to provide ample opportunity for the applicant to get realistic answers to many of his questions. Not enough time had been spent by the interview committees discussing economic conditions at the school and in the community. The interviews had gone well, but what the search committee wanted, apparently, was not what the applicant sought. The supervisor found another position and left.

Analysis of the above example leads to certain conclusions. Interview committees seeking creative leaders must examine what the applicants want to become in the next few years. The interview process must be a two-way process. Applicants must be matched with compatible positions rather than be hired for positions for which they will have to remake themselves in order to fit an alien mold. Most applicants are usually unaware of many things regarding their potential success in a job. This is especially true during the time they are being interviewed and selected.

Selecting Individuals

A minimum of two or three candidates should be identified from the recruitment process. Final interviews should be established for them so that both the applicants and all concerned parties within the institution have an opportunity to ask questions and make final decisions. Once the candidates have undergone the final interview, the selection can be made by the institution. This process may vary somewhat depending upon the approach being used. During this phase, negotiations between the applicant and institution will become meaningful if the number one applicant is to be hired. This phase will indicate how successful the identification and recruiting steps were to the selection of the best individual. Having set firm salary ranges, reviewed tentative committee or consultant guidelines, used standard questions, kept the staff involved, and reached a consensus with all groups, there is a high probability of success in the selection of the right person for the position.

The following outline of a step-by-step identification, recruitment, and selection process should be helpful:

- I. Developing a plan for recruiting.
  - A. Examine goals and priorities.
  - B. Develop a time line for the selection process.
  - C. Develop criteria for selection of creative leaders.
  - D. Examine internal and external hiring potential.

- II. Use external consultants versus do-it-yourself.
  - A. Check qualifications of consulting agencies.
  - B. Determine role of consultant.
  - C. Develop performance contracts.
- III. Develop organizational structure.
  - A. Use of advisory committees.
  - B. Staff and student involvement.
  - C. The role of local boards.
  - D. Use of screening.
- IV. Develop a firm position description statement for the creative leader you are seeking.
  - A. Agree to reach agreement.
  - B. Reach closure with all members of the educational setting in the recruiting and selection process.
- V. Evaluating creative leaders: determine the process.
  - A. Basic academic training within industrial education and administration.
    - 1. Undergraduate study.
      - a. Academic results, e.g. scores.
      - b. Participation in industrial arts activities.
      - c. Indicators of creative experiences within industrial arts area and related school program.
      - d. Recommendations from instructors regarding creative talents (if recent)—interview when possible.
    - 2. Graduate study.
      - a. Specialty areas of study.
      - b. Achievements and grades.
      - c. Indicators of creative experiences.
      - d. Recommendations from instructors if recent.
  - B. Industrial experience.
    - 1. Listing of dates, times, places, and personnel involved in supervision and administration.
    - 2. Evidences of creativity with substantiation.
  - C. Personal interview to establish the following.
    - 1. Charisma leading to worker acceptance of leader.
    - 2. Indicators of initiative and presence of spirit required to succeed (extra sensory perception indicator).
    - 3. Indicator of interest in position of leadership.

    4. Involvement of committee members to aid in the determination of qualities of creative leadership.
    5. Status of personal health.
        a. Sharp—good mental health.
        b. Adjusted and confident—not victim of stress.
        c. Physical well being—evidence.
        d. Good medical history.
        e. Absenteeism record low.
        f. Weight factor.
    6. Family status.
        a. Married.
        b. Children.
        c. Family mental health.
  D. Practical problem solving.
    1. Present candidates with practical problems and request solution procedures using any and all methods and equipment.
        a. His or her problem—no holds barred and no help offered.
        b. Anecdotal record of proposed solution procedure, costs, recommendations, and equipment, etc.
    2. Committee analysis or results and recommendations.
  E. Examine testing results.
  F. Develop standard rating sheets.
  G. Educational philosophy.
  H. Style of interpersonal relations.
  I. Type of management skills.
  J. Style of leadership.

VI. Practical considerations in identifying and selecting potential creative leaders.
  A. Keep strict time lines.
  B. Set budgets.
  C. Work with appropriate media.

VII. The recruiting process—finding creative leaders.
  A. Announce vacancy.
  B. Organize the screening committee.
  C. Receive reports from each group.

- VIII. Making a selection—time for decision.
    - A. Review committee reports.
    - B. Determine interview schedules.
    - C. The interview must be a two-way process.
    - D. Use a standard set of questions.
    - E. Keep staff involved—check inputs.
    - F. Reach consensus from all groups.

REVIEW OF VARIOUS APPROACHES

Traditional Administrative Approach

The traditional administrative approach in industrial arts education gets its roots from the "spoils system" which has existed since the Colonial Period. This system rewarded persons for political and economic favors.

In the IRS process, the traditional administrative approach concerns the selection or appointment of an individual by the person in authority. Some corporate structures, as well as the political system in this country, are manifested by such an approach. However, careful review of advantages and disadvantages should be conducted before making a decision concerning this approach.

- A. Advantages.
    - 1. Time saving.
        - a. Reducing amount of time it takes to establish and conduct search committee meetings.
        - b. Eliminates recommendation reports that are standard with search committees.
    - 2. Economical.
        - a. Saves financial expenses, salary, travel, lodging, etc. that accompany persons involved on search committees.
        - b. Eliminates the expenditures occurring from final candidates that are recommended by the search committee.
- B. Disadvantages.
    - 1. Authoritative.
    - 2. Lack of faculty motivation.
    - 3. Stifles creativity.
    - 4. Discriminating.

Internal Committee Approach

The most prevalent approach used in the IRS process is the internal committee approach, especially in the academic arena. Industrial arts education, as well as other disciplines, frequently use this approach. It usually consists of a group of five or six faculty or other key individuals serving together as a search committee. The committee goal is to fill the faculty or staff vacancy with the best possible candidate. The final nominees are recommended by the search committee then forwarded to the person in charge. It should be noted that the final selection is made by the chief administrator who has the option to accept or reject the recommendations of the search committee.

There are several advantages in using the internal search committee approach; however, one also should be aware of the disadvantages.

A. Advantages.
   1. Shared governance—faculty and staff tend to perform better when their input contributes to the policy and development of the industrial arts education program. An increase in faculty participation usually occurs as a result of shared governance.
   2. Promote diverse ideas and activities—group participation brings about the sharing of new ideas and techniques which stimulate faculty harmony, thus providing continual growth of the industrial arts education program. Innovations undoubtedly have improved the quality of instruction.
   3. Group decision making—in America's complex society, no one would suggest the possibility of making decisions concerning one's own welfare separate and apart from other individuals. However, it is evident that individual decisions must become group decisions if organizations necessary to promote democratic action are to prevail (Saunders, Phillips, and Johnson 1966).

B. Disadvantages.
   The disadvantages for the internal committee approach are similar to those of the traditional administrative approach. Both are very time consuming and costly.

Internal Consultant Process

One approach that can be employed by many educational institutions searching for applicants for leadership positions is that of establishing search consultants. These consultants are assigned, or brought in and temporarily housed, to seek solutions for internal organizational problems. In some instances, they may be individuals who are highly respected by members of the profession. This type of approach requires the institution first to list the qualifications for the consultants it wishes to assign or employ. A specific job description must be written so that the consultants know what is expected and where their expertise is to be utilized in the IRS process.

The relationship between the institution or program and the consultant is very symbolic in nature. In many cases, the consultants can cut through red tape within the institution to start the identification process. In addition, the consultant has a description of what he is to do and, as a result, can proceed very rapidly to accomplish his goal. The advantages and disadvantages of this approach are as follows:

A. Advantages.
  1. It alleviates many time consuming activities university personnel must do in the IRS process and saves considerable time.
  2. As an industrial arts expert, the consultant can be more aware of what the institution wants and how to select the most creative leader for the position the institution wants filled.
  3. As an agent, the consultant can assist the institution by eliminating red tape and opening clear channels of communication to all administrative levels.

B. Disadvantages.
  1. Clear communications between the consultant and the institution are difficult to start and maintain.
  2. An external consultant to the institution sometimes has difficulty perceiving the institution's internal functions.
  3. The specific tasks of the consultant must be clearly delineated if the work he is going to do is to be completed satisfactorily.

External Consulting Service Approach

The external consulting service approach has not been used in academic settings as much as in the industrial and private sectors. Many industries use the external consulting service or personnel companies over all other approaches in finding creative talent for their business enterprises. This type of consulting service approach may be referred to as "headhunting."

The private sector could use this approach when looking for a particular individual to do a very specific job. This external consulting service approach involves identifying a consulting service that is capable of working in the academic area.

Once the service agency has been located, a written contract is signed, delineating responsibilities of the agency and time lines that are to be abided by during the contract period. Once the contract agreements have been specified, the institution literally gets out of the way and lets the service start the IRS process through the identification and recruitment phases. Normally, the external consulting service identifies and recruits two or three key individuals for the position. These names are forwarded to the institution and they make the final decision by completing the selection process. Advantages and disadvantages are as follows:

A. Advantages.
   1. It relieves the burden of the IRS process from the faculty and staff.
   2. It is very time efficient and provides for the most unbiased approach to hiring creative leaders.
   3. It places the responsibility on the external agency, eliminating red tape and intra-institutional disputes.

B. Disadvantages.
   1. The cost factors must be considered in advance of seeing the product.
   2. Communications with the consulting service sometimes can be difficult to maintain.
   3. Faculty and staff sometimes feel left out of the process.
   4. The applicant may not have a good impression of the institution and the position about to be filled.

SUMMARY

One of the most challenging and pressing concerns that the industrial arts profession has is identifying, recruiting, and selecting creative leaders.

Many challenges regarding obtaining creative leaders may be solved by developing an effective plan of action and utilizing the eight important steps of the IRS process.

In addition, institutions of higher education wishing to attract potential creative applicants for positions in industrial arts education should consider the four different approaches for selecting candidates. Secondary schools generally utilize the traditional approaches, while post secondary and higher education use the internal committee approach. Internal and external consulting groups could be considered by all institutions of education. Consultant hiring agencies, or "headhunters," as used in industry, may be more efficient in regard to time, money, and people power.

Finally, a creative leader is a rare commodity which may be best described by Walter Lippman's column in a tribute to Franklin D. Roosevelt (April, 1945) "The final test of a leader is that he leaves behind him in other men the conviction and the will to carry on" (p. 2).

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Chapter 7

Ways and Means of Developing Creative Industrial Arts Education Leaders

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Industrial arts education is not alone in its quest to prepare and develop innovative leaders. American manufacturing industries, for example, are faced with similar leadership problems, particularly when world markets are being lost. In *The Center Magazine* (November/December 1979) issue on Innovation and American Industry, a distinguished panel pursued this theme and identified three kinds of innovation related to industry. The first dealt with innovations for new and better *products*. The second dealt with innovations in the *means* of production to make existing products, for example, producing the usual product (electricity) by using a new method (solar voltaic cells). The third dealt with process innovation, that is, how production might be *organized* more effectively.

Using an analogy based on the above, three similar forms of innovation in the training of creative industrial arts education leaders will be discussed—competency-based, synectics-based, and design-based approaches. The "product" orientation represents the competency-based approach to program development. The "means" orientation represents the synectics approach to creativity training. The "organizational" orientation represents the design approach to program implementation. All of these will be treated in some detail.

The need, importance, and possibility of creative leadership has been well established in the earlier chapters of this yearbook. The basic assumption here is that a program of training can be designed and implemented to develop creative leadership. There will be no effort made to pursue the interesting debate regarding whether, in fact, one can be taught to be creative or whether one only can develop native creativity.

The perspective used here is that in developing programs for enhancing creative-leadership ability, a person may work through several different approaches. All the approaches, however, require difficult and deliberate decisions. One such important set of decisions regarding program development is in describing the type of graduates the leadership program is to produce.

THE COMPETENCY-BASED APPROACH

The first step in the competency-based approach is to identify the competencies that a creative leader is to possess. From previous chapters, one has already learned the difficult nature of this task. Applying the competency-based approach to the preparation of industrial arts education leaders may appear, in fact, antithetical to the philosophy inherent in developing imaginative behavior. The specificity required in setting expectations for a competency-based training program appears to be contrary to the flexibility needed to respond to desired and emerging behaviors. Treffinger and Huber (1975) proposed that instruction designed for developing creative problem-solving skills could use the following processes:

1. Identifying and prescribing specific behaviorally stated objectives,
2. Diagnosing student characteristics and previous learning,
3. Utilizing carefully programmed, sequential instructional activities,
4. Evaluating regularly to assess the attainment of content objectives.

The content basis for the above approach to program development was influenced by the analysis of creative problem solving presented by Parnes (1967) in the *Creative Behavior Guidebook*. Treffinger and Huber (1975) proposed that besides being sensitive to the problem, creative problem solvers should be able to do the following:

1. Become sensitive to problems.
2. Define problems.
3. Break away from habit-bound thinking.
4. Defer judgment.
5. See new relationships.
6. Evaluate the consequences of one's actions.
7. Plan for the implementation of ideas.
8. Observe carefully and discover facts.
9. Use effective techniques for discovering new ideas.
10. Refine strange ideas into useful ones.
11. Describe and use a systematic approach to problem solving.
12. Describe the influence of interpersonal relationships on problem solving, and illustrate problems associated with interpersonal relationships in effective creative problem solving. (pp. 262–265)

Gagne (1968, 1974), Mager (1962), Treffinger and Huber (1975), and others developed a learning hierarchy for the first general goal statement, which is presented graphically in Figure 7-1.

The learning hierarchy presents, in a specific manner, the skills and competencies that are related to the general goal number one, e.g. Become sensitive to problems. Such hierarchies can help provide an overview of what is to be accomplished in the implementation of training programs for creative problem solving.

Although this approach for the preparation to teach creative problem solving remains to be tested adequately, the ideas do warrant attention and experimentation. Such approaches will become more powerful when we know more about the nature and development of creative behavior and creative leadership behavior.

Creative-Leadership Competencies

The list of twelve competencies presented above focuses specifically on creativity and must be expanded to include aspects of leadership. Earlier chapters have provided examples which are presented here in somewhat varied form. For example, the driving forces of creative leadership present us with five capabilities for providing assertive direction. These include (a) suggesting several ways and means of doing something without dominating, (b) using the best of group dynamics and time wisely, (c) applying appropriate leadership style to the situation, (d) knowing when and how to initiate constructive change, and (e) using a refined decision-making process.

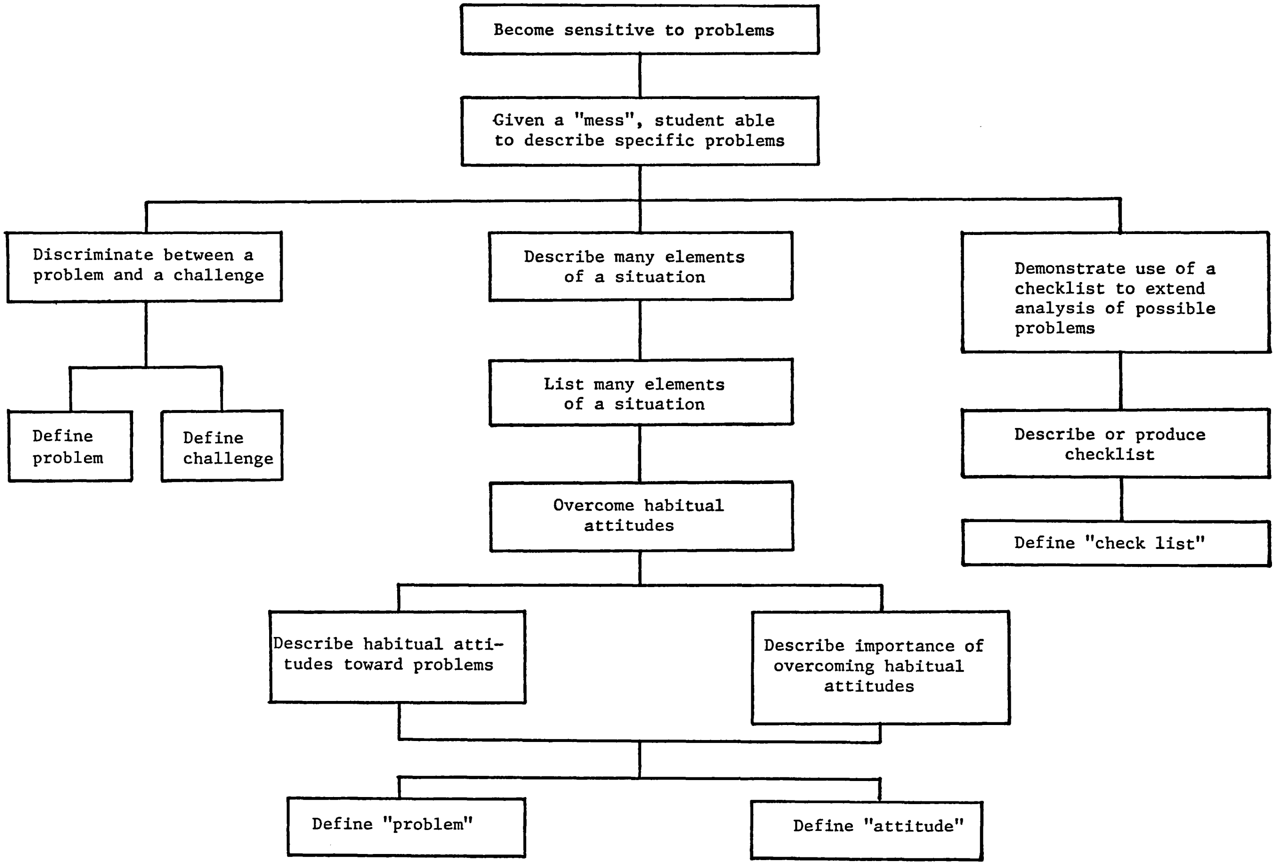
Become sensitive to problems
Given a "mess", student able to describe specific problems
Discriminate between a problem and a challenge
Describe many elements of a situation
Demonstrate use of a checklist to extend analysis of possible problems
Define problem
Define challenge
List many elements of a situation
Describe or produce checklist
Overcome habitual attitudes
Define "check list"
Describe habitual attitudes toward problems
Describe importance of overcoming habitual attitudes
Define "problem"
Define "attitude"

Figure 7-1. Learning Hierarchy Adopted from Treffinger and Huber, 1975, p. 263.

Operating from the art of the possible will yield the characteristics of possibility thinking in leaders, which are: (a) sets a positive example, (b) separates personal from the professional, (c) develops positive attitudes in others, (d) gives and takes constructive criticism, (e) never votes no on any idea just because it might appear impossible, (f) never blocks a constructive idea because of apparent lack of resources, and (g) never resists a creative proposal because the leader did not think of it first.

Eight behavior characteristics seem to warrant restating. An effective leader should (a) communicate well, (b) relate well interpersonally, (c) motivate and challenge, (d) listen well, (e) get others to accept leadership responsibility, (f) foster and maintain morale, (g) give credit to others, (h) develop positive attitudes toward new ideas, (i) promote the profession, and (j) build esprit de corp in others.

The above ideas concerning creativity and leadership provide sources of data regarding the purposes of the envisioned program of training. Which of the competencies, characteristics, and abilities are selected by the program developers will depend on what the group deems to be of most importance. With these ideas in mind, the focus turns to techniques and processes that have considerable potential for program development in creative leadership. Those who attempt to establish such programs most likely will experience more frustration than elation and more failure than success, because there is little documented history of professional experience in this area of concern.

THE SYNECTIC APPROACH

A method with particular potential for developing creative problem solving skills is the *synectic* approach. Synectics places less importance on the end behavior, or product of training, and focuses upon the process. The underlying assumptions of the synectics approach are (a) that the creative process in humans can be described and the process can be used in training to increase the creative output of individuals and groups, (b) that innovation in the arts and sciences is similar and characterized by the same psychic processes, and (c) that the individual creative process is a direct analogy to the group process.

Synectics related research provides important insights into five possible key moments, or psychological states, that a person moves through in the process of creating something (Gordon, 1961). The interrelated states are defined as follows:

1. Detachment—The feeling of being removed, cut off, or separate from the problem, but still looking at it as if from afar,
2. Involvement—The feeling of closeness to actually being very much into the part of the problem,
3. Deferment—The sense that it was difficult, but necessary to guard against premature attempts at solving the problem, especially with the same old answers,
4. Speculation—The recurrent ability to allow the mind to run free and fantasize, and to look for the unusual,
5. Autonomy of object—The feeling that the conceptual solution to a problem begins to stand on its own apart from the individual or group that invented the solution.

Gordon (1961) presented an idea of seminal importance for those professionals who plan to prepare creative leaders. He stated that individuals can be trained to monitor themselves as they move in and out of the five stages. Further, he contended that some individuals can assess how long they should remain in one of the states, and when it becomes appropriate and potentially more productive, to move to another state. A simplified set of guidelines used in this overall process asked two questions.

1. How can we make the strange (unfamiliar) familiar?
2. How can we make the familiar strange?

These questions were used to generate analogies and metaphors that became the synectic's operational mechanisms or the devices that made the process operate.

The process of making the strange become familiar is the normal human drive to understand. Further, it is the responsibility of the individual involved to understand the problem. Without this understanding, attempts at finding solutions to the problem will be shallow at best and a failure at worst. A particularly powerful mechanism for making the strange familiar is to use the conceptual model. The model, as an analogy, allows the individual or group to give a problem characteristics and attributes that are understandable. The use of a pump to understand the operation of the heart is an example of making the strange familiar through analogy.

Synectics also has identified four mechanisms for making the familiar strange. These mechanisms are analogies and include the following:

1. Personal analogy—involves an attempt to project what an individual would feel, see, and experience if assuming the place of something else. Personal analogy is a direct antithesis of detached observation.

2. Direct analogy—involves the use of actual comparisons of parallel facts, knowledge, or technology. Direct analogy looks for possible solutions in the similarity of different entities or systems.
3. Symbolic analogy—involves the use of impersonal and objective images to describe a problem and its possibilities. Symbolic analogy often will use graphic symbols to provide an alternative to word dominated statements of a problem.
4. Fantasy analogy—involves the consideration of wishes and wish fulfillment. Fantasy analogy provides for a no-holds-barred approach to a problem in which even the wildest of possibilities can be suggested and considered.

The synectics approach engages participants not only in the process of search for creative solutions to problems, but also engages them in considering how to use the process more effectively. In this manner, it is intended that the participants will learn how to use and to manipulate the process while it is being used. They do this by determining which analogies and which questions are most fruitful to pursue at any given time.

THE DESIGN APPROACH

As stated earlier, the perspective taken here is that programs for enhancing creative leadership ability can be designed and implemented. The special use of the term *design* within the context of this chapter is important. Design is used to mean the overall conceptualization of what a proposed program will look like prior to its development and implementation. A design, as a *plan for planning*, assumes increased importance because of the relationship between student involvement and ownership of experiences and student willingness to take risks. Such an overall plan to help students select their learning experiences becomes an important delivery strategy for implementing training programs that support risk taking and innovative problem solving that enhances creative leadership training.

A design statement is intended to help identify who is involved in the program developmental decision-making process. It relates also to how those decisions might be made, what the key decision points are, how these decisions relate to each other, data about creativity and the participants, and the criteria for decisions about the program. The design is not intended to be restrictive, but rather to provide clarity, direction, and comprehensiveness for program development. A design provides (a) a common language about program development, (b) an organizational structure for identifying who will be making which decisions, (c) a common set of criteria for assessing decisions, (d) a basic decision-making procedure, (e) a set of key decision points, (f) a model that shows the relationship of the program-development decisions, and (g) feedback for improving the decision-making decision.

In establishing a training program, developmental data about the participants, creativity, and leadership are used in making curricular and instructional decisions. The decisions are made in light of the values that are operating for the individuals involved in the process. These values will determine which approaches, e.g. competency-based, synectics, design, or a combination of these, will be used. Data and values impinge on the following four major types of decisions in program development, (a) purpose decision, (b) strategies decisions, (c) logistic decisions, and (d) evaluation decisions.

Purpose decisions identify the goals and objectives of the program. They answer the questions about who is intended to be able to do what (thinking, feeling, acting) with what content (information, skills, or values). These decisions emerge as the goals and objectives of what the participants are to achieve through the program.

Strategy decisions focus on what students and teachers are intended to do in order to move toward the purposes of the program. They answer the questions about what the student might do (read, discuss, analyze, manipulate) with what (objects, ideas, people, etc.) in order to meet the goals and objectives. Having identified what the trainee is to do, what then might the teacher do to facilitate or help the trainee engage in those activities? A central principle here is that the strategy must be related to the objectives such that there is good probability that if the student does X, he or she will attain objective Y.

Logistic decisions deal with such guidelines as how much time is needed to carry out a given strategy. What "grouping" of people is appropriate for the strategies identified? What materials are needed? What space is required?

Evaluation decisions basically deal with the assessment of whether the objectives were attained by the students. These decisions also may consider how well the program and instructor matched what was to be accomplished.

The product emerging from these four sets of decisions will be the proposed training program. The design approach to program development makes it easier to base decisions on firm data and expressed values rather than on hidden attitudes. The public statement of the bases upon which the training program is built and what it is to accomplish will be a major step toward involvement of students and implementing the desired program.

CREATIVITY TAXONOMY

In order to plan instructional experiences following any of the strategies described earlier, a conceptual yardstick by which to measure the desired and actual student behaviors is needed. Such a tool was developed by Stahl (1977) as a taxonomy of eleven forms of creativity. Stahl's Taxonomy of Novel Forms of Behavior and Products, which holds considerable potential for both planning of instruction and assessment of learning, is as follows:

1. Accident—the production or demonstration of a new behavior or product which is purely unintentional or unexpected and occurs by chance.
2. Accommodation—the mental activity which involves largely typical, casual and/or routine adjustments and adaptations a person makes in day-to-day living.
3. Reproduction—the mental activity featuring the ability to . . . develop a "new" product or behavior which is identical in every possible way to the original or "master."
4. Duplication—a mental activity leading to a new behavior or product which is to be an equivalent form of or corresponds closely to an original.
5. Fabrication—the mental activity which features the effort to alter or modify the surface features or arrangement of an original just to give it a new appearance.
6. Imitation—the mental activity which involves the effort to model or replicate a concrete or surface product with some minimal understanding of the principles, guidelines, or abstractions which are represented by the original product or entity.
7. Transfersion—the mental activity which results in the application of a set of principles or procedures in situations somewhat different than where and how they were first learned.
8. Substitution—the mental activity which includes the intentional effort to replace or manipulate parts of an original in order to form a new product or behavior which has somewhat the same message and/or intent of the original, but with different surface treatments.
9. Experimentation—the mental activity which involves the efforts to combine, mix, and use a set of principles or guidelines understood as abstractions as well as the concrete entities or features which they represent.

10. Innovation—the mental activity which features the making use of the meaning or "essence" of a set of principles or guidelines understood as abstractions which operate independently of specific concrete features or entities which heretofore have been associated with those principles or guidelines.
11. Generation—the mental activity which is characterized by the interrelating, synthesizing, or integrating of two or more sets of principles or guidelines understood as abstractions to produce an entirely new set of guidelines which represent the "best" of the previous separate sets.

With the foundation now provided, it is possible to turn attention to some of the specific problems to be considered in the training of creative leaders. It is assumed that the three approaches described at the outset can be integrated and used in the design, development, and implementation of the desired training programs.

PREPARATION OF CREATIVE LEADERS

The attainment of creative leadership skills and techniques, as well as an overall style of decision making that is compatible with one's mode of operation, appears to be a very individual thing. The final selection and mix of specific methods and techniques must be made by each leadership candidate. It is very important during the time of development that the candidate be helped to assess the match of specific techniques and approaches to his or her regular style of operation. For example, highly social interactive methods for achieving innovative change may be quite inappropriate for a quiet and methodical, yet creative individual. Similarly, directive techniques, no matter how successful for some people, may be a disaster for an emerging creative leader who functions best in a group-oriented democratic style.

Simulation and Reality

A compelling case can be made for the involvement of leadership candidates in safe no-threat circumstances in their early development. This "sheltered" strategy is possible through the use of simulated activities that can range from case studies to computer controlled large system interactions. Through such simulations, the participants are able to try out behaviors and to receive feedback on the relative success and failure of their decisions. In part, the candidates have the opportunity to experience the thrill of success without an overwhelming concern about failure.

For any decision maker, reality eventually must be faced. Common sense would appeal to the use of a gradual introduction of reality-based decisions to the fledgling creative leader. Circumstances of limited breadth and complexity that represent reduced risk can provide the chance to learn while at the same time providing opportunities for gaining confidence in handling real situations. This approach is particularly suitable for use in the university setting since it can provide the low-risk environment required for staging long-range strategies for intruding reality upon trainees.

Apprenticeship and Mentorship

One of the most effective ways for a potential creative leader to gain necessary experience is to serve an internship with someone who has both ability in creative leadership and who will allow others to develop their own style of creative leadership. A successful internship is possible only when there is a matched and supportive mentorship to go with it. Although there is little or no research to indicate if creative leaders automatically become successful teachers and nurturers of creative trainees, Burns (1978) stated that good leaders do make good teachers. On face value, it is probably safe to assume that creative leaders can make good role models for those who wish to learn the techniques and strategies of approaching problem solving in creative ways. Provided mentors can learn and use fairly well established techniques for developing creative behavior in students, such as "deferred judgment instruction" rather than "concurrent judgment instruction," apprentices can be helped to improve the quantity and quality of their ideas (Parnes & Meadows, 1963).

Controls and Constraints

All decision making, especially decision making of creative leaders that attempt to make changes, is bounded and restricted by the system within which the individuals and groups operate. All such systems have controls and constraints, with controls being the more powerful of the two. Controls represent the limits of the system beyond which it is nearly impossible, or at least undesirable to go. Legal, moral, and economic restraints, in essence, control what is possible in the educational system. These controls can range from the Occupational Safety and Health Administration requirements, to state mandates, to institutional policies. Leadership trainees would profit in learning what these types of controls are and how they might be changed.

Leadership training programs would be on firm ground if participants recognized that controls are not to be circumvented, but that they can be changed. For example, a mandated competency-based teacher training system that is cumbersome to the point of being nearly impossible to implement and administer cannot, in a moral sense, be set aside. There are procedures, however, that allow for the modification of either the system or the mandate. It is very likely that creative leaders may experience considerable "flack" for their "different" ideas and decision making. It is important that all candidates know what decision areas are potentially troublesome and should be approached with sensitivity and care.

Constraints also are limiting in their effect on decision making, but have less power. Constraints can be circumvented with no impending penalty of censure, and perhaps with expressions of approval. An important facet of bypassing restraints is to find means and methods that are acceptable within the operating system. For example, all undergraduate programs of study have some upper limit in terms of the total number of credits designated for specialization and those that are designated for general or liberal studies. These place a constraint on the number of courses that can be taken related to a student's area of specialization. For some programs, this may be less than half of the total number of courses. One approach, used by some in the profession in dealing with the increasing body of knowledge and a fixed number of courses in the specialization, provides an example. Specific courses within the general-studies curriculum from science, math, economics, art, psychology, or sociology can be identified that are both liberalizing for the the student, and conceptually supportive to programs of study from industrial arts fields of study. These courses are important since they do not add to the total number of credits to study, but do add to the desired perspective and competencies of the students.

Synergism and Enlightenment

A synergism is accomplished when all the parts of a system are functioning together so that the result is more powerful than the sum of the individual outputs. For example, in one university, several programs were interested in expanding their offerings and activities with microcomputers. Of the six programs involved initially, only two had any hardware units. Within a year, the participating faculty had maximized their limited time for grant development and had expanded their equipment to ten units. Enlightenment was achieved when the school administration became more aware of the efforts and productivity of the group. Impressed with the work of the ad hoc committee, the administration provided an improved and centrally located facility and arranged to have a listing of all appropriate computer courses highlighted in the new school bulletin. The results of this creative effort were so successful that five other programs joined the work group, adding additional visibility and power to these concepts.

Adversity and Progress

It is not uncommon for those in leadership roles to look forward to what are seen as times of support and prosperity. For the creative leader, times of adversity and strife may have far more productive potential for causing change when organizations are more receptive to considering unusual possibilities. As a case in point, most universities are passing through a time of economic problems. Most schools are funded directly through tuition, indirectly through taxes based on the number of students attending the institution, or some combination of the two. School administrators, therefore, will be far more attentive than usual to proposals for programs that will bring new student populations to the institution. This will be true especially if there is little start-up cost required. Although this sounds like a difficult order to fill, such programs abound in the fields represented by industrial arts, vocational, technical, and technology education. There are many examples of new programs developed by innovatively combining existing courses with a sprinkling of new courses. Many of the new industrial-management programs that have emerged in our profession have happened in just this manner. To date, we have only scratched the surface of possibilities of using adversity for the advantage of the profession.

DEVELOPING CREATIVE LEADERSHIP

An important ingredient for success in creative leadership development is understanding the system within which the individual is working. The more an individual learns about the operation of the system, the more likely he or she can manuever successfully within the system. At the mechanical level, it is important that one knows how decisions are made, the sequence of those decisions, and who passes which decisions to whom. Valuable time can be lost on even simple matters if an individual does not know the procedures to get things accomplished. For example, in a large university, a new chairperson found the procedures of acceptance, appeal, department action, and student reappeals to be extremely difficult to comprehend much less to monitor or teach to others. A translation of the verbal instructions into a symbolic analogy was achieved through developing a map that showed the relationship between the department and the university. The effort initially was very time consuming, but paid large dividends later in the time and work saved. Even more importantly, the symbolic analogy allowed that person to find bottlenecks in the procedures and to recommend changes for the improvement of the system.

Understanding the system is the first, and perhaps the most important, step in learning to cope with and within the system. In applying creative leadership to innovation, one fact appears to recur again and again; namely, that attempted change encounters resistance which in turn can result in high levels of frustration for the innovator. Without well developed coping skills, the fledgling creative leader may decide that it is just not worth the hassel, and worse yet, may fall prey to an old malady with the new name "burnout" (Freudenberger, 1980).

Within any system, there are at least two sets of operating procedures; those that are documented policy, and those that are operating as practice. To cope adequately with any system, a decision maker must understand the first and use the second. It is within the second that decisions are implemented. The subsystem of operating practice may not be documented, and must be disclosed or discovered by the new decision maker. This subsystem is operated, to a large extent, by the support and service staff of an institution. It is, therefore, important for the leadership trainee to learn effective ways of relating to this important group of people.

On a "hard nosed" practical basis, these support personnel are the people who can make or break an innovator. Many of them know what needs to be accomplished and how to get the necessary action. However, having been burned by other professors, they may not venture the answers until the innovator has earned the answer. Of utmost importance is the willingness to admit mistakes to a person in a support role from whom you may need help.

Some years ago, before the acceptance of competency-based programs, there was a funded project for the retraining of engineers to become industrial arts teachers. The project director encountered a "stone wall" in attempting to deliver a promised "equivalency crediting" for the participant's experiences. It was only after an admission to the staff members in the Office of the Registrar that he had made a mistake, by not working with them prior to proposal submission, that several workable solutions were offered. Many negative examples could be given where professors have taken a demanding or condescending approach and had the proverbial door to a successful answer slammed in their faces.

One way to find success, in making innovations work within the existing system, is to find methods for making the system function against itself. Institutions of any size often will have conflicting procedures for doing things. By finding the conflict of operation, you also may find an avenue to getting a change made that may not be otherwise possible.

In establishing an off-campus program to serve a large group of teachers, two program innovators encountered a problem in scheduling students in their last year of study. The university policy, as at most institutions, required the last year of study to be in residence on campus. As shown earlier, policy is a control that should not be circumvented. Continued study of this particular problem, however, disclosed a conflict in policy statements within the university. Indicated in the most current university catalog was a statement that residency for undergraduate study was set as the last year of study "under the aegis of the school." That phrase, as a published policy, provided the leverage and freedom necessary to continue the implementation of what became a very successful off-campus program.

Another possibility of turning the system against itself resides in the common occurrence of duplicate power structures within the institution. In most institutions, there are appointed and recognized seats of power. These usually take the pattern of a line and staff organizational chart. In reality, additional, yet hidden, power structures often will operate at the same time. It is the hidden power structure that can be of immense help as an alternative to an innovator when support is lacking from the recognized power structure. For example, a professor in a non-administrative position found that the school administration was not providing resources for setting up a new program and laboratory. Support for his plans was found within the institution from two sources. Assistance came from a professor experienced in developing proposals for funding and from the director of facilities in finding some unused but appropriate equipment within the university. This help from outside the regular power structure was enough to get the individual and the program launched.

The success of creative decision makers often will be determined by their ability to operate within and to change rules. Life within a university as a bureaucracy requires rule oriented behavior. At the same time that creative decision makers are following the established rules, they also must be questioning those rules and looking for opportunities to change them. Questions can be asked of all rules, but particularly must be asked of rules that interfere with efficient operations. It can be productive to question not only the rule, but also to question its rationale, its appropriateness, its effectiveness, and its impact. Questioning the rules under which we work allows us to find new ways of implementing innovative changes and to become more creative leaders.

SUMMARY

In the foregoing sections, a case has been made to indicate that direct and productive approaches are available to train creative leadership in industrial arts education. Programs of training to help students learn creative and innovative decision making can be implemented through a variety of approaches. All such approaches appear to require specific and sometimes inventive planning. A major data source in the planning of creative industrial arts education leadership programs is the desired list of competencies expected of program graduates.

The synectics approach provides a major strategy for instructional delivery for the attainment of creative leadership goals. The design approach provides the organizational approach to the multifaceted problem of implementing envisioned programs of training.

Specific techniques and methods that were considered included a taxonomy for creativity and the role of simulations, internships and mentorships, controls and constraints, synergism and enlightenment, as well as adversity and progress. Additionally, several examples were provided of the techniques and methods proposed for potential leaders in training.

Because of the importance of the mentor's role in providing the training for leadership participants, a final statement appears to be appropriate. Few people become creative leaders by chance. Most gain whatever skills they have by trial and error and through hard work. If prospective and current leaders are unwilling to put in the time and effort to search for techniques and strategies that can be used as a natural extension of regular styles of operation, then they will cease to develop as creative decision makers and leaders. After a creative decision is made and implemented a few times, it is no longer creative. It is important, therefore, that industrial arts leaders put an emphasis on their own continued development as well as those whom they hope to develop into creative leaders.

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Section IV

Application of Creative Leadership to Selected Professional Activities

Chapter 8

Achieving Goals Through Group Action

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> "Nothing is so unendurable to man as to be entirely at rest, without desires, without business, without amusement, without study."
> *Blaise Pascal (1623–62)*

The obligations of maintaining and even increasing individual productivity in a technological society represents a most challenging leadership opportunity. Personal desires, sometimes in excess of our capacity to achieve them, add to the tensions and frustrations of a goal-conscious generation. America has progressed from an ancestry that could hardly afford dreams beyond immediate survival, to a nation capable of attaining increasingly higher levels of technical miracles.

Quality of life, however, is not necessarily directly correlated with the fruits of technology. Thus, in order to benefit more completely from our endeavors in the marketplace (and the industrial arts profession) we must look to both product and process. The action and interaction generated by a group in the pursuit of goals may be closer to the essence of life than the end result. One must be aware that quality of life is as closely related with how we go about our work as it is to the end product. For this reason, the focus of this chapter is the context and process of goal achievement through group action and creative leadership.

THE CONTEXT OF GOAL ACHIEVEMENT

The formation and existence of functional groups can at the same time be viewed as conducive to the generation of problems as well as an effective means to solve problems. Human resources are the first and most essential element in problem solving. In viewing the context of goal achievement, one can start with problems and then look to the resources. Also, it is wise to heed the maxim that "perceived problems are real problems."

The Perception of Problems as Challenges

Problems are a prerequisite to the emergence of leadership. A clear path calls for no leader but an obstacle in the road requires a decision. If a group is existent, then leadership of some kind will come into play naturally.

This yearbook is based upon premises which include the context of situational leadership, an almost universally-accepted concept in contemporary leadership literature. One does not have to go beyond the recapping of a day's events to find examples of leadership arising out of a troublesome situation. A recent Associated Press story told of the plight of a Texas Hospital when floodwaters damaged emergency generators and cut off electrical power. A mental patient donned a scrub suit, masqueraded as a medical official, and put in long weekend hours coordinating the efforts of employees and volunteers in coping effectively with an extreme emergency situation. He was not exactly the type of leader who may have been screened by a committee for credentials and characteristics, but one who evidently arose to the situation and maintained group efforts effectively.

One of the early writers on group-centered and situational leadership (Gordon, 1955) stressed the simple concept that a potential leader of a group must perceive what it is the group wants. That leader must contribute something that will move the group closer to the goal and this contribution must be accepted before there is a change in the group's behavior. Situational leadership is, in fact, consistently based upon a process of interaction within the group.

A definition of leadership consistent with the views of those dealing with situations and problem solving was advanced by Watson (1966). He defined leadership as a form of social interaction. He states that "leadership is as much dependent on the traits and needs of the followers as it is of those who provide the initiative and direction" (p. 152).

Mohan (1979) clarified the leadership challenge to the industrial arts profession by citing the narrowness of its heritage as witnessed by the recurring names of a relative few past leaders. He does not do this in a manner to deprecate, but rather to illustrate that perpetuation of leadership legends can prevent the emergence of effective leadership, especially from a broad constituency.

All of this leads to an examination of typical professional responses which call for group action and solutions. Industrial arts education needs to examine the nature of groups and test out the theory that creative, dynamic leadership will emerge from within, regardless of any existent formal structure.

Existence of Groups

It is known that the need for leadership arises in relationship to a group that is concerned or charged with the responsibility of accomplishing certain goals. The professional industrial arts educator will encounter opportunities for group action in a variety of structured and unstructured situations.

Professional educators face daily responsibilities in the context of a structured organization. This organization may take the form of a school system with its various substructures based upon building, curriculum, and personnel; or the structure may be in a university setting and assume the characteristics of academic specialty, governance, operational unit, instructional unit, or research unit. The potential leader will encounter challenges in direct relationship to contract expectancies and responsibilities as specified by a position description.

There is also an awareness that inevitably, an overlay of professional responsibilities is tied to a variety of organizations and associations to which one is expected to belong. More than that, there is the obligation to contribute toward the successful operation of such groups. These organizations, whether they be regional, state, or national, whether they be comprehensive or specialized, will all have their common characteristics of structure to meet goals of political action, research and publication, updating of skills and information, philosophical debate, dissemination of research, and the list goes on.

Observe the existence of groups within the educational structure and professional organization context. Four types of groups can be identified. The groups are classified as follows: coordinative, operational, ad hoc, and emergent.

A coordinative group might take the form of a board of directors, a board of trustees, a steering committee, an advisory committee, or other group that is charged with the responsibility for coordination, control, supervision, and direction of other structured subgroups which would include operational committees and ad hoc groups.

Operational committees are part of a formal structure of either a professional organization or an educational system. A well-known term is that of a standing committee. This might involve research, ways-and-means, publicity, membership, finance or other operational areas of the organization. This type of committee often will be representative and reflect the governance structure of the larger group which it serves.

The ad hoc committee is many times referred to as a task force. It is a working group designed to accomplish a short-term task and then be disbanded. The committee is appointed, often with the sanction of a coordinating board or an operational committee. It may be, in fact, a subcommittee of a more formally structured group in these categories, or it could be formed by appointment of members external to any structured group and chosen for the abilities related directly to the task.

An emergent group is one not connected directly with any formal structure within the organization. Such a group can present many opportunities for creative leadership. Any educational or professional organization will have members who perceive problems as they develop with a much more acute sense of responsiveness than can be possible through the formal structure of the group. Professionals who sense problems to be solved and tasks to be accomplished seek out colleagues for debate and support in clarifying the issues and proposing tentative solutions. This is the level where proposals are born and an assessment is made of the formal structure of the organization to see if it can be of assistance in reaching a solution.

Examples of an emergent group could include an ACIATE Yearbook proposal team, a group of faculty concerned about the need for a supplemental retirement program, graduate assistants feeling compelled to modify a course evaluation system, or even a "brown bag" alliance of secretarial staff discussing perceived inequities of workload. These are spawning beds of creativity. The emergent group will augment the operations of the formal organization.

Leadership Resources

Just as four generalized categories of organizational groups can be identified, these groups also can be envisioned as resources for the identification and cultivation of leadership.

At the coordination and control level, leadership is much more apt to be consistent with the formal structure of the organization within which it operates. Officers, for example, will tend to be elected, often for a term of one to two years, with continuity of leadership provided by chair-elect status or other mechanisms. Such a system is a highly prized and valuable asset to the security and perpetuation of the group. One is cautioned, however, that the formal structures that have become intrinsic to professional organizations and, to some degree, educational systems at the top level, can be detrimental to creative and dynamic leadership.

Leavitt (1975) comments to the point:

> Another initially scary problem associated with groups is the potential loss of clear formal individual leadership. Without formal leaders how will we motivate people? Without leaders how will we control and discipline people? Without leaders how will we pinpoint responsibility? Even as I write those questions I cannot help but feel that they are archaic. They are questions which are themselves a product of the basic individual building block design of old organizations. The problem is not leaders so much as the performance of leadership functions. Surely groups will find leaders, but they will emerge from the bottom up. (p. 74)

The leadership involved in operational committees as standing committees also follows traditional lines. Operational committees often act as an extension of the formal structure and are controlled and guided in policy and personnel by the coordinative group. If the operational situations and problems are routine, leadership will tend to be noncreative and also routine. A leadership pool represented by operational committees is only slightly less restrictive than the pool represented by coordinative groups. Basically you have a "leaders-in-training" approach that is more conducive to a custodial operation than to dynamic growth, although the value of such a proving ground is not to be underestimated.

If an ad hoc committee is designed because of a specific problem, situation, or task, it is therefore a committee of uncommon opportunity. The ad hoc function, of course, can be a mundane extension of an operational committee if it is simply a subcommittee approach. However, a more productive method is to appoint members based upon interest, knowledge, competency, enthusiasm, and the potential for creativity.

It is quite possible for an ad hoc committee to determine its own leadership after clarifying the nature of its task. The ad hoc committee is not structurally responsible to a constituency or a particular point of view. Its job is to solve a problem to the best of its ability.

The type of leader that can grow from an emergent group defies categorization in terms of personality traits, experience, or education. The interaction that takes place between individuals as well as within the groups is still the most valuable function within any professional organization or education system. Here is where the concept of dynamic leadership finds a fertile territory. Burns (1978) talked of transforming leadership and defined it in this way:

> Such leadership occurs when one or more persons *engage* with others in such a way that leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality. Their purposes, which might have started out as separate but related, as in the case of transactional leadership, become fused . . . Transcending leadership is dynamic in the sense that the leaders throw themselves into a relationship with followers who will feel "elevated" by it and often become more active themselves, thereby creating new cadres of leaders. (p. 19)

Transforming leadership or leadership from emergent groups is personally rewarding, professionally valuable, and has the potential of revitalizing more formally structured leadership groups at the coordinative, operational, and ad hoc levels.

THE GROUP PROCESS

Professionals in industrial arts education operate in a highly structured, participative organizational lifestyle. While the committee is often the butt of many jokes and the focus of frustration, it remains the most consistently applied vehicle for social progress. One could argue that professional organizations tend to become too highly structured especially with standing committees. It is true that the existence of a committee in and of itself has little or no significance.

The American Industrial Arts Association is a prime example of structure through standing committees. There are, at recent count, over 30 committees listed, from Accreditation through Women and Minorities. Many of these are essential to share the housekeeping functions of the organization. Some have been designed expressly to address problem areas and major issues, while others seek to deliver and expand upon the professional services that are part of the Association's mission. Each committee has a chairperson who shoulders the titular role. However, it is a safe conclusion that the majority of these chairpersons would recognize that the accomplishments of their committee depended upon group dynamics and emerging leadership directly related to the agenda at hand.

Structure and Behavior

The committee structure of a professional organization such as the American Industrial Arts Association or the American Council on Industrial Arts Teacher Education has one general advantage over the structure found in a university or school setting. That is the lack of supersensitivity to the need for a constituent-based or representative membership on committees, whether they be standing or ad hoc.

While the formal leadership of a professional organization needs to be responsive to the various constituent groups, there is frequently more latitude in determining the membership of committees formed to accomplish specific tasks. The committee can become an effective facilitating mechanism. Watson (1966) identified seven psychological factors that give group action a superior advantage over individual action. They are as follows:

1. Stimulation from the presence of others.
2. A pooling of resources.
3. The probability of having the insight of an unusually able individual.
4. The canceling of errors.
5. The correcting of individual blind spots.
6. Cumulative interaction.
7. Security in risk taking.

Even with the recognized superiority of the group, care must be taken in its design to minimize deterrents to its effectiveness. For example, we know that the larger the group, the longer the time required for completion of its task. A critical work period may call for individual response or a very lean task force. This is another way of calling attention to the pitfall of pure and simple appointment based upon political constituency and balanced representation.

Factors to be considered in making committee appointments include interest, expertise, availability, and credibility. In addition, someone on the committee should have a sense of task orientation and someone should be successful in human relations. All of the above can be found in a committee of two with no political ties.

While a homogeneous group may tend to be harmonious, it can also take on some of the detrimental characteristics of acting similarly to an individual. While cooperation fosters cohesiveness, Watson (1966) cautioned that "a group climate which values only harmony and cordiality leads to repression of differences in criticisms, thus facilitating acceptance of defective or inferior products" (p. 129). He also cautioned that the more homogeneous the participants, the less each member adds to the resources of the group. Therefore, optimal productivity is dependent upon necessary information, skills, and viewpoints represented within the group.

The implications here are for the formal leadership of a professional organization or school structure to be studiously aware of committee design as an essential for creating a climate for emergent leadership with creative results.

Resolution of Differences

The working through of differences in opinions, proposals, and general behavior of individuals within the group is a critical process. McGregor (1967), one of the most influential leaders and writers in contemporary management theory, viewed several essential conditions necessary for working through differences and achieving effective group action.

The first of McGregor's list of conditions is *authentic communications* among the members and between them and the group leader. This involves a conscious effort to express real feelings as well as intellectual ideas openly within the group. These ideas must be explored to their fullest for complete understanding before they are rejected or accepted. The skill of effective listening is one that if not present at the beginning of group deliberations, should itself be discussed and worked upon in the course of action. The responsibility for such openness in communications, of course, resides with the group leader; however, it is one that cannot be enforced unless it is agreed upon as an essential underlying condition.

A second condition mentioned by McGregor was that of *mutual trust and support*. Traces of any power struggle, status, or rewards at the expense of others must be erased in establishing the climate for effective group action. Obviously, individuals may perceive personal development and gain from the participation in or the results of group action. The important point is that elements of competitiveness and unfair advantage are detrimental to the condition of mutual trust and support. Such a climate does not preclude the presence of strong disagreements and vigorous argumentative discussions. It is the elements of indifference, suspicion, or hostility that must be eliminated.

A third condition was *genuine respect for differences* among the members. Such differences may be in ideas, knowledge, attitudes, emotional adjustment, or special competence. A group attains a high level of sophistication and a greater chance of success when human differences are not seen as threats but are utilized as means for high-level achievement of the group goals.

Creative leadership can only exist when the conditions and relationships between group variables are under control and become positive conditions underlying the resolutions of differences instead of obstructions to group action.

Developing Commitment

The most valuable condition to develop, once a group is established and goals are clarified, is that of commitment. This is a common concept so taken for granted that it is often neglected by managers who assume that their commitment is automatically shared by the group. Not so. While commitment to a purpose can be born in an emotional state, can grow out of a contagious atmosphere, and can be made apparent with public statements, the results also can be superficial and short-lived. Commitment must be carefully developed as a recognized element in the group process to assure the momentum needed to complete the action and attain the desired goal.

Time spent in developing commitment may seem to be disproportionate to the time spent on solutions of the problems at hand. Nevertheless, like clarification of goals, commitment will prove to be a timesaving tool. The correlation between high performance and commitment exists for groups as well as individuals.

The resolution of differences in an open style is step number one in developing commitment. Points of view from management, administration, and members of the group must be solicited and freely discussed with no fear of reprisal, ridicule, or disrespect. This also will aid in the elevation of a level of mutual trust. McGregor (1967) outlined an analytical approach to inducing commitment. This approach has as its own end product, a formal statement of commitment from the unit (group) as to the acceptable goals and standards of the organization (or task). Included in the statement would be an analysis of what help the unit would need (such as manpower, changes of policy, staff help, information) in order to accomplish the goals. This process, which precedes focusing on solutions, will minimize individual differences, maximize acceptance, and promote greater efficiency and creativity during the actual problem-solving stage. If agreed upon that it is important that the group stay together, then all must look to the vital process of developing commitment.

Choosing Strategy

The group or committee needs initial direction through interim leadership so it can gain entry into the planning stage. Dyer (1976) cautioned that our persistent cultural norm of expecting every group to have a formal leader is a common barrier to effective group action. This is not to deny the desirability of having a designate perform certain useful functions such as calling a meeting to order, setting initial agenda, and mediating. However, Dyer indicated it is important to prevent a formal leader from being viewed as possessing greater insights, abilities, and wisdom, thus inhibiting others and in effect, neutralizing the effectiveness of the group.

The definition of tasks and the choosing of a strategy for the group should flow from the earlier stages of the committee meeting. This important process and sequence always should be considered, whether the assigned chore can be accomplished in a half-day committee workshop or necessitates a series of bi-monthly meetings of a standing committee. Managers such as heads of educational units must always be cognizant of available time, of course, but unless these essential elements and sequencing are present, creative leadership cannot germinate and group action will follow a too familiar path to obscurity.

Task definition is a prerequisite to strategy choice. Once the group has concurred on the job to be done, the resources for reaching the goals will become more evident. It is at this stage that mobilization takes place. This is the prime time for emergence of committed leadership from the ranks; leadership that can visualize the strategy and begin to execute the proposed solutions.

THE DIVIDENDS

There has to be a payoff for the volunteer efforts associated with professional organizational contributions to prevent stagnation and decay. The results need to appear attainable in varying degrees to both groups and individuals. It is this realization which provides much of the fuel for energy and cohesion during the group process.

Small groups (i.e. committees) have redeeming qualities. Committees are not "necessary evils;" they are essential in a democratic and free society. Leavitt (1975) concluded that small groups are good for people. In addition to fulfilling basic membership needs where people can learn cognitively and empirically in a trusting and helpful situation, groups can provide support in forms of stress and crises. Leavitt listed other benefits of small groups: they are good problem finding tools; in a wide variety of decision situations, they make better decisions than individuals do; they are great tools for implementation; they gain commitment from their members; they can control and discipline individual members; and finally, as organizations grow large, small groups appear to be useful mechanisms for fending off many of the negative effects of large size.

Goal Related

Goal-related dividends fall mainly in the category of product outcomes representing solutions to problems as clarified early in the group process. Such outcomes might range from a position paper on new certification standards for teachers to a plan for increasing membership in an industrial arts division of a state or national association. The outcomes would be measurable if the assessment element is deemed critical. In any event, both formative and summative evaluations are helpful if they do not become ends in themselves thus becoming an obstacle to the original goal.

Process Related

Process-related outcomes are extremely desirable and valuable. Sometimes more difficult to measure, or even to recognize, these dividends are the ones that represent the transforming nature of creative leadership. Such process outcomes often are not identified as goals at the outset but become positive dividends when the ledger is complete. Thus, the quality of professional service, the confidence and trust of members, the faith of consumers, the credibility of lobbyists, the support of parents, the growth of foundations, and a host of other relatively intangible yet vital results emanate from the group process.

The achievement of goals results in both planned and unplanned benefits to individuals as well as the organizations. Top administration must focus on the goals and is accountable for progress on a course compatible with the missions of the organization. This is not to say that the serendipitous nature of events along the route cannot be recognized, appreciated, and even publicized. For the organization, new projects will be spawned, and in the case of individuals, many careers will continue to be enhanced by productive involvement in group efforts.

SUMMARY

Working with any professional group, regardless of the formal or informal structure, one will discover a classic theory/practice dilemma. The prevailing organizational practice in management is based upon what people *should* do rather than upon their actual behavior. It is also found that in working with committees or any group attempting to achieve certain goals, one is often trapped into the same logical guideline approach instead of attempting to analyze more recent studies of organizational theory and behavioral sciences. The clarification of tasks is a necessity and the refinement of this process calls for involvement of the group itself utilizing sound principles of interpersonal communications. This facilitates commitment and assures acceptable results.

The creation of a small group as a pool for emergent leadership is an effective administrative response to a problematic situation. The members of the group should be complementary resources rather than simply a homogeneous selection. They need not be politically representative unless bound by a formal governance agreement.

Responses to problems in emergent groups is the essence of membership involvement. Such groups encourage viewpoints to surface from non-administrative roles, resulting in increased vitality for the organization and an antidote to apathy. The strength and productivity of our total society is enhanced when members share in solving mutual problems and controlling their own destiny.

The management of a climate conducive to the emergence of creative leadership from the membership or staff of an organization is the most important function of top administration. The second most important function is the appropriate recognition and rewards given when such leadership occurs. Dynamic and creative leadership then will take on a perpetual mode.

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Chapter 9

Departmental Leadership Through the Dynamics of Personnel Actions

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It is generally agreed that the "complete" leader must possess knowledge, vision, and sensitivity in personnel dynamics, and must apply these skillfully in carrying out the leadership function. Selected areas of personnel dynamics which affect leadership are the interest of this chapter. The focus of the leadership environment, given the nature of the American Council for Industrial Arts Teacher Education, (ACIATE), is the college or university academic department. It is in the department that the interests and skills for contributions in leadership development and personnel dynamics in professional organizations are developed, motivated, and sustained.

Selected personnel challenges, opportunities, or situations include: advancement, faculty development, staff and faculty group maintenance toward mature department behavior, major efforts involving the faculty as a team, motivating and reinforcing individual performance, communications, and social overlay.

These are organized in three major sections. The first offers selected views on leadership and organizational behavior which are related to the dynamics of university department leadership in the context of personnel action. In the second section, suggestions or guidelines for leadership behavior for personnel actions are presented.

Largely, these are based on observation and successes or failures represented by the author. Also from personal experience is the third section, a series of aphorisms or "pithy" statements. If more easily remembered and put into practice, these may be of assistance to those who aspire to be good leaders and followers.

LEADERSHIP AND ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR

There is more emphasis on personnel dynamics in the leadership equation in recent literature. In his appeal for reauthorization legislation for vocational education, Rupert Evans (1981) emphasized the need for resources to develop leaders with personnel-dynamics skills. Evans advocated intensive investment in human-resource development for leadership in order to carry forward this important development for the world of work (pp. 3–7).

In one of his many statements on management principles, Ouchi (1981) emphasized that people are the important element in the repertoire of the business manager (p. 34). This also must be a guidepost for leaders in industrial arts. In academic units devoted to industrial arts which must rely heavily on technological hardware, the importance of people could become blurred. Leaders of such academic units may find it helpful to remember how Emerson (1965) dramatized the importance of human resources when he traveled around the country to advocate the development of two-year schools to strengthen vocational and technical education in the early 1960s. If a disaster hit our country, he would say, and if most of our people were destroyed, the nation probably could not survive or be reconstructed. On the other hand, if our productive physical plants, factories, bridges, roads, schools, and universities were destroyed, but people survived, they could rebuild our physical resources and the nation would, most likely, survive. For this reason, primary attention must be devoted to the development and maintenance of human resources. The industrial arts teacher-education leader must be mindful of Emerson's observation. The leader must develop an environment in which faculty, graduate assistants, and support personnel will flourish. When they are aware that they indeed are valued over the physical environment, students are likely to be well served, and meaningful scholarship and service will result.

In business and higher education, the growing awareness of the human factor has yielded an abundance of managerial and organizational theories. Essentially, many of these recognize that human resource development and the consequent quality and quantity of work produced depends much upon the *humane* leader.

Leadership Attributes for Personnel Action: The Humane Leader

There is recognition in business and industry that leaders must motivate subordinates to high levels of productivity. Appropriate and positive environments must be created to elicit proper creative and productive results. In discussing techniques for developing subordinate managers, Meyer (1980) offered that leaders not only direct, control, and motivate, but that those tasks and responsibilities ought to come from a healthy inner feeling. If shared in a positive manner, the experience the leader has amassed should be transmitted into the future, as subordinates, when they assumed leadership positions, adopt those methods and modes of behavior.

From the point of view of this chapter, Meyer's notion can be applied to senior professors and chairs who should be obligated to share and give of themselves. In so doing, the process becomes analogous to what may be considered an "eternal-life" syndrome. The leaders' guidelines, principles, and values could be adopted, adapted, and transmitted in like manner to each succeeding generation of new professors. In this way, one can earn eternal recognition through what might be called mentorship and "good works" in the field.

As a crucial part of this environment, the leader must possess or develop several important qualities, which Michelon (1977) held were related to creating and maintaining a humane atmosphere. First, the leader must manifest efficient use of his mind; he must be clear thinking; he must be consistent; he must be disciplined; and he must be able to demonstrate these attributes in an unemotional, yet pleasant manner.

The effective leader must possess a positive self-image. Who among us has not experienced the devastation that can be wrought by a person in a leadership position who has a negative self-image? While aware of those things that are likely to go on in social situations where individuals may "talk behind one's back" and may be suspected of planning insurrections, the leader with a positive self-image will not resort to pettiness. Energy will not be wasted by putting people down, rooting out enemies, and in self-defense (Michelon, pp. 31–32). Rather, time will be spent on obtaining recognition from superiors for jobs well done. Subordinates and colleagues will be encouraged to greater accomplishments, even greater than those to which a chair may aspire.

Accentuating the positive, Michelon (1977, pp. 32–33) asserted that the successful leader does not regard work as being comprised of problems. The able leader with a positive self-image always sees "opportunities" where others see "problems." Such a leader does not see the groaner and moaner as a problem. Rather, the leader sees an opportunity and a challenge to overcome the complaining (for which there may be good reason) and achieve positive results and behavior modification. Theory X autocratic leaders, who Michelon calls "lemon squeezers," are not likely to manifest such a positive attitude. Such individuals only can accomplish their work and only can lead by destroying the egos, commitment, interest, and motivation of subordinates. They are rarely constructively critical, and are mostly destructive.

Michelon asserted that there were a great many Theory X types in leadership positions. Unfortunately, on paper and pencil tests, and in interviews, they appear as Theory Y leaders—as concerned, sensitive persons who view their subordinates as intelligent, warm human beings—which they are not.

It is the Theory Y leader that Michelon idealized. Such a person has a sense of values; is prepared to take a strong position, even if unpopular—which may endanger possibilities of personal advancement—but is the proper action for the group (1977, p. 36).

Hayes (1981a, p. 3) writing as president of the American Management Association, shared the views of Michelon and Meyer regarding humane leadership. His notion of patience included leadership attributes of (a) waiting to see people grow, (b) sustaining faith in the basic goodness of people, and (c) being patient with criticism that will come from others. Hayes (1981b, p. 2) also observed that if leaders were to think on it, "they will remember, too, that it was a respected manager who coached them and guided them to the right path and to the habit of effectiveness."

Leadership Style Affects Group Behavior

In higher education, particularly in the academic department context, the stereotype of the leader as the first among equals still prevails. In practice, it has been modified for some years. While such a leader is indeed expected to be a recognized scholar and teacher, a repertoire of leadership skills beyond scholarship is expected. Such a repertoire is unlikely to be developed solely through devotion to teaching and scholarship. Studies of the effects of leadership in higher education suggest a need for managerial skills in higher education which may require more than knowledge of one's discipline. This becomes more important with the realization that leadership style is believed to affect the behavior of members of the academic unit or community. In this regard, Astin and Scherrei (1980) showed how different presidential styles elicited different behaviors from the faculty as:

Presidential Style	*Affects*
Bureaucratic	Faculty relatively little time in teaching—more involved in administrative tasks.
Insecure	High turnover.
Intellectual	Faculty spends large amounts of time on research, BUT, large turnover. Perhaps threat of requirement of publish or perish.
Counselor	Little committee work, perhaps because counselor type dispenses with formal committees.
Hierarchical	Like bureaucratic—faculty has little time to teach and high relationship with time spent on administration.
Entrepreneurial	All associated with a reduction in the amount of time faculty devote to research or scholarly activities as compared to teaching. (pp. 90–93)
Task Oriented	
Humanistic	

Although the impact of a president's style cannot be discounted, the department head or chair has a more immediate effect on faculty behavior. The nature of the academic department is the basis for this assertion. It maintains traditional links with a discipline. It is acknowledged as the haven for academic freedom and integrity. It is the vehicle through which professional and academic standards are developed and maintained in a particular field or discipline. These elements grant greater direct responsibilities as well as opportunities (at least of a greater frequency) for the department leader to influence faculty behavior. While the latter may be true as an ideal, and policy statements in higher education support the assertions, observations of practice make it uncertain that chairs can so function. As the first-line representative of the department in almost every component of administration, adequate time and energy may not be available for truly important tasks related to meaningful leadership.

There are, however, different kinds of departments, and in spite of published ideals, there are different styles of department chairs. Tucker (1981) identified four styles: *The Spectator Chair, The Technician Chair, The Jungle Fighter Chair,* and *The Gamesman Chair.* Generally, no one style is pursued by individuals t ithe exclusion of others. He described them as:

> *The Spectator Chair* is a passive and acquiescent manager . . . leaves the faculty alone. In the large mature department with an established administrative hierarchy, very little needs to be done except make sure that the department's business is conducted on

time. Advocacy for anything except a trouble-free life for the department, whether small or large, may be ineffective unless he or she has been picked deliberately by the dean or the central administration to preside over the dissolution of a unit that should never have been made a department.

The Technician Chair is a superb bureaucrat . . . always submits staff reports on time, follows . . . the directions given by the college, knows all the rules and regulations . . . and knows how to follow those regulations to keep everyone out of trouble . . . [although] the technician chair has read literature on management techniques and follows the best advice given there, . . . he or she often appears to lack vision, imagination, and courage . . . has the great virtue of being able to bring order out of chaos . . . can inhibit the zealots and pilgrims among the faculty; [and] can . . . prod a sluggish, lazy department. The technician chair is seldom head of . . . a department which requires relentless pursuit of excellence . . . is content . . . that the department functions well in accordance with commonly accepted procedures and policies. . . . Many departments in transition from immaturity to maturity or from nonpriority status to priority status are often well served by the technician . . . The technician does not turn over all power and authority to committees . . . he or she knows the rules and regulations too well to do that . . . but generally conducts affairs in a democratic fashion.

The Jungle Fighter Chair has taken the position for two reasons: to make the department better and perhaps someday to become dean . . . is unabashedly ambitious and understands that a strong, successful department is the best self-advertisement . . . is sometimes brilliant, possibly dangerous, and . . . department life is never dull. Next to personal success, the jungle fighter wants nothing more than the department's complete victory in all major issues; he or she becomes its forceful advocate for all its positions.

The jungle fighter flourishes in large departments, both immature and mature, and is most successful in large, mature, high priority departments . . . is capable of making truly significant—even brilliant—contributions to the department. Although not a team player, the jungle fighter is probably the best agent of change among all types of chairpersons . . . tends to be less democratic than the technician and relinquish[es] little power or authority . . . pretends to speak and act for the faculty at times when he or she is speaking or acting only for personal aims or for the goals of a few department members.

The Gamesman Chair is one who takes the job in order to improve the department, the college, and the institution . . . plays life like a game and is interested in both strategy and tactics . . . is cool

> and dedicated . . . likes to win as much for the pleasure of winning as for any other reason, but . . . knows how to accept defeat.
>
> The gamesman's leadership style embodies all the paradoxes inherent in the chairperson's difficult and perplexing job . . . is strong but flexible, a manager who is sometimes managed, a leader who is sometimes led, a Janus-like advocate who can defend . . . the interests of the department faculty as well as the interests of the whole institution . . . reduce[s] the number of occasions when the department's goals are perceived to be at odds with the institution's goals by convincing others that everyone's interests are best served by keeping the department strong. The gamesman is intelligent and courageous and probably has a highly developed sense of humor.
>
> A chair may combine in varying proportions characteristics of two or more of these types. A gamesman may become so carried away with the game that he or she becomes a jungle fighter. A spectator, confronted with a dilemma, may be forced to learn to use rules and regulations as a technician does. A jungle fighter who has been bruised in combat or who has mellowed with age may decide to forsake ambition and try being a gamesman. A real chairperson generally does not exhibit only one type of behavior; rather, his or her personality more likely reflects a melding of all these types (pp. 33–36).

Important to this discussion on personnel matters is the categorization of directive or supportive leadership styles. Tucker (1981) stated that:

> Directive behavior consists primarily of one-way communication from chairperson to faculty members, in which he or she explains what is to be done when, here, and how. The chairperson's main concern is to see that the task or assignment is accomplished. "Supportive" behavior, on the other hand, consists of two-way communication between the chairperson and the faculty members. Here the chairperson provides personal or psychological support, including encouragement, praise, and general concern for the personal and professional welfare of each faculty member.
>
> A chair's behavior is neither exclusively directive nor supportive; leadership style is a mix of both these behavior patterns. The proportion of directive behavior to supportive behavior indicates the chair's leadership style. (pp. 36–37)

The Academic Department and Organizational Theory

As described, leadership behavior may need to be different in different types of departments. Nevertheless, the characteristics usually identified with the mature department should be the goal of chairs and faculty. The definition of a mature department is, therefore, helpful. It is:

> one in which the faculty members have the experience and capacity as a group to work together, set high but attainable goals, reach group decisions, and readily accept responsibility for their decisions and assignments. [By contrast] An immature department is one that has great difficulty in reaching consensus or in developing and implementing a plan of action; its members are either unable or unwilling to work together effectively. Generally, mature departments are those that have been in existence for a long time, say fifteen years or more. Generally, a young department, whether small or large, is an immature department, according to our definition, simply because the process of learning to work cooperatively takes time and effort, (Tucker, 1981, pp. 28–29)

On reading the description of mature department behavior, one is moved to comment on the alphabet soup of managerial theories which may or may not be related to higher education and administration, particularly to personnel management. The literature of business management has spilled into higher-education leadership from the discussions built around such buzz words as "matrix," "organization," "hierarchical organization," "quality circles," and "managerial theories X and Y." On the other hand, the traditions of higher education suggest that some of the things which appear to be new and innovative for business have been practiced and implemented to higher education for some time. The nature of higher education, at least in mature departments and institutions, long ago prompted behaviors and patterns which appear to be new and innovative in business today.

The current interest in the Japanese approach in using quality circles is an example of such a phenomenon. Cole (1981, pp. 36, 38) stated that Japanese line managers and production employees rather than staff specialists are responsible for quality assurance. Middle management, he said, is largely responsible for interdepartmental planning and coordination of quality activities. Quality control is encouraged so that workers respect their own work. Japanese managers treat employees as resources that, if cultivated, will yield economic returns to the firm. All workers are assumed to be capable and desirous of contributing to the firm and are made to feel like contributing members.

These are attitudes which virtually define the university and are inherent in the nature of the professoriate. The faculty maintains and monitors the quality of its members as in Tucker's definition of the mature department. Procedures usually exist on the department level to assure that professional functions are vigorous and rigorous, in order to insure the attainment of excellence. The modest size department or program unit, thus, may be the ultimate quality circle. In the department, the self-evaluation procedures required for accreditation or other external evaluations parallel quality circle behaviors. The department faculty must review goals, objectives, aspirations, quality, and effectiveness of its members and of the unit. Depending on their findings, they recommend appropriate courses of action (including discontinuance of certain activities) to maintain or improve quality in the various dimensions of effort.

Characteristics of the Effective Leader

Whether departments are mature or immature, whether goals and missions may differ according to the roles of the institutions or locale, to be effective an academic leader must possess certain leadership skills, mostly for personnel actions. The prime leader nowadays also will seek efficiency in his or her and the group's endeavors. Until recently, the academic community may have been more concerned with effectiveness—the degree to which goals are achieved—than with efficiency, which is concerned with how well resources are used. Meridan (1981) summarized "... efficiency is concerned with doing things right, while effectiveness is concerned with doing the right things" (p. 53). Hopefully, the leader will exhibit the attributes of the humane leader described in a previous section of this chapter. In spite of the personal challenge implied by the duties and responsibilities of an academic chair; in spite of the virtual impossibility of achieving the successful marriage which academe requires between managerial skill development and continuation of professional productivity; in spite of some faculty views that the position is unnecessary, individuals aspire to the role which this observer believes is a critically important one.

A chair who is both an effective leader and an efficient facilitator often possesses many of the following characteristics:

1. Good interpersonal skills; ability to work well with faculty members, staff, students, deans, and other chairs.
2. Ability to identify problems and resolve them in a manner acceptable to faculty members.
3. Ability to adapt leadership styles to fit different situations.
4. Ability to set department goals and to make satisfactory progress in moving their departments toward those goals.
5. Ability to search for and discover the optimum power available to them as chairs; ability to maximize that power in motivating faculty members to achieve department goals and objectives.

6. Active participation in their professions; respect of their professional colleagues. (Tucker, 1981, p. 41)

In a similar vein, in discussing leadership in vocational-technical education, Wenrich (1980, p. 42) enumerated the good achievement behaviors of the leader who must be able to: (a) initiate action, (b) keep members' attention on the goal, (c) clarify issues, (d) develop procedural plans, (e) evaluate the quality of work done, and (f) make expert information available. Additional responsibilities of the leader apply to what may be called group maintenance by (a) keeping interpersonal relations pleasant, (b) arbitrating disputes, (c) providing encouragement, (d) giving the minority a chance to be heard, (e) stimulating self-direction, and (f) increasing the interdependence among members of the group.

This section has reviewed assertions that leaders in business and in higher education must be sensitive to the fact that human resources remain the most vital element of the equation in business and the academic department. Ideally, this sensitivity will lead to the development of certain techniques for working with human beings. These techniques will foster environments and interrelationships which result in effective and efficient units.

In spite of the ideals reviewed here, and about which leaders should be aware, in being human, all are likely not to behave in the same manner. It may be difficult for the leader to modify long established behavior patterns to correspond with published ideals of leadership behavior. They even may have a personal philosophy of leadership different from published ideals. The leadership styles and behaviors which are likely to be manifested, will elicit behaviors and results from groups which correspond to the leadership style.

Readers may query, "What has all this to do with creativity in leadership, particularly as related to the realities of personnel actions?" The answer could be either "everything," or "nothing."

Regardless of leadership style or the maturity of an academic unit, the leader who approaches work with a positive attitude has ample opportunity for developing creative responses to challenges and for developing creative strategies to help faculty achieve individual and group objectives.

ON LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR

This section provides guidelines for leadership behavior through a modified case-study approach. The creative leadership techniques and strategies are discussed in situational contexts and are based on experience. The reader is cautioned, therefore, that bias may appear and objectivity may be sacrificed because these are based on personal experience and the author's own perceptions. It seems appropriate to begin with selected observations, guidelines, and suggestions for new chairs.

The New Leader

A department faculty or college dean may bring in a new leader to become the chairperson and a change agent. A dean may obtain the concurrence of the faculty for the achievement of certain new missions and goals. The faculty may concur without fully appreciating that the work required to accomplish change may call for them to participate in activities in which they have little or no interest. The stated aspirations and interest of the faculty and the dean also may be very much at odds with the instructional activities which are most likely to have long been institutionalized. Has the faculty paid lip service to the desire for change? Do they want change or are they really content to continue what they have been doing for many years?

It would be suicidal for the leader to conclude negatively. Regardless of how these questions are answered, the chair must work with the existing staff. A measure of success of creative leadership is the degree of support and active participation that is elicited. A wise dean must have hoped that the new leader would motivate the faculty to take paths toward accomplishment of the desired and expressed goals. The challenge is not solved or engaged by working around the faculty. Other strategies must be pursued. Somewhere among the faculty there is likely to be one or more individuals who are interested in curriculum and instructional development. They should be identified early. Perhaps they can assume leadership in curriculum development activities. A senior or even younger faculty member who enjoys the respect of and has influence among the faculty could be identified for a leadership role. Such a person even may have been an unsuccessful candidate for the chair position. Such an individual should be identified and given an opportunity to assume leadership in certain projects.

Depending upon the institutional environment, it may be helpful for the chair, upon appointment, to request the dean to outline the problems, issues, and opportunities in the form of a charge to the department. Based on this, the chair can work with the faculty to prepare a position paper or a mission statement as a response to the dean's charge. Contributions that each faculty member can make toward the attainment of new goals could be elicited and incorporated into the statement.

There are likely to be some faculty who will argue vehemently for the maintenance of tradition. Such individuals are likely to cause a great deal of frustration and consternation among the faculty; but there are a variety of ways to deal with them. One way is to accept tradition. The chair can work with those faculty to identify how their courses or parts of courses, or their talents, may be incorporated into the scheme for change.

In the 1960s and early 1970s, it was simpler in many university departments to accomplish curriculum change, particularly in smaller departments. Retirements, resignations, and the mobility of faculty in those days provided ample opportunities to recruit new faces anxious to participate in the change process. On the other hand, in instances where there was relative stability, the entrenched faculty possibly could develop an attitude that reflected interest in change provided that the work was done by the new leader who was looked upon as a superman.

It was as though the faculty was saying, "Look, we brought you in. You have a national reputation. You know what's going on and you know how to make change, so do it!" The new chair should have responded, "Fellows, it doesn't work that way and you really do not want it to work that way. I am not a superman. I can help direct you and help with resources. I can help with people and deal with you on concepts, but you must make the change. I would be delighted to work with you in a cooperative fashion."

Perhaps most important, the new leader needs to demonstrate respect for the faculty. From the leader's point of view, they may be traditional. They may oppose change. They may be unproductive in certain areas of faculty performance; but they are the faculty for whom the responsibility for leadership was accepted. Strengths must be identified and enhanced. Potential leaders must be encouraged. Performance in the unattended areas of faculty responsibilities must be encouraged.

New Faculty and Old Faculty: Personality Conflicts

New and continuing leaders will encounter faculty with the same same characteristics that were described earlier in this chapter for chairs. Where but from the faculty do spectator, gamesmen, jungle fighters, and technician-type chairs come from? Whatever the leader's style, the possibility exists that these styles among the faculty eventually will conflict with the chair and between themselves. Imagine a change situation with a faculty principally comprised of sound traditionalists, mainly spectator types. Into this milieu, the chair brings one or more jungle fighters. The leader must be prepared for potential explosions—personality conflicts which may not be resolved readily.

Some established faculty will greet this change with bewilderment and disbelief (remember, they are spectator types). The new faculty will have no difficulty. They were hired into a program for which the change was described and the activity requirements were not perceived as new, just requirements they accepted and for which they felt qualified. A possible scenario could be outlined as follows:

1. Jungle fighters demean the spectators for their course activities and attempts to justify traditional courses in the face of change.
2. Jungle fighters recommend sweeping changes which would eliminate courses taught by spectators or require them to pursue major retraining activity.
3. The chair, who is perceived to agree with the jungle fighters, may cause spectators to withdraw, at least emotionally, from the process, or cause spectators to become jungle fighters in their own defense.

The chair must defend against such occurrences. If they do occur, they must be ameliorated quickly. To do so successfully, the leader must avoid identification with either group. He or she must identify equally with both. Techniques that generally work are:

1. Value and praise, through careful public expression, the work products of members of both groups.
2. Obtain testimony from industrialists and curriculum authorities, which may be reinforced by the chair, that skills and competencies of both groups can be accommodated in the new concepts.
3. Keep the group's attention on the ideas and goals of the department's mission paper, to which group members ostensibly have been committed.
4. Treat with respect and careful consideration the ideas put forth by all members, even if they appear to be inconsistent with the professed direction of the group. Do not reject any ideas out of hand, even if gut reaction is to do so. Think on ideas offered and return, after some reasonable time, with a counter proposal which includes at least some part of the original idea presented, but moves toward established goals. Publicize and give credit to the originator.
5. Show appreciation and understanding that the traditional faculty may be experiencing trauma. They have agreed to change because they knew something was somewhat amiss, but did not realize their secure world was to become the target.

6. Do not squelch the jungle fighters to the extent that they become disillusioned and consequently resign or withdraw. They are likely to be prime movers in any major effort.
7. Reward all who contribute to the accomplishment of group accepted goals. Be cautious that rewards to jungle fighters, which are likely to be deserved, are so perceived by spectators.

Achieving Increase In Faculty Scholarship and Service

In one way or another, all institutions of higher education speak of excellence and quality. Due to the wide range of colleges and universities in which industrial arts education programs are housed, a consistent set of standards is not evident. Accrediting associations do call out standards, but institutional goals, missions, and aspirations differ and are likely to encourage different types of faculty behavior. Some institutions emphasize research, while others strive for a balance of research, teaching, and service. Still others emphasize instruction while scholarship is addressed in such a way that few faculty pursue the activity. Given this situation, leaders may wish for the equivalent to our National Bureau of Standards for performance in higher education. Are there precise measures? What is excellence in teaching? Is there a measure by which to judge a faculty member's research productivity? What is acceptable service to the community? Can it be described objectively so that the products of the faculty can be measured?

The creative leader is likely to develop a department "Bureau of Standards." If one does not exist, the faculty will be encouraged to prepare criteria with a wide range of concrete examples (behaviors in the domains of faculty activity). These should give direction and meaning to the expectations of faculty performance. In some cases, this is more easily done than in others. Excellence in teaching can be described in terms of student performance on examinations and laboratory activities, or in terms of student success after graduation. There exist instruments to evaluate teaching. They may allow peer evaluation and ratings and/or student evaluations and ratings. Examples of scholarly products can be enumerated along with physical products as examples which could be shared with faculty. These allow faculty to determine which of the examples respond to their interests and which may stimulate their own work.

Finally, the same thing can be done for service. For example, is being a scoutmaster acceptable? Is consultation to a director of training in a large industrial firm regarded as adequate service? What is the nature of service? Is remuneration permitted? Is organizing a curriculum or designing a laboratory for a public school an acceptable form of service?

The leader has a responsibility that goes beyond enumerating these things. The faculty needs help to develop and apply reasonable standards which it can accept and to which it will become committed. The leader also must be effective in communicating and articulating these standards to agencies outside of the department. Deans and other university administrators who may be responsible for decisions on rewards and promotion of the faculty must understand and accept the standards. In the same vein, the chair must be able to articulate to the faculty what will be acceptable to individuals on the other university levels so that the faculty will develop realistic and comprehensible guidelines and criteria.

A set of criteria does not necessarily insure that faculty will strive to meet them or feel they have been facilitated in meeting them. Ample opportunities exist in this regard for creative strategies to encourage improved instruction and participation in scholarship and service.

Encouraging Faculty Participation

Mature departments committed to those missions usually provide time in the faculty member's work assignment for scholarship and service. In the department moving toward maturity, depending upon the institution, scholarship and service may be required of faculty, but ample resources may not be available to support the mission.

Here is another opportunity for the creative leader. There is a professional responsibility to the faculty to help them meet performance criteria and to the university to maintain instructional productivity as well as the other faculty activities.

For some faculty, increased activity may be engendered if their contact hours in instruction can be reduced in favor of development, scholarship, or service activities. Industrial arts education programs usually have a substantial amount of laboratory hours required of faculty. The leader may be able to work out strategies to reduce the contact time in instruction without reducing quality. One device, for example, is to separate the lecture portion of a course from the laboratory portion where this is not already done. If there are multiple sections of a course, lecture sections may be combined, while laboratory sections may be taught separately. For a faculty member who has three such courses, two to four hours per week may be saved by such a combination.

Other strategies can use the preceding and call upon teaching fellows and assistants. The faculty member could receive credit for teaching large combined lectures and for supervision and oversight of the related laboratories handled by teaching assistants. For success, very much depends upon the ability of the faculty member to enter into a mentor relationship with graduate teaching assistants and doctoral fellows.

Graduate Fellows and Assistants: Legal Slaves

Almost always exploited, are they properly exploited in a positive way? The department leader needs to reflect upon and develop a philosophy to guide work with this unbelievably great resource.

In the personal experience of this observer, during the early days of extraordinary curriculum development and facilities design at Bowling Green State University, graduate fellows and assistants were placed into the instructional process with full responsibilities. They were assigned to work with faculty and the chair in curriculum development and conceptualization. They were not merely leg men or errand boys or research assistants. They played as full and equal roles with faculty as was possible given certain personality constraints and university restrictions. Knowing the level of expectation, assistants and fellows became highly motivated and achieved at levels which pleasantly surprised the faculty. In some instances, doctoral fellows and graduate assistants may have intimidated some faculty because it was virtually impossible to keep pace with their extraordinary vim, vigor, vitality, and energy, and with the volume and quality of products they produced.

This is natural and to be expected. These individuals are clearly self-selected, superior performers. They usually enroll in a university because of challenges and opportunities they have identified and seek. They want to prove themselves in their work. Consequently, they experience sleepless nights, long hours of research and writing, and meet their responsibilities in teaching and their studies. These individuals assume overloads in order to participate in the exciting developments from which they expect to learn and grow professionally.

The leader needs to reflect upon work with graduate fellows and assistants, and for that matter, younger faculty. If there is substance in the notion that we live eternally through our children and our children's children, then in the professional sense, our ideas, values, concepts, and style can be transmitted to live in the future by the way we work with students, but perhaps more importantly, with our graduate assistants and fellows.

The giving of one's self and all that means is probably manifested most extraordinarily in the work done with graduate assistants and fellows. When they know a person is forthcoming and available, they will be there. They will attempt to absorb every bit of knowledge and information from individuals who are available. They will consider and embrace such a person's style and values. Simply to be available to them is a small recompense that the leader of an academic unit can make to these future leaders for their valuable contributions.

Unfortunately, there are traditions and attitudes among faculty which militate against that sort of selfless giving. There are faculty who may not care to give too much of their time to graduate assistants and who make judgments that the time allocated in the specific half hour or hour meeting every other week or so ought to be sufficient. Some of these attitudes among faculty are consequences of the way they were taught and the way they were handled when they were graduate assistants. They are passing on their behavior in what to them is an appropriate manner. The leader may need to modify the behavior of these faculty who may have much to give. The way this can be done, of course, is first by modeling, and second by indicating, whenever possible, the manner by which the faculty can derive certain personal and professional benefits by giving a bit more of themselves.

Coffee Affects Your Vision

The leader may organize the department and delegate administrative functions to a small group of the faculty. They, with the chair, may constitute the prime department leadership. It may be assumed that all decisions and all influence emanate from this group and the decisions and positions taken by individuals in this group are theirs and theirs alone. Anyone who has worked in social institutions realized that the social overlay that exists in organizations has a powerful influence. The faculty member who is adept at "coffeeing" may not be at all visible in the administrative overlay of the unit. This individual is most visible through the opinions and influence in the policy development and implementation on a day-to-day basis through the social overlay.

Leaders must be aware that "coffee" can affect vision in other ways. Those who participate in the social group of the "coffee klatch" are likely not to look upon members of the group with the cold objectivity that they may apply to those outside the group. Thus, while a lot of creative and positive things may emerge from these informal meetings, and those things should be encouraged, the leader needs to be prepared to accommodate and adjust to the affects of the coffee upon the vision.

Communication Opportunities

Frustration and dissatisfaction among colleagues, peers, leaders, and subordinates occur from poor communication. The leader needs to develop a clear communication style. One needs to be aware of—keenly aware of—and sensitive to the communication and perceptual styles of others. The leader needs to be fairly accurate about how he or she is perceived. For example, if perceived as being a highly motivated and devious individual, who may say different things to different listeners, communication will be inhibited. Subordinates will listen with great skepticism and may not pay attention or grasp the essence of the message. For effective communication, the leader must also comprehend the background, interests, and communication styles of the listener.

One also should be aware of the social overlay (who does the listener coffee with) that exists, and, if possible, of the role the listener plays in that social overlay. Using this knowledge discreetly, the chair can be aware of what information the listener already possesses and even how it may have been reported to him. The leader can communicate in such a manner as to take advantage of the person's information or misinformation. In all of this, a style of openness, honesty, forthrightness, and consistency is necessary. It may not be so easy to achieve in all circumstances.

In cases where one must be critical of an individual, even if constructively critical, it is a challenge to be forthright. There are some procedures which can be helpful in this regard. For example, participation and information sharing should be encouraged. Faculty need to be aware of the standards expected of them and of accomplishments of colleagues. The forthright, open leader can then use the information which is equally available to all to specify shortcomings and suggest ways to redress them, of course, with discretion, sensitivity, and humaneness.

Consistency is equally important. Undoubtedly colleagues and peers will check with one another. How did the person in the leadership position say such and such to so and so? To have those checks come out consistently will facilitate considerably the leader's effectiveness in communicating with the entire group.

Communication and perception is of utmost importance in the leader-subordinate equation. In the less than mature department, and with younger faculty generally, the leader may not realize easily the role and expectations which may be projected on him or her. Certain faculty find comfort and security in the leader as an authority figure. They virtually *want* to hold the person in high esteem and attribute types of influence and political powers within the institution that often are unrealistic. A chair so perceived must weigh his or her advice and comments carefully. A casual constructive criticism could become an unintentional bombshell to the listener. Similarly, mixing a commendation with a suggestion for higher effort and productivity could be perceived as criticism with the commendation totally subverted. This is demonstrated in an actual occurrence involving a chair who was attempting to fulfill an objective to increase scholarly output of faculty. The faculty member misunderstood the complimenting and encouragement to build on his scholarly work as negative, and considered seeking another position.

The encouragement to produce scholarly products demonstrated caring rather than rejection in two respects: (a) the chair believed in the faculty member's capabilities, and (b) the chair and the senior faculty were satisfied with his progress so far and wanted to insure he would meet all tenure criteria. In other words, they cared. Fortunately, the chair was able to explain, months later, that the probationer was indeed appreciated and supported.

Seniority Prerequisites and More Important Obligations

It is necessary to examine faculty behavior at the rarified atmosphere of the tenured full professor. Possibly, the best way for the department leader to achieve appropriate behaviors is to be a model. The leader may not be able easily to cajole, urge, or to dangle extrinsic rewards before senior professors in order to encourage them to perform. Before he or she can develop strategies to motivate, the leader must be aware of certain predispositions which may occur among tenured professors. The "I've arrived and the institution cannot provide any more rewards" syndrome could result in the individual taking a long vacation or effective retirement at full pay.

Advanced degrees in education traditionally have come after professional experience in the public schools. Those who earn the doctorate in education are likely to be older than counterparts in other fields. For these reasons, doctoral degree granting programs and academic departments which hire their graduates must defend against the syndrome that "the doctorate is the capstone recognition one receives at the end of a career."

Each attainment, the doctorate, tenure, and promotion, must be recognized as opening new opportunities and responsibilities for higher levels of professional accomplishment. They are beginnings, not endings. Those who achieve full professorship must not come to feel that their efforts have been fulfilled and that there is no reason to continue to keep the nose to the grindstone in all dimensions of activity. The environment cannot allow them to stagnate. This can be a challenge, particularly if a university does not have a merit-award system or has one that yields exceptionally small increments each year.

To maintain contributions of all in the group, the leader may do something which may appear to infringe upon the freedom of the full professor. The leader can encourage the faculty to design a system to insure that the services of all faculty are equally available to the unit.

Such a system may include a department committee and services structure, an inventory of all possible assignments or elections at the department, college, or university levels, and a committee which assumes responsibility to monitor that all in the unit are reasonably occupied, but not overoccupied. The latter should insure that the overly zealous member will not become bogged down with such assignments and put the quality of his or her instruction and scholarship in jeapardy.

Such a system will assure that everyone contributes and participates in an equal manner, pitching in and sharing the overall load of service within the university. The system should be described in the unit's policy and procedures or charter instrument.

If a faculty member chooses not to share in the service obligation for good reason, the chair may accept this. There should be a clear and public reason which should be acceptable to the faculty. Increases in research productivity or instructional activity commensurate with the amount of time saved from the service component should likely attend such an accommodation. The important element of this policy is that the academic unit accepts the notion of everyone's responsibility and accountability to pitch in and contribute, including senior professors. The policy should be in writing and an appropriate committee of the faculty should be willing to accept the responsibility for monitoring the assignments. Naturally, it should be known to the faculty that their leader performs service at least equal to other leaders in the university.

Any evaluation system for merit reward and recognition should enhance and value the service activity in reasonable proportion to the other components of faculty activity. Peers should have an opportunity to know and evaluate the nature and quality of service. In this connection, chairs in immature departments, or in institutions whose mission does not emphasize scholarly activity, would be failing in their obligation if scholarship was discouraged. The obligation of the chair and the faculty is to the discipline and to the field which requires fresh ideas and creative thought for its vitality. Thus, it is appropriate to encourage habits of scholarship. For those who do develop those habits, professional development and growth opportunities will be available in professional organizations and in other positions in other institutions.

Some chairs may not appreciate that they may give someone "training" to move out. That prospect must be faced in a professional manner. It is unprofessional to deny opportunities for greater growth and development and subsequent contributions to the profession for the sake of keeping someone in a position. The chair must consider that (a) the reward and recognition system which responds to individuals who achieve in all dimensions of faculty activity needs to be effective enough to help "hold" high performing individuals, and (b) the reputation that a department is fostering and rewarding certain activities is likely to *attract* far more qualified individuals seeking such an environment than the department is likely to lose.

One way to encourage scholarly activity among those faculty who are firmly committed to instruction is to note that scholarly products could very easily be a natural outcome of one's instructional interests and work. If a staff member is doing thoughtful and creative instructional development for classes, research questions or creative or scholarly products will emerge as a natural consequence of that instruction. Faculty may rationalize that they are too busy with instruction and have little or no time for scholarship. The fact is that if individuals are indeed deeply engaged in instruction, there is flux, change, and opportunity for innovation and experiments with the content, methodology, and presentation of technology subjects. Such an approach and attitude is likely to yield products that deserve to be disseminated and shared with colleagues in the profession—scholarly products. Again, the leader must be a model and be able to point to his or her own work in that regard and be able to motivate and stimulate faculty by demonstrating appropriate strategies for accomplishing the ends.

Faculty may come away from their doctoral experience with the feeling that scholarship falls into a narrow domain of activity. It requires a particular organization, approach, procedure, and results in a specific product. There are other forms of creative and innovative activities which result in products other than refereed papers and may be accepted to meet scholarship criteria. The leader needs to communicate, with concrete examples, the types of activities and products which accrue from these activities and which will be accepted as scholarship in the institution. These may include the refereed publication, the college or secondary-school textbook, monographs, patented devices, media, and instructional systems. The general criteria that may be applied usually include dissemination and acceptance, after some sort of peer review, by a reasonably large segment of the profession. Depending upon the university, this can be done by testimony from colleagues in the field, by letters from editors, and documents of sales and reorders of certain items.

A Context for Personnel Actions

This author does not pretend to have mastered the complexities of the personnel actions suggested here. It would be more accurate to say that they have been *experienced* and that some cases and suggestions are based on successes and others on failures.

Many of the techniques and strategies could have been employed in a major effort that was imposed on an immature department which had just employed a new chair. It was charged to mobilize for mature behavior as an academic unit, and to explore new opportunities in curriculum. These charges were accompanied by a mandate to change from a semester to a quarter calendar. This could be regarded as an overwhelming problem. Regardless of whether the change was so initiated by faculty included in the decision, such a conversion requires an extraordinary amount of additional faculty time and effort. The simplest approach is what could be called the *status quo* strategy. This would see the leader decide, with faculty agreement, to make the simplest, most direct conversion. Essentially a mechanical arithmetic change, it would not require much creativity, inspiration, or work.

On the other hand, a conversion of this magnitude could be considered an excellent challenge rather than a problem. Thus, an opportunity strategy could be invoked. In this approach, the chair could serve the faculty by describing the conversion as an opportunity to:

1. Evaluate the content of the curriculum that is currently in place.
2. Evaluate the methods by which courses and other curricula experiences are delivered—the schedule of classes, number of hours and weeks in courses and field experiences, sequence of courses and experiences and specific instructional technologies.
3. Encourage faculty to evaluate their own schedules in fulfilling their academic responsibilities as instructors and scholars.
4. Within the context of the foregoing, encourage and challenge the faculty to achieve within the conversion,
    a. More relevant content and sequences of experiences,
    b. More effective instruction,
    c. Improved schedules of offerings for students, and
    d. Improved day, week, quarter, or semester schedule, which will provide meaningful blocks of time for planning, preparation, and development for instruction.

This is not necessarily as great as it may sound. Being human, the faculty is likely to react with skepticism to what appears to be a masterpiece of propaganda. Their experience will suggest that no solution could accomplish the benefits implied in the change.

The challenge to the leader is to encourage faculty to begin to study the matter, and, at least, to be aware that some benefits to them may materialize beyond those they currently enjoy. Perhaps a most effective motivator is knowledge of benefits derived by other faculty units who pursued a similar course of action. This reporter had the opportunity to apply the techniques of working with personnel that were described above. The calendar conversion was, in effect, a preorganizer for several major accomplishments. A sound schedule was provided in less than one year. In that year, and within the three or four years following, the department had:

1. An effective reconceptualization of the existing undergraduate curriculum.
2. A proposal for an entirely new undergraduate curriculum with a new degree designation.
3. A reconceptualized graduate curriculum.
4. An exemplary instructional facility designed around the modified and new curricula and to accommodate increased undergraduate and graduate enrollments.
5. A reduction in contact hours per week in instruction required of faculty.
6. A sharp increase in scholarly output from the faculty.

GUIDES TO ACTION

This final section shares some thoughts and ideas which have formed out of the author's personal experience. Perhaps they may be helpful to leaders and followers:

1. To become a fine leader and administrator, first look for a horrible example. You will then understand the opposite of the horrible example, which is likely to be a proper course of action.
2. On being a "fearless" leader:
    a. Beware of those who seek to compromise on questions of right and wrong and truth and justice. Such seekers usually have no stomach and perhaps no knowledge on which to base a firm position. A leader who frequently settles for half-truths, actions that are half-right or half-just will not enlist the gratitude or respect of those he leads.
    b. On the other hand, the leader who is known to take strong and consistent positions on matters of right and wrong and who uses the art of compromise in appropriate situations will have the support of his group.

3. The art of listening is perhaps the most difficult to master. It may be easy if you recall that someone listened to you on your way up, so LISTEN to that young squirt on his way up the ladder of success and to that senior faculty member who may appear to be retired at full pay. (Possibly he behaves that way because no one ever listened to him before!) They may have some good ideas that may save your job!
4. Representing your unit with vigor and strength is the epitome of enlightened self-interest. Your colleagues can easily discern when you carry your personal interests on your sleeve. Perhaps all leaders should remember Hillel's (in Goldin, 1962) observation "If I am not for myself, who is for me? And being only for myself, what am I? And if not now, when?" It is difficult to surpass the profoundness and earnestness of such a saying. Its essential meaning must be left to the reader. While there is so much more in these eloquent lines, they remind us of the life duties which are applicable to leadership behavior—of self-preservation, self-cultivation—and at the same time warn us against being self-centered and selfish and against procrastination (p. 12).
5. People love responsibility. The term used by the industrial efficiency experts of a quarter century ago was job enlargement. An example explains. Odds are in favor that morale will be higher, higher levels of productivity will be achieved if the administrator attempts to broaden responsibilities. An analysis of office tasks will invariably allow tasks like typing, filing, corresponding, telephoning, data gathering for reports, record keeping, duplicating to be divided such that each worker can develop a responsibility for projects which require several of these tasks. Boredom is lowered, interests and heightened.
6. Faith and trust in youth. Do not succumb to the false security that years of experience or a certain chronological age are prerequisites for particular tasks or responsibilities in preference to knowledge, competency and motivation. The latter should be the determinants.
7. The leader who expects to be thanked or to elicit special actions in his support for recommending a merit increase for someone's salary or a promotion is operating on an improper premise. First, most competent, self-confident faculty will assume that any such action taken in their behalf is deserved. Obtaining the chair's recognition, they believe,

does not constitute a special effort on his part, it is merely part of the job.

8. Should a special effort be required of a faculty member, don't enter into an "I'll do this for you if you do such and so for me" agreement. Such "deals" may compromise objectivity, consistency, and forthrightness. It simply may be impossible to make similar "deals" with each faculty member. Thus, lack of even-handedness will be perceived. More importantly the chair may not be able to deliver on a promise.
9. Honor and cherish your secretaries. Give them responsibilities. Have high expectations for them. Diversify their jobs and reduce boredom. The chair must be able to have implicit trust in his secretary who is likely to represent him in more instances than any colleague.

   As he or she should do with faculty, but more so with staff, the chair must express confidence and appreciation for the performance of the department secretaries and other staff support personnel. It is possible that a good measure of the success that administrators achieve is due to having placed their lives and sacred trust in their secretaries' hands.
10. Understanding comes from the open expression of skepticism through a process of debate and of analysis. An incentive must prevail to dig into old assumptions and ask hard questions as well as a sufficient level of trust so that individuals will speak candidly to peers, subordinates, and superiors.
11. Trust comes from understanding that fundamentally compatible goals are shared, a more effective working relationship is desired, and that no one desires to harm another.
12. Invite criticism and accept it. Attempt to measure the sincerity and earnestness with which it is given for a friend or true support will argue with you and the yes-man is likely not to have the best interests of the group at heart.

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Chapter 10

Achieving Appropriate Faculty Personnel Actions: A University Perspective

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The practices associated with faculty employment, whether being appointment, tenure, promotion or one of the other decision-based points, have long been an integral aspect of higher education. The guiding principle that faculty members serve as the greatest university resource has remained at the apex of quality instruction and institutional stature. As one reflects over the last two and a half decades, however, it is clear that major changes have occurred in terms of faculty personnel actions. For the most part the same organizational structures are in place, but new points of emphasis and internal and external influences have emerged with a clear dominance over the practices of the past. For example, while the granting of tenure always has been the most significant academic action a university can take, the past suggests that initial employment was, in fact, the most crucial of all faculty-related decisions. From that point, tenure and promotion seemed to flow on a regular, routine basis. This is not to suggest that rigor was not associated with these decisions, but the prevailing attitude was that subsequent actions would occur naturally. In most cases, faculty members did receive tenure and were promoted.

FACULTY PERSONNEL ACTIONS IN HIGHER EDUCATION

While generalizations are often dangerous and sometimes faulty when applied on an individual basis, it is important that faculty members and administrators recognize new trends and understand how they have evolved. Without such insights, it is unlikely that individuals, whether they be in industrial education or any other discipline, will be successful in attaining their career aspirations.

As a prefatory note, it should be pointed out that these new initiatives in faculty personnel actions are not administratively based. While many may perceive these shifts as an adversarial administrative/faculty relationship, the trends clearly reveal that administrators and faculty members, alike, have been swept up by a series of internal and external forces at work in higher education. This phenomenon has not occurred overnight; it has its roots in the fabric of our society and impinges on every segment of higher education. The briefly stated points which follow suggest the magnitude of these influences.

Turmoil of the Sixties

The 1960s have been characterized as a period of student dissent and unrest. Little has been written, however, about the extent to which this mood prevailed throughout higher education. The philosophical validity of the scientific method and objectivity of academic inquiry began to be questioned. Faculty members were surprised to learn of the antagonistic views of their colleagues. Questions were raised about governance structures, quality of life, and curricular approaches. Like most other disciplines, leaders in industrial education openly criticized traditional approaches and suggested new curricula based on technology, contemporary industry, occupations, and other interdisciplinary combinations. Innovation and change became a common hallmark of the discipline.

Professional Stature and Perceptions of the Seventies

The 1970s revealed an extension of the "real life" perception to bread-and-butter issues. The idealistic view of faculty members being self-sacrificing, unfaltering, and benevolent came under attack. Collective bargaining and unionization brought new questions. Unclear procedures were exposed and accepted practices were open to criticism and interpretation. Faculty salaries became an open issue of debate as did differentials among men, women, and minorities. For industrial educators, the issues impacting personnel actions were compounded by such questions as: How does industrial arts interface with vocational education? Is the discipline losing its identity and where is it going?

Faculty Rights and Responsibilities. Another paralleling force that emerged was directly related to the expanded roles and responsibilities of the faculty. With the growing attention on faculty rights came a new set of responsibilities. Industrial educators were called upon to exercise greater leadership outside their departments, thereby lessening their singular focus to the profession. Implicit in the concept of collegiality was accountability. Not only were there new time commitments, but emphasis was placed on making sound professional judgments about colleagues. "Tough" decisions were forced at all levels, and the need for data, information, and evidence became commonplace. These new dimensions compounded already perceived weaknesses in the discipline by calling for even more substantial qualitative and quantitative data bases. The "buddy system" began to erode and the possibility of conflict situations arose at all levels. Here again formal affirmative-action procedures and related policies placed new burdens on leaders in the field.

Legalist Environment. As these factors began to impact on higher education, the entire area of faculty personnel actions was compounded by a societal thrust to view more and more issues from a legal perspective. While higher education, in general, attempted to avoid this trend, the last decade witnessed marked increases in legal actions. Following precise procedures, ensuring individual rights, and facing the possibility of being directly involved in a legal situation became the norm. In fact, many felt at one point or another, every action would be open for legal questioning. Like other professionals, industrial educators were placed into a position of double jeopardy—exercise greater accountability, and, at the same time, ensure complete openness and consistency. Obviously, this entire tone placed new burdens, responsibilities, and frustrations on personnel throughout higher education.

Resource Deterioration. If it weren't enough to be faced with changes in perceptions, attitudes, and responsibilities, higher education personnel also had to deal with a new set of problems; namely, budget curtailments, enrollment declines, staff reallocations and reductions, and job-market deteriorations. These trends and forces at work in higher education vividly illustrate the present state of flux. Some view these changing circumstances with great pessimism and alarm, while others see them as a time of challenge and opportunity. By approaching the crisis as an opportunity, individuals in industrial education can continue to demonstrate their leadership roles.

This challenge may be met in one of two ways. First, as leaders in higher education, industrial educators can play an instrumental role in shaping and defining policies and procedures that evolve over the next several years. While the short-term impact of these efforts may not be felt immediately, the long-range implications will have a lasting effect on the profession. Second, individuals in industrial education need to take an inward look at standards and procedures used within the discipline. Here, both short-term and long-range benefits may be derived by the employment, promotion and tenuring of quality professionals. Whether individuals are involved in the shaping of processes or shaping their own career patterns, there is a clear need to understand the major types of personnel actions, prevailing university-wide perspectives, faculty roles and responsibilities, and means of presenting one's candidacy.

UNIVERSITY-WIDE FACULTY PERSONNEL ACTIONS

Faculty personnel actions are almost universal in nature. They exist at the largest as well as the smallest campus in this country and around the globe. All actions tend to stem from the basic philosophy of academic freedom. All actions tend to be reviewed in terms of the academic freedom of the faculty member. The American Association of University Professors (AAUP) in 1940 published its landmark "Statement of Principles on Academic Freedom and Tenure," which still serves as the basic guide for most personnel actions.

For the purpose of this text, the personnel actions to be discussed are appointment, promotion, tenure, professional development, and dismissal/retrenchment. Perhaps the most important leadership activity in industrial education occurs at the time of selection prior to the appointment. If the individual is selected with great care, the profession will benefit and the remaining points will, for the most part, take care of themselves.

Appointment

An appointment is the initial process of selection which brings a prospective faculty member into a contractual arrangement with an institution of higher education, typically flowing from the department chairperson and dean to the upper administration. The prospective faculty member negotiates with the institution for rank, salary, and credit from previous experiences as the two parties seek to come to agreement. Salary most often is determined by degree held, the rank assigned, the years of previous creditable experience, and other items such as national leadership prominence or judged expertise.

From the faculty member's perspective, this is a critical point in time, for once established, base salaries are typically difficult to change. Of equal significance to industrial educators is the comparative relationship between salaries offered within the discipline as compared to other disciplines in the university. This is an area which requires strong leadership from individuals in industrial education. In most cases, salaries for industrial educators are established at a rate considerably above other faculty members across the campus. Various approaches are utilized to justify these variations. For example, industrial experiences may be weighted more heavily than teaching experience. A market factor of $1,000 or $2,000 may be used. Credit may be awarded for vocational certification. Other formulas or stipends also may be used. Institutions that have failed to adopt approaches of this type have experienced significant faculty recruitment and retention problems.

Promotion

Promotion is the academic process by which faculty members are given advanced rank, and usually salary increases, for their demonstrated abilities in the areas of teaching, scholarly activity, and public service. Most institutions have requirements in the area of educational preparation (doctorate or approved terminal degree), time in the present rank (minimum number of years to be eligible), and number of years as a full-time faculty member at the institution. Promotion is the natural step in the higher-education career ladder of a faculty member.

The promotion process on most campuses follows the same review and evaluation format as appointment or tenure. On some campuses, one must be tenured before being promoted while on others promotion is possible prior to tenure consideration. In still other cases, promotion to associate professor and tenure decisions are made at the same time. Specific implications of the promotion process are detailed later.

Tenure

Tenure is an agreement between individual faculty members and an institution of higher education which guarantees the faculty member continued employment until retirement due to physical disability or age limitations. The faculty member may be dismissed from tenure status by the demonstration of adequate cause, financial exigency, or a major change in an academic program for which the faculty member does not have the expertise. Adequate cause typically refers to demonstrated incompetence or dishonest behaviors in conduct which prohibits the individual from fulfilling a responsibility to the institution.

Professional Development

As with many professions, the maintenance, development, and improvement of professional skills are the responsibility of the faculty member. Many institutions attempt to stimulate the faculty member to strive continually to improve in the areas of teaching, research, and service. Some institutions provide resources to support faculty development on an individual, departmental, college, and/or university-wide basis. There is no uniform structure for this type of activity. Sabbatical leaves or leaves with pay and even leaves without pay are incentives for individual faculty for skill development in the faculty member's own discipline. Activities need to be ongoing to stimulate the faculty member to improve performance with better teaching and more research as well as increasing quality service to the institution, the community, or the profession.

In most disciplines, professional development opportunities tend to be focused on advanced study, research, travel, and other traditionally accepted forms of professional enhancement. While these modes of enrichment are used extensively by industrial educators, the field has moved rapidly toward other forms of professional advancement. For example, exchange programs with industry have become commonplace. Structured employment and training programs are in place. Industrial training institutes and seminars frequently are utilized. Programs of this type are essential if industrial educators are to retain the technological competencies needed to prepare individuals for the future.

Dismissal/Retrenchment

Dismissal may occur during a term appointment or while a faculty member holds tenure. In the case of dismissal, the services of the faculty member are terminated by the institution showing adequate cause. Dismissal is different from non-reappointment and nonrenewal. These terms often are used interchangeably and often are misunderstood. The major distinction between dismissal and non-reappointment is that dismissal must show cause for the termination. Non-reappointment involves the application of relevant criteria through an open process which leads to a decision that is not in the best interest of the university to continue the appointment.

Retrenchment, another form of dismissal, usually occurs when an institution is forced to reduce programs, eliminate or curtail the appointment of new faculty, or not reappoint faculty. Retrenchment usually occurs under the broad category of financial exigency. In the case of financial exigency, institutions may be forced to make reductions in faculty positions by cancelling term contracts prior to their proposed termination dates and, in severe cases, even terminating those people who have tenured appointments. Financial exigency and changes in academic programs are perhaps two of the most common reasons for termination of tenured faculty.

The thought of program discontinuance is, for all practical purposes, a new thrust in higher education. It brings with it a new set of issues, frustrations, and concerns. Most institutions have developed procedures to deal with this question, but the most significant activity in this process is to develop respect and viability on campus so the question is never raised. In most cases, industrial education is in a unique position in this regard. The need for industrial arts teachers, technicians, technologists, and other industrially related personnel is obvious. Departments, however, cannot afford to assume that this position will have wide acceptance across campus. Concerns for program cost and quality may be of such significant magnitude as to raise the question. It is essential that industrial educators not take this potentiality lightly. Programs must be strong. Leadership must be present. Employment trends and new directions must flow across campus. Colleagues throughout the campus must understand the program. Industrial ties must be strong. Advisory committees must be commonplace and active.

PERSPECTIVES ON UNIVERSITY-WIDE ACTIONS

The preceding section presented a summary of the major types of faculty personnel actions commonly encountered in industrial education. Operational comments cannot be presented on all of these; therefore, the sections that follow will utilize tenure and promotion deliberations to illustrate significant points of reference for industrial educators. Recommendations made in these regards typically draw heavy involvement from sources outside the department and/or college and, for the most part, suggest insights that may be applied to the other decision-based actions. It must be emphasized that the collected insights are perceptions. In no way are they presented to suggest that individuals conscientiously take actions that are deliberately aimed to discriminate against a particular segment of the university. Individuals charged with these responsibilities attempt to make the best decisions possible. In fact, most administrators would suggest that there is nothing more positive than to be able to support a recommendation that comes forward in a well-documented manner.

It is difficult to suggest that there is a common set of perceptions held by individuals throughout higher education or in the industrial education profession. This case will not be made. It may be assumed, however, that individual personalities and historical precedents at a particular university may weigh heavily on the successful candidacy of an individual faculty member. One cannot ignore actions of the past, nor can one suggest that one's candidacy is viewed in isolation regardless of the discipline or the stature of the department. All individuals and units in the university must face these realities. Each has its own assets and liabilities. Industrial educators must approach these issues in the same manner as colleagues throughout the structure.

Understanding the System

One of the most critical areas, in terms of being considered for a university-wide faculty personnel action, is that of understanding the system. One need not be an expert in every phase of the promotion process; for example, it is not uncommon for an individual to receive a negative reaction for the simple reason that the submitted credentials did not reflect the standards delineated in the process.

Generally, industrial educators have a firm grasp of the overall process. Many individuals, however, commonly come under attack because their personnel papers seem narrow, vocationally oriented, and lack specific implications as to how the individual's candidacy supports institutional goals. It must be remembered, the vast majority of individuals in the review process have little or no understanding of the profession and the competencies required to provide the needed instruction and leadership. This deficiency in higher education must be recognized and addressed by industrial educators.

Some basic questions that an individual may ask as the materials are being organized include: To what extent do the materials reflect the goals of the department, college, and university? Have each of the criterion areas been adequately covered? Have all procedures, steps, and/or guides been followed? Has adequate evidence of quality been presented or is there simply a listing of activities? Can individuals not familiar with the discipline understand the importance of the achievements? Are the entries clear, concise, and self-contained? Are there duplicate entries that may give the appearance of "padding?" Is there an abundance of trivia and non-important activities? Have outstanding achievements been properly emphasized? Have those criterion areas extremely important to the university been addressed in a manner reflective of their significance?

Guiding Principles

As one prepares or reviews tenure and promotion materials, consideration must be given to common principles and definitions that influence these deliberative processes. Without much difficulty, one can assume the basic tenets of due process, fairness, consistent application of standards, and maintenance of academic quality. The goal throughout these processes is to make conscious, explicit recommendations reflective of the quality and rigor expected within the profession and the institution. Obviously an individual may take issue with the judgments, but these expectations permeate the academic sector.

There are several guiding principles that shape all tenure and promotion decisions. While institutions vary in how these principles are described, most institutions include essentially the same philosophical base. First, tenure decisions are based on two concurrent assumptions—the needs of the institution and the promise of the individual. In most cases, academic units make a strong case regarding the promise of the individual. A common shortcoming, however, rests in the areas of need.

As suggested earlier, industrial educators and their departmental colleagues have an ongoing responsibility to demonstrate the viability of the program and its integral relationship to the mission of the institution.

Regardless of the promise of the individual, for example, is there a need for an individual with these competencies? Is this the best person available? Will a person with these abilities be needed a decade from now? Are enrollment projections sufficient to suggest a long-term commitment? Without answers to questions of this type, the academic unit thrusts the likelihood of a positive endorsement on individuals further removed from the point of initial input. Second, in terms of promotion, consideration must focus attention on the degree to which an individual has demonstrated excellence and is deserving of the professional recognition commensurate with the promotion level. Here, the case must be presented, with increasing rigor as one moves up the ranks, that the individual has demonstrated significant achievement. This is more than being in rank for a specified time frame. It is more than doing what is expected. It is more than being slightly above average. Typically, evidence must be submitted which exemplifies excellence as viewed by both internal and external contingencies.

Varying Perceptions

One of the most frustrating areas in faculty personnel actions comes from differing perceptions. Many of these evolve out of the varying discipline-orientations as represented by individuals in the review process. Commonly, individuals attempt to apply their own standards and forget the uniqueness of the department and the individual candidate. This also is compounded sometimes by the fact that some individuals at upper administrative levels are the furthest removed from the departmentally based, initial recommending source.

Individuals from each academic unit also must face a set of perceptions common to the discipline. These, of course, vary discipline by discipline and institution by institution, but they cannot be ignored. Whether true or not, some of the liabilities and attitudes commonly encountered by industrial educators include the following: (a) That they sometimes represent narrow views and lack university-wide perspectives, (b) That they often do not research, publish, or produce scholarly papers on a par with other disciplines, (c) That there is little room for such vocationalism in a university, (d) That administrators seldom have a full, complete knowledge and/or an appreciation of the discipline, (e) That the department is weak and lacks stature within the university, and (f) That review committees are commonly dominated by individuals from the humanities and sciences. Individuals must continually assess these and other areas to determine their applicability to the specific setting.

INDIVIDUAL AND DEPARTMENT RESPONSIBILITIES

Within the framework of all higher-education institutions lie the roles and responsibilities of the individual and the academic unit. In summary form, these roles and responsibilities are explored in terms of teaching, professional growth, and service at two levels: the individual faculty member and the obligation of the academic department.

The Individual Industrial Educator

For most faculty personnel decisions, the initiation of the appropriate action or the candidacy starts with the individual faculty member either by self nomination or scheduled candidacy basis. The individual, with department or even college/university-wide criteria, develops the resumé, record of service, or personnel action forms which are appropriate to the action consideration being sought. The individual usually prepares these documents and includes or excludes pertinent information appropriate to the action under consideration.

Here, again, the industrial educator must demonstrate individual strength and specific quality factors. In most cases, a simple listing of items and accomplishments will not suffice. Emphasis must be placed on educating individuals outside the department. This is not a selling process; rather, it is an educational process.

Information is usually presented in a reverse chronological sequence from the present to the past depending upon the format provided. All information is expected to be complete, accurate, and verifiable. Care should be exercised by the individual to avoid duplication (i.e. listing a convention paper presentation and also a published article in convention or organizational proceedings). This is commonly referred to as "double dipping." Likewise, trivia can often detract from the documents (i.e. the listing of honors received in high school or items not professionally related). It is the responsibility of the individual to ensure that the materials provided are clear to all readers and that all room for misinterpretation has been removed. Errors made by commission or omission in the preparation of the documents can call into question other standard entries. Personnel-action documents should be objectively presented so the professional judgments can be based on professional criteria and not on personalities or personal competitive advantages.

The Industrial Educator's Department

The academic department is usually the first place in the educational hierarchy where a recommendation or professional judgment regarding an individual faculty member is initiated. The extent of involvement and level or importance of the department varies from campus to campus. This recommendation is the most critical of all since it is done by peers who share the professional life of the individual faculty member being considered. Where there is a difference of opinion between the advisory committee and the chairperson, it is an automatic warning to subsequent individuals reviewing the personnel documents that fulfillment of the criteria is in question.

One of the most important areas to be considered in the review of a candidate is the degree to which the department has exercised sound professional judgments. As already suggested, the stature of the department chairperson and the department present a context in which all candidates are reviewed. Similarly, the rigor and clearness represented in the decision-making process can enhance the position of the candidate. The outline which follows illustrates the type of evidence and the standards in professional growth as utilized in the Department of Industrial Technology and Education at Southeast Missouri State University. Sections on teaching effectiveness and service to the university also are included in the departmental document. When the candidate's credentials are reviewed in this context, individuals throughout the university are provided with a common set of standards.

EVIDENCE OF PROFESSIONAL GROWTH

Evaluative Data

A. Publications (including bibliographical information, a copy of the material, and information concerning status of publication—juried, circulation, national/regional scope)
  1. Articles
  2. Books
  3. Reviews
  4. Work in progress

B. Leadership in professional organizations

C. Professional presentations, including lectures, seminars, workshops, presentation of papers

D. Research, including development of grant proposals and receipt of a research grant

E. Advanced study

F. Professional consulting

G. Attendance at meetings of professional organizations

H. Attendance at lectures, seminars, workshops, etc.

I. Related professional travel

Performance Level

Outstanding: A sustained record of professional growth, including both A and B.

A. Significant achievement in at least three of the following:
  1. Publications
  2. Leadership in professional organizations
  3. Professional presentations
  4. Research

B. Significant involvement in at least three of the following:
  1. Advanced study
  2. Professional consulting
  3. Attendance at professional organization meetings
  4. Attendance at lectures, seminars, or workshops
  5. Related professional travel

Superior: A sustained record of professional growth, including both A and B.

- A. Significant achievement in at least two of the following:
    1. Publications
    2. Leadership in professional organizations
    3. Professional presentations
    4. Research
- B. Significant involvement in at least three of the following:
    1. Advanced study
    2. Professional consulting
    3. Attendance at professional organization meetings
    4. Attendance at lectures, seminars, or workshops
    5. Related professional travel

GOOD: A sustained record of professional growth, including both A and B.

- A. Significant achievement in at least one of the following:
    1. Publications
    2. Leadership in professional organizations
    3. Professional presentations
    4. Research
- B. Significant involvement in at least three of the following:
    1. Advanced study
    2. Professional consulting
    3. Attendance at professional organization meetings
    4. Attendance at lectures, seminars, or workshops
    5. Related professional travel

UNACCEPTABLE: Insufficient evidence of professional growth as outlined above.

DOCUMENTATION AND ORGANIZATION OF THE EVIDENCE

From the foregoing, it is obvious that the documentation presented by the faculty member forms the substantial basis for review and consideration. Thorough documentation enables a department to make a judgment on sound evidence and greatly enhances individual prospects on the college and university levels. Conversely, inadequate documentation can reduce seriously the possibility of a favorable recommendation, even though the performance of the faculty member may warrant it.

As the industrial educator prepares materials for action at the university level, three major points of reference must remain foremost. First, quality must be abundantly clear. This is more than simply listing accomplishments. Importance must be demonstrated, for most individuals involved in the review process will not be knowledgeable about the points of reference in the discipline. Second, the types of evidence provided must represent a derived data base as illustrated below. In most cases, heavy reliance on one accomplishment will not achieve the desired results. Third, the candidate must address effectively the campus community. Outside influences and misconceptions of the profession must be presented in a positive, low-key manner. This educational process must prevail.

To assist in this process, the following guides are provided under the three commonly accepted areas of teaching effectiveness, professional growth, and service to the university.

Evidence of Teaching Effectiveness

In most review cycles, none of the criteria are more important than that of teaching effectiveness. The faculty member, recognizing the inevitable range of opinion with respect to teaching effectiveness, should include all evidence accumulated as part of the review. Submission of partial data from student ratings, for example, may be more detrimental than helpful. The complexity of this area suggests the collection of data from a variety of sources such as:

1. Course planning activities play an important role in subsequent classroom activities; for example, syllabi and course outlines, bibliographies, methods for testing and evaluation, texts, and assignments required of students may be used to demonstrate the quality of the planning process as it relates to teaching. Such insights may suggest the degree of sophistication in the entire learning process.
2. Classroom and laboratory activities form another measure of teaching effectiveness; for example, student and peer evaluations of actual performance, peer evaluation of effectiveness of educational approaches, and the quality of faculty-student interaction are areas in which documentation could be provided. This information may be collected from observations by students, peers, and the department chairperson. (Instruments used and sampling or population information also may be helpful.)
3. Analysis of team-teaching situations, video-taped presentations, or group interactions also may be helpful.

4. Academic performance of students is another factor which may be considered in making judgments concerning teaching effectiveness. This might include such factors as appraisal of student development, evidence of students' ability to perform in subsequent sequence courses, demonstrable competencies, special student awards of recognition, as well as placement and follow-up studies.
5. Flexibility demonstrated in the teaching/learning process also may be used to substantiate the recommendation. In this respect, a faculty member may call attention to the extent of course revisions made, how objectives were met, and/or personal assessment mechanisms developed.
6. Other systematic reviews of instructional strategies appropriate to industrial education also may be helpful in adjudicating teaching effectiveness.

Evidence of Professional Growth

Documentation of activities in this area is essential if this criterion is to receive the high priority it deserves. The approaches used to provide evidence may vary widely, but the common goal is to provide evidence of scholarly or creative activity within the wider forum than the particular classroom or laboratory. Providing evidence of scholarly or creative activity makes possible the judgment of peers within the discipline. Quantification of such activities is difficult and sheer volume of them is not the sole or primary evaluative measure. Typical items of support would include the following:

1. Books, articles, and reviews are common forms used to demonstrate scholarly activity. Complete bibliographic information and copies of the material, augumented by reviewer comments when available, are helpful. Some indication of the stature of the publication (refereed, circulation, national/regional scope) may provide assistance in judging the scholarly activity of the candidate.
2. Documented innovations in pedagogy that have had an effect upon the teaching within a subject area may be important.
3. Presentations, lectures, and speeches provide another source of information. Here, again, information about the organization may be helpful in terms of understanding the importance of the activities.
4. Advanced study and other forms of professional development may provide additional basis for judgment. For example, special participation in national workshops or programs, imaginative development of learning experiences, comments made

by national leaders, advanced course work, and personal evaluations of new pedagogical methods may add another perspective.

5. Leadership in professional associations such as AIAA, ACIATE, NAITTE, or AVA may be demonstrated by such factors as the offices held, a description of the responsibilities, an indication of the size of the organization, the selection process for the position, and the type of association in which the leadership was demonstrated.
6. The importance of conducting workshops, consulting, and judging may be revealed by the significance of the activities, their resulting effect, the level or stature of the group being served, and requests for repeated performances.

Evidence of Service to the University

This criterion plays an important role in the review process. Under this broad heading, high priority is given to service to students through formal and informal contacts as academic advisors and counselors. The area also embraces participation in committees on the department, college, and university levels, as well as various professional roles in the community at large. In developing documentation, individuals may present various forms of evidence such as the following:

1. Assignment and performance of academic advisement to students may reveal important services to the institution.
2. Involvement with students outside the classroom, supported by such evidence as participation in club activities, may be used for support.
3. Committee participation at the departmental, college, and university levels is an essential component of university life. Documentation in this area may be provided through the use of peer and committee chairperson's evaluations of the effectiveness of the role performed, descriptions of the responsibilities and their impacts, identification of committee work, and the types of leadership performed.
4. Contributions to the broader university community may be illustrated through peer, chairperson, and administrative letters of support, notation of special performances and/or presentations, and special recognition or awards received.
5. Involvement in off-campus activities may be demonstrated by evidence of activities in continuing education or other outside agencies and institutions.

6. Evidence may be presented which indicates significant discipline-oriented professional service to the community at large through the identification of the groups served and the level of activity provided.

SUMMARY

Achieving appropriate faculty personnel actions is one of the most critical leadership functions assumed by all professionals in industrial education. While the essential structures are intact for this recommendatory/decision-making process, substantial forces are at work to change the basic points of reference. Internal and external influences have had a significant impact on these processes. Strong emphasis is now placed on qualitative factors, precision in following procedural steps, and documentation of evidence in all higher-education positions.

The challenges to industrial education leaders are clear. There is a need to become involved actively in shaping the evolving processes. There is a need to understand thoroughly the inherent processes in the college and university structure. There is a need to understand various perceptions and to shape these in a manner consistent with our professional obligations. There is a need to make firm recommendations reflective of the high professional standards evidenced within the discipline. There is, finally, a need to provide strong documentation of individual performances to ensure positive actions. The destiny of faculty personnel actions, as related to industrial education leadership, rests with the profession itself. Strong candidates will receive positive recommendations.

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Chapter 11

Gaining and Maintaining Professionalism

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The problem of securing and retaining competent, dedicated teachers and leaders to staff industrial arts teaching positions perhaps remains the greatest challenge currently facing our field of study at all levels. The quality found in teachers is directly related to the professionalism exhibited by teachers in all fields of education. The meaning teachers assign their job aids in distinguishing the professional from the nonprofessional. This chapter will discuss professionalism pertaining to industrial arts teachers and leaders as they gain and maintain their professional role.

PROFESSIONALISM DEFINED

What is a professional? A general definition found when consulting Webster's dictionary (1971) revealed that the following is a professional:

1. One whose occupation requires a high level of training and proficiency.
2. One who is concerned or occupied with the training of professionals.
3. One who is characterized by or conforms to the technical or ethical standards of a profession or an occupation.
4. One who is engaged in a calling.

The determination of the characteristics needed by professionals relates directly to their occupational functions. Since the functions of teachers give rise to considerable debate, it becomes likely that disagreement will be found about the characteristics required of competent teachers. To suggest that various professions require different characteristics is, of course, obvious. Rather than describe those traits for teachers, it might be better to first determine if there are any required of all professions.

CHARACTERISTICS OF A PROFESSION

The list of professional characteristics as described by Ryan and Cooper (1975) are reported as a starting point for this discussion:

1. A profession renders a unique and necessary social service. Only the people in the particular profession provide the service. For example, only medical doctors prescribe medicine. The service must be considered so important that it is available to everyone.
2. A profession requires intellectual skills to perform its service. This does not exclude physical actions and skills. Rather, the main emphasis for performing in a profession is upon intellectual skills and techniques.
3. A profession requires an extended period of specialized training. Since intellectual skills are essential to a professional, specialized intellectual training is needed. The general-education courses required as part of a teaching degree are only a portion of the formalized education. The specialized training requires a substantial period of time and is not obtained in cram courses or by completing a majority of the course work through correspondence.
4. The professional group and its members enjoy a considerable degree of autonomy and decision-making authority. While factory workers make few work-related decisions and are closely supervised, professionals are expected to make most of their own decisions and to be free of close supervision by superiors. Further, professional groups regulate their activity, set their own policies, and enforce adherence to standards.
5. Personal responsibility for the actions and decisions of its members is required within a profession. Besides having a high degree of freedom and autonomy, the professional must accept responsibility for the performance of its members. Because service is usually related to human welfare, this responsibility is a serious one.

6. A profession emphasizes the services offered by its practitioners more than financial rewards. Personal motives of professionals are not necessarily higher than other workers'; however, the professional group's public emphasis is on service.
7. A profession is self-governing and responsible for policing its own ranks. Professional groups sponsor and promote activities aimed at keeping the quality of their services high while caring for the social and economic well-being of the membership. These groups also set standards of admission and exclusion for the profession.
8. A profession has a code of ethics which sets standards of conduct for its members. Since a professional group regulates the quality and standards of service, it needs a code of ethics to aid it in enforcing its standards.

Farquhar (1978) explained the main characteristics sociologists use to describe a profession are the following:

1. The public perceives the service being rendered as vital; concerned with life and death of individuals in society.
2. The service rendered is based upon intellectual techniques; requires the application of cognitive skills such as thinking, problem solving, and decision making along with physical labor in some instances.
3. Prestige and social acceptance are of a high level; superior status is automatic regardless of individual success.
4. Broad range of autonomy is characteristic; position affords a great deal of freedom in specifying work, controlling working conditions, and determining clients. Rather than being salaried the individual sets a fee for services and normally will have many individual clients rather than a group of clients such as a class.
5. Provides a unique, essential social service that is distinct from services provided by other occupations.

Professionalism, sociologically, includes three areas: Competence, autonomy, and service. Individuals who occupy professional roles generally reflect the following characteristics according to Farquhar (1978):

Competence

1. Individuals acknowledge and share a high level of expertise which includes a common body of knowledge, skill, and language with which there is agreement.

2. Preparation for the professional role includes a high level of formal education, selective entry at the point of entrance to training, and commonly shared ordeals in completing professional preparation.
3. A professional looks at his chosen occupation as his life's work, has struggled to attain it, has likely deferred gratification while preparing for the occupation, is totally committed to that occupation, does not seek activities that compete with it, frequently engages in in-service education opportunities, and strives to make contributions to support his profession by speaking or writing activities for intrinsic rewards.

Autonomy

Accepts personal responsibility for his judgments and acts with professional autonomy; is not supervised directly and is accountable to his clients alone.

Service

Motivation of the professional is because of an emphasis upon a service to be rendered rather than the income or status to be gained. The Hippocratic Oath taken by a doctor is an example of this characteristic. This is, of course, an ideal to which all members of a profession will not adhere.

TEACHING AS A PROFESSION

Professions are characterized according to the selectivity by which prospective professionals are admitted to the ranks. The assessment of the needed characteristics required to succeed in a profession is very important when studying a profession. To apply definitive generalizations to teaching as a career becomes difficult when so many thousands appear to defy saying something definitive about all teachers. Yet, it is necessary to deal with the realization that so many have chosen to become educators.

Farquhar (1978) suggested that a teaching profession falls short on a number of key characteristics, namely, autonomy, self control, depth of commitment and career orientation, and status.

Whether teaching should be considered a profession was reviewed by Howsam (1976) who pointed out that teaching does fall short of meeting recognized criteria normally found in mature professions. There are a great number of competent, skilled individual teachers, but the teaching profession seems to have no common knowledge base or repertoire of "professional" behaviors and skills.

Comparing the lower salaries of teachers with other professionals tends to support the idea that teachers may be motivated by the need to serve others. However, there is the belief that while teachers serve, they also tend to "bail out" of education in times of prosperity, to hire into more lucrative positions, but remain steadfast during periods of economic slump. Typically, teachers also gravitate toward urban centers where salaries and working conditions are expected to be better. They leave behind the rural area where greater needs may be served but where increased economic rewards are not to be realized. This pattern of behavior appears to conflict with the altruistic motive.

To reject the altruistic notion further, we may look to the social strata from which a majority of teachers have come. The author has observed that a large segment of the teaching population has been reared in blue-collar families. It is possible to conclude that this group selected teaching "to get ahead in the world." Many of these individuals have been a part of the upper middle and lower middle classes of our society. Thus, it could be hypothesized that the opportunity to rise out of the blue-collar and into the white-collar class may have created the primary motivation rather than to serve children and society. The motive of working for monetary reward, for an educator, is not undesirable, for it is a characteristic that teachers should strive to instill in students as affective goals are realized in the classroom. Since it is difficult, if not impossible, to identify the particular motivation by which people choose teaching, it may not be reasonable to play down or to glorify the various motives used to select this important career.

CONCERNS OF COMPETENCY

Time in Training

According to Smith and Street (1980) the level of professional preparation through teacher education is cause for national concern. While demands and expectations have increased in the last half century, time available to prepare teachers to deal with an increasingly complex school system apparently has remained unchanged. Examination shows, however, the length of educational preparation programs of other professionals has increased considerably in the last half century.

Grades vs Competency Measures

Problems in teacher education may be more than symptomatic concerning a decline in professionalism. Tests that indicate basic literacy and competency rather than grades, at termination of teacher-education programs, may be better indicators of professional competence. Grade inflation, for example, is likely predicated on the fact that budget formulas reward programs based on student enrollment. Licensing teachers based on an appropriate examination could provide us with a requirement similar to those of other professional bodies. Professions such as architecture, accountancy, law, and medicine for years have used criterion measures to gauge competence. Some of the trades, such as cosmetology, barbering, plumbing, and welding require the successful completion of a competency test to achieve licensure.

Public Image

Teachers are in a constant conflict over behaving as they choose or as people expect them to behave. This makes educators more vulnerable than other professionals since they must maintain an image that meets with public demands rather than acting in line with real evidence or professional preference. There exists a difference between what people expect educators to be and what they actually are. The educator must resolve the discrepency in order to maintain his or her own identity with respect to professional image.

Student Selection

Industrial arts education should become known by the quality of the student who completes the program. However, with a decline in student enrollment as a common problem of teacher education and the relaxation of admission standards in some colleges, program standards are likely to be modified. Programs that show growth are frequently rewarded by the funding formula but may fall short when qualitative criteria are applied.

COMPLEMENTARY TEACHING ASSIGNMENTS

The differences between teaching in an industrial arts laboratory, compared with teaching professional courses, are rather obvious, but bear some consideration in a discussion of competence. There would appear to be more time-consuming responsibilities associated with teaching laboratory courses. For example, laboratory courses generally meet for longer periods of time, require maintenance of equipment, ordering of materials, inventory procedures, preparing requisitions for tool and equipment expenditure, organizing student-personnel systems, and many other such tasks. These time-consuming experiences may have a direct effect on other responsibilities required of teacher educators who are professionals.

These tasks of laboratory teaching may become so all-encompassing that professional productivity such as research and writing may nearly come to a halt. This notion does not suggest that professional teaching assignments are not time-consuming in and of themselves. It is quite possible, however, that these real or imagined differences are reasons that senior-staff members gravitate toward assignments in the professional category. This progression, while it may be understandable, may also be detrimental both to the profession and the individual. It is not uncommon that, in some colleges, teacher educators who move in this direction may, eventually, be responsible for professional courses only. This type of assignment may lack the natural support afforded by having a continuous proving ground for many of the principles taught in professional courses. It may be reasoned that a continual renewal of laboratory teaching experiences may provide a competency link that will contribute to the relevance of some professional courses.

INTELLECT AND MENTAL HEALTH: REQUISITES OF COMPETENCE

Professional fields require a degree of innate intelligence necessary to master the body of knowledge and theory provided during the extensive career preparation. Since professions require high-level thinking and complex decisions, there is no substitute for a high level of intellect. Preparation for teaching industrial arts requires a substantial measure of intellectual capacity since this curriculum area requires the mastery of a wide variety of skills and knowledge.

The influence of teachers is a powerful force on the lives of students. Establishing criteria that could eliminate people who have unacceptable moral, emotional, and ethical traits is an enormous and ethical task in itself. It has more variables than those uncovered by a Ph.D. candidate's committee upon review of the candidate's first proposal. Teacher education generally does little to help determine the suitability of potential teachers concerning their mental health since variables are large in number, and research to demonstrate the effect of such screening is limited. While this screening may not occur in the preservice education of teachers, there will be an ongoing, informal, on-the-job evaluation of teachers by administrators and other teachers. These informal assessments are seldom based upon known principles of mental-health evaluation but are, nonetheless, common. The informal evaluation that determines a teacher to be "well adjusted" would likely be made of a teacher who is satisfied, is not critical, and does not create problems for his or her administrator.

The teacher who is found to be dissatisfied, critical, and who creates some problems for administrators, may be labeled as being "poorly adjusted." These traits clearly can be discerned but may not be at all accurate in perception. Who then is the more professional faculty member? It may be that the satisfaction interpreted from the actions of the "well-adjusted" teacher is a manifestation of apathy. In the case of the dissatisfied teacher, a genuine concern to improve the perceived situation may be the motivation for the unacceptable behavior as determined by the administrator.

Teachers also are responsible for making similar judgments about students. The student who does not interrupt classroom/laboratory routine may be mistakenly thought of as well adjusted by the teacher even though he may be completely withdrawn from learning activities. This student, in fact, may be exhibiting behavior more ominous than the student who is aggressive and disruptive of learning activity.

These instances may be used as an indication that not all behavior can be read by the shallow assessment of its apparent face value. In the same vein, not all expressions of dissatisfaction can be determined to be a sign of a positive professional attitude. A sign of a good professional attitude may be best exemplified by the individual who is not satisfied with the status quo. Biased evaluations of teacher behavior often occur when administrators avoid observing the most important responsibility of the teacher—his interraction with students.

WHERE PROFESSIONALISM BEGINS

Courses designed for teacher-education purposes must be specifically oriented to professional ethics or professionalism will not result.

Perhaps teacher education should require the study of ethical problems of teaching as a profession rather than leave professional development to chance. This sounds like what ought to happen at first glance, but teaching professionalism is much like teaching safety. Teacher educators can evaluate an individual's mastery of understanding using tests over specific knowledge in each of these areas. However, the acts of knowing and applying sometimes appear to be unrelated.

Within the Classroom

The application of professional ideals and standards is an individual's personal choice just as is the use of safety glasses in eye-hazard areas. The teacher's independence or autonomy within the classroom gives him or her the freedom to make decisions concerning how safety will influence behavior of students in the laboratory. By similar logic, the teacher also can decide how professionally involved he or she will become. Even though the responsibility for becoming professionally active is understood, the teacher may opt to remain inactive outside the classroom.

Professional decisions are made by teachers on a continual basis. Becoming involved in doing the routine tasks for which a teacher has been hired, such as thoroughly planning good lessons, getting examination papers back to students without delay, the extra effort required to keep the machinery in good running condition, and organizing a workable student-personnel system, to mention only a few, are all examples of teacher tasks with professional overtones. The teacher who continues to do all in his or her power to deliver and improve those things considered to be required of teaching, is a professional in the true sense.

The industrial arts teacher who serves his or her students by attending to the numerous tasks found in the job description can be counted within the group of active professionals. These daily tasks, when properly performed, leave little time for additional responsibilities. These on-site professional activities, unfortunately, are often taken for granted.

Outside the Classroom

Visibility and professional recognition seldom come to the teacher until he or she reaches out beyond the boundaries of the classroom. Much more is required for a teacher to be recognized as a true professional by his or her peers. There are, however, many professional avenues of expression for the teacher to pursue. These responsibilities occur outside of the regular classroom duties and are generally voluntary initiatives of the industrial arts professional. The motivations for becoming involved in such activities may not easily be determined. Since teachers of industrial arts are as complex as individuals within any profession, their reasons for becoming involved personally may be only hypothesized. The "scholarly" characteristics of a professional have been described at length in the early part of this chapter. While all of these should not be used to describe a teacher, it can be assumed that he or she is fulfilling the internalized need to measure up to one or more of these professional descriptions.

It will serve the purpose of this discussion much better to list and briefly describe the activities of an active industrial arts professional than to determine motives for professional involvement.

PROFESSIONAL INVOLVEMENT

Providing a Role Model

Perhaps the most powerful demonstration of professionalism and leadership is personal example. The attributes and characteristics of professional teachers are not just internal beliefs and codes by which they live. The declarations of professional commitment through observable actions are likely to have some influence on students and other professionals that observe them.

Undergraduate students attending institutions of higher education generally are very impressionable. They frequently are influenced by what they observe. Since the professor becomes a model for behavior for at least some of the students with which he or she has contact, this mentor influence may be directed consciously or unconsciously in any of a number of directions. While not all that is observed will be emulated, nor would we wish that to be the case, the mentor phenomenon will nonetheless occur. The intent of our actions may not be to influence those who are impressionable to act exactly as we do, but we must be consciously aware of that likelihood.

Since one of the responsibilities of professional educators is to be "active" professionally, it is reasonable to assume students stand to gain from the teacher educator's professional experiences, either directly or indirectly. They are destined either to see and/or to hear of our professional activity, receive the rewards of our involvement, or join us in participating as professionals. As teacher educators, we are obliged to become concerned with these responsibilities not only because of those who are watching but because the teacher educator is what Householder (1981) described as a "standard setter." Helping establish the criteria for acceptable professional performance is a function the teacher educator can demonstrate best by his or her example.

Student Organizations

Some of the states are currently mandating, if not strongly suggesting, the industrial arts teacher form and lead an industrial arts youth organization in his or her school. These organizations can provide professional and leadership experiences. The implication for teacher education is to provide the background needed for the potential teacher to accomplish this task. The leadership characteristics inherent in a good beginning industrial arts teacher are not enough to make this demand a success. The industrial arts college curriculum can respond to this in several ways. It may be included as a part of a professional course for the undergraduate or as an inservice workshop for teachers in the field. Preparation for leading an industrial arts club has occurred in many colleges and universities by undergraduate students participating in a local American Industrial Arts College Student Association (AIACSA) club. This experience provides rewarding activities for the involved students and advisors. The reasons for becoming active are generally as numerous as the number of students who participate. Activities may include service, recreation, and social, as well as professional, endeavors. Regardless of the reasons students become active, their activities provide another effective avenue for professional growth. Just as John Dewey, one of our philosophical friends out of the past, suggested, the best way to reinforce learning is by doing.

Preparing Industrial Arts Teachers for Club Leadership

An active professional organization for students is a very rewarding and challenging way to subtly teach organization and management of a youth club along with the cultivation of professionalism. This method of learning not only accomplishes the goals of preparing students to initiate and lead their own club, but it creates the enthusiasm that causes future club advisors to look forward to starting their own clubs.

The *Student Handbook* for the American Industrial Arts Student Association (AIASA) provides excellent guidelines to aid the secondary-school teacher in orienting his students to the tasks of operating a youth organization. This handbook is currently available from AIASA for a very modest fee. Two other publications that are worth considering are guides that were written and published in 1980 and 1979 respectively for the Industrial Arts Education Service, Virginia Department of Education, P.O. Box 60, Richmond, Virginia 23216. Guide 1 is titled *Organizing the Industrial Arts Student Association* and was written under the direction of Dr. Charles A. Pinder, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, Blacksburg, Virginia.

Guide 2 is titled *Student Association Activities in Industrial Arts Instruction* and was prepared under the supervision of Dr. Arvid W. Van Dyke, Virginia State University in Petersburg, Virginia. These guides were designed to help the secondary industrial arts teacher integrate AIASA into the daily classroom routine. The goals upon which these guides were developed were formulated by the Virginia Industrial Arts Curriculum Council.

These three publications have been designed to provide an avenue for teaching leadership responsibility and at the same time allowing students to experience the psychological "high" of belonging to an organization over which they have some control. According to personal testimony of a group of Virginia industrial arts teachers, who are using the plan of integrating a club within the daily laboratory routine, club activity apparently has demonstrated it can enhance rather than detract from course content.

ORGANIZING STUDENT CLUBS

Many teachers who have attempted to organize after-school youth organizations have met with disappointment. This has been particularly true where the school has served a broad geographic community where bussing removes the students from the club-meeting site almost before the teacher has caught his or her breath from the last class of the day. There also are other reasons that make the end of the school day a relatively poor time to hold meetings. Because of this, some schools have scheduled activity periods when such club organizations as AIASA may meet. This provides the opportunity for school-chapter meetings to be scheduled. The chapter, which is the common label for the school-wide local component of AIASA, has its own set of officers and serves the coordinating function for the individual associations or in-class clubs. The school-wide chapter organizes the activities that will affect all its AIASA members and is the liaison between the district, state, and national associations.

Since student clubs are required in many secondary programs, it would appear colleges and universities can no longer ignore the development of competencies required to organize and manage an AIASA club. Providing experience in this important area of teacher preparation cannot be left to chance. A required course designed to prepare students to initiate and operate their own club is one of the options that may be considered.

A second method of providing this necessary experience might be to integrate the concepts of youth leadership within a required course much like the proposed plan espoused by the group of Virginia industrial arts teachers. The procedure for integrating AIASA into this course would likely find the instructor forming a model club within the class. Content areas would include the following: (a) campaign speeches prior to the election of officers, (b) business meetings, (c) familiarization with Robert's Rules of Order, (d) becoming aware of the goals and purposes of AIASA, (e) identifying procedures for establishing an AIASA chapter, planning a calendar of events, (f) formulating committees, and the many other experiences that constitute the formation of a club.

PROFESSIONAL ASSOCIATION MEMBERSHIP

The importance of professional associations to industrial arts professional leadership cannot be overemphasized. A professional association provides the mechanism by which individuals within an organization can do collectively what is impossible to do individually. A necessary responsibility of all professionals is to join voices with the other individuals in their profession. Professions are characterized as being well organized to improve the conditions under which the members must work and serve. The purposes for common professional identity are as follows:

1. There is strength in numbers. More political power can be realized when a large percentage of practicing professionals belong to the professional association.
2. Initiatives that are established by the association have better opportunity to be realized when the membership speaks with unity.
3. Associations provide a common link for professional discourse and discussion.
4. Professionalism is itself spawned out of active, purposeful activity as it is practiced by its members and observed by prospective or less dedicated members.
5. Association-sponsored gatherings, such as conferences, provide members with a forum for the exchange of knowledge and methods or approaches to carry out initiatives through informal conversations and scheduled speeches as well as refereed periodicals and educational materials.
6. Practicing professionals can become personally acquainted with professional leaders and subsequently may question and discuss reported professional positions.

The professional associations with which industrial arts has a direct link are the American Industrial Arts Association (AIAA), formed in Cleveland, Ohio in 1939, the American Vocational Association (AVA), with its numerous state and local associations, which extended identity to industrial arts educators in 1932 when it allowed the Industrial Arts section to be formed (Ray, 1979), and The National Association of Industrial and Technical Teacher Educators (NAITTE) which is primarily aimed at serving teacher educators of industrial arts, trade and industrial, and technical education.

The AIAA has been subdivided into six affiliated councils which serve interest groups within the parent organization. The affiliated councils include the following: (a) the American Council of Industrial

Arts Teacher Education (ACIATE), (b) the American Council of Industrial Arts Supervisors (ACIAS), (c) the American Council of Industrial Arts State Association Officers (ACIASAO), (d) the American Council for Elementary School Industrial Arts (ACESIA), and the American Industrial Arts College Student Association (AIACSA). The American Industrial Arts Student Association (AIASA), the organization for secondary school students, was directly linked with AIAA beginning officially in 1965. On November 1, 1978 AIASA became an entity onto itself with its own national office staff. However, it remains closely linked with AIAA since its purposes are mutually shared.

PROFESSIONAL RECOGNITION

Teacher Educator's Role

Teacher educators are in a position to formally recognize professional effort on the part of local industrial arts teachers. For example, an experienced teacher who has provided a student teaching opportunity for an undergraduate should be recognized by a short letter sent to fortify and encourage this type of professional activity. A boost to a teacher's self-esteem can be the result of letters sent for a multitude of similar reasons. Special recognition is deserved by the teacher who is observed providing excellent instruction, is committed to some form of professional activity and has met or exceeded the goals of the task, or has provided extra effort in youth leadership through a school club. While such activity may be intrinsically rewarding for the teacher, it all too frequently goes totally unnoticed by anyone but the students who are served.

It is generally out of character for students to offer special recognition to the teacher. The principal, too often, has so many responsibilities that time may not be taken to recognize or fully appreciate what all the teacher is doing of a professional nature beyond the bounds of the local school. The principal may even believe that professional activities requiring the teacher occasionally to be absent from classes are a serious threat to fulfilling school responsibilities. It then appears that the small amount of energy expended, by a teacher educator who is in a position to recognize special effort or quality teaching by sending a letter, would be an act greatly appreciated by the teacher. The natural extension of writing the letter is to go one step further and send copies to the teacher's principal, supervisor, and/or superintendent. This allows the teacher to be further reinforced by adding to the size of the group who knows the teacher is working in an exemplary manner.

There are, of course, other avenues for providing recognition. They include awarding of professional certificates of service given by the local professional-teacher organization or reference to activities in a professional newsletter. It would appear, however, none may be as readily viable as a personal, unsolicited letter that gets into the hands of those in supervisory roles.

AIAA's Role

The Outstanding Teacher Award, sponsored by the AIAA, is an excellent means through which the dedicated industrial arts teacher may receive professional recognition. State industrial arts associations are responsible for selecting an AIAA member as the recipient of the Outstanding Teacher Award within that state. The individual state industrial arts associations generally establish their own criteria and determine the selection procedure. The process often includes nominations by principals, industrial arts supervisors, teacher educators and/or teachers, and letters of support for the individual nominees. A selection committee within the state association then reviews the information forwarded on behalf of the individual nominees and the selection is made. The selected teachers from each state are invited to attend the national AIAA conference where each is awarded a plaque at the traditional teacher-recognition session at this conference. Each awardee is recognized individually at an impressive ceremony that is attended by the majority of educators and guests who attend the conference. This recognition by the professionals who represent the industrial arts teachers of the world provides meaning to the hours spent in the realization of goals. The professional educator will find numerous opportunities to engage in and promote professional activity. The choices that must be made by the teacher will be based on an assessment of individual skill, interest, and motivation.

PUBLIC RELATIONS INITIATIVES

The area of public relations providing many chances to improve the image of industrial arts is one of the obvious areas of personal commitment. It has been customary, in many parts of the country, for industrial arts teachers to engage in project or product fairs where student examples of some of the worthwhile experiences created in the laboratory can be shown. Such exhibits provide a showcase of student effort and skill. While some may suggest the emphasis on the finished student product may mislead the public as to our purposes or even sidetrack the teacher, if that which is displayed is the means rather than the end, student products can have good public relations value. A display or fair has public appeal and is one of the easiest methods used to gain the attention of the community.

The secondary student whose work is on display also stands to gain inspiration. This comes in preparing for the display and in the feeling of accomplishment realized when he or she finds the work has been carefully placed where other members of the community can verify the accomplishments. The display of student work may further be judged and decorated with a ribbon or an award. This method of recognition may be realized through varying degrees of expense and effort on the part of the teacher. The teacher has the option of organizing and managing a display completely within the home school or of recruiting several teachers within a district, the region, or the state to provide such an event.

One of the rules of thumb in Tennessee, where such fairs have been common in the recent past, is that judges are instructed to award ribbons liberally. While differing levels of excellence may be distinguished by the various colors of ribbons, the concern is that most students should receive recognition for their efforts.

The event need not be limited to static displays. Students of industrial arts can engage in tasks representative of an activity within their program with additional effort on the part of the teacher and the cooperation of students. Competitive events, such as the model-car race developed as an outgrowth of the "World of Manufacturing" course, having to do with the Land Speed Record Assault Vehicle (LSRAV) and others, can create a great amount of enthusiasm. This enthusiasm is generated within students, mothers and dads, relatives, the community, and even the industrial arts teacher.

There can be many valuable spin-offs from professional effort of this type. It not only provides public awarness of industrial arts, student recognition for accomplishment, and a forum for changing public opinion of industrial arts, but is an approach for rekindling professional fire within the industrial arts teachers themselves. Such events require the participating teacher to visit the display area where other teachers have come for the same purpose, to deliver and set up the projects/products. It may well be enough incentive for the teacher to see whose students are building the better "birdhouses." Most realize the true value of such a gathering that brings teachers together to share a wealth of strategies for incorporating new technology, methods for improving the personnel system, and other topics that ultimately can revitalize the teacher.

The Industrial Arts Education Association (the student industrial arts club) at the University of Tennessee was afforded a new professional challenge for the 1981–82 school year. Since this student organization had been active in previous East Tennessee Industrial Arts Fairs, it was asked to organize, promote, and manage this event for East Tennessee. The club members indicated their enthusiasm for putting together the best fair ever in this area. A timetable was established relative to the tasks to be undertaken. The identified tasks included ample opportunities for all club members to become involved actively in a share of the responsibilities. Sending letters, rules, posters, entry forms, shopping mall maps, and many other organizational activities provided the impetus for a major professional experience.

The club members were responsible for locating and providing display tables, ropes, and stands for encircling display areas and seeking local newspaper and television coverage. Other responsibilities for the fair included judging projects/products and awarding ribbons, registering students who brought their entries for the model-car race, judging the drawings for model cars, running the car race, recording winners and losers in the various racing heats, and awarding trophies.

The past two years the University of Tennessee student club members determined they would like to add an additional set of awards. The club members designed and produced high quality walnut plaques with an engraved identification plate attached that recognized the most outstanding secondary student entry in each of six separate categories. These plaques were proudly awarded to those students who had shown exemplary design and craftsmanship. The size of the project/product displayed had nothing whatever to do with which student's entry received the award. The plaque gave both recognition to the student for excellence and recognition to an active group of university students. These were students who had savored personal delight from the activities of professionals. As though it was not enough to undertake such an event to improve public relations for industrial arts, the professional gains often outweigh the apparent intended outcomes.

TEACHING CONDITIONS AND PROFESSIONALISM

Changes in legislation that have paved the way for equality among women and men in the professional marketplace undoubtedly have had an impact both on opportunities and the attitudes of women in education. While they perhaps have been given what some might call better than equal opportunities in the very recent past, it remains to be seen how these changes may create a change in attitudes toward professionalism. Women too long have been expected to work for lower salaries than men, an attitude that is difficult to change.

The problem of professional commitment is one which has affected education in general as far as achieving occupational solidarity is concerned. Since industrial arts education has been, by and large, a male dominated segment of education, historically it may not have contributed to this dilemma, but it has suffered the effects of the malady. The economic status of those in education undoubtedly has been hampered by a lack of unified concern of educators for improving conditions.

In contrast, the lure of a career in teaching may need to be spawned out of goals that are other than visions of monetary reward and eventual financial conquest. The reasons for entering a career in education are as varied as they are for virtually every profession except when that decision is based on financial reward. This paragraph is neither a negative discourse nor a sour grapes attitude. Rather, it is a recognition that what attracts people to a career in education has less to do with economic reward than most other professions. What is obvious is the disparity between the salaries offered graduates of industrial arts education programs who interview for positions in industry versus education. When only starting salaries and fringe benefits are compared, it is very apparent other goals are of great importance when one chooses to become a teacher. It suggests to us that sacrifices of a financial nature may likely be made by our neophyte teachers, regardless of their motivation.

It has long been recognized that the behavior of an organism has much to do with the environment in which the organism exists. Fish die in polluted waters, tropical plants wither in cool temperatures, ambitions of children who were reared in slums are unlike those of children from middle class neighborhoods.

Much has been written recently about the environment in which the secondary school teacher must work. According to Schultheis (1979), this environment can be characterized by:

1. Lack of recognition or reward for intellectual or professional activities.
2. Violence to property or to teachers by students.
3. Teacher layoffs or budget cutbacks.
4. Lack of recognition for effective teaching, curriculum development, or student rapport.

5. Loss of esteem in the eyes of the public.
6. Lack of control over many elements essential for adequate course content, student achievement, or simple change of any sort.
7. Anonymity produced by supercentralization.

The aforementioned characteristics that describe the teaching environment, within which many industrial arts teachers must work, will cause teachers to exhibit the same behavior patterns exemplified by slow learners in school: (a) excessive absence, (b) low interest in school work, (c) apathy toward people and school activities, (d) weak self-image, and (e) low expectations of themselves.

Many, if not all of us, have witnessed these demoralizing conditions either as teachers or student-teacher supervisors. It is common for teacher educators or supervisors to attempt to correct the behavior of the teacher through in-service workshops or courses. The problem is that what we see manifested in the teacher is merely symptomatic of the real cause, the environment within which the teacher must operate.

The teacher in the recent past has been witness to a great increase in school crime and vandalism, violence toward teachers, and use of drugs among students. Compounding the fact that teachers may not feel physically safe is the realization that teachers are experiencing layoffs because of population declines and also because of budget cutbacks. If the budget crunch is not taking the teacher's job, it is limiting supply expenditures and the acquisition of equipment. The inflation rate too has dealt the teacher a severe setback since salaries in education seldom reflect changes in the economic climate. This is especially so during times of an upward economic spiral.

Coupled with these environmental changes is the recent pressure on teachers brought about by legislation concerning accountability and, of course, the increase of legal suits lodged against teachers. The industrial arts teacher is indeed in a precarious position, along with his vocational counterparts, since the risk of accidents is greater in a hazardous laboratory/shop environment than in the relative safety of a "general education" classroom. These problems deal with the primary needs of people such as safety and survival in a hierarchy of needs.

The teacher who is struggling with satisfying his primary needs will be difficult to convince of the importance associated with being a member of a professional group. Some may suggest group membership as being a secondary need.

An understanding that these teaching conditions may be a part of the experience of some teachers may explain a normal reluctance to join a professional group. Exerting professional leadership by attempting to encourage an individual to join the profession may need to be preceded by suggestions for improving basic conditions.

THE INSERVICE BRIDGE

Campus discussions among industrial-arts teacher educators often deal with such issues as "subject matter" versus "student" based emphases on learning, the developmental growth characteristics of adolescents and curriculum change,, or the change in emphasis of learning how to learn. Such controversies demand considerable time as do other philosophical discussions that are commonplace where teacher-education professionals meet to discuss their concerns.

It is not surprising to find less frequent attention to such discussion in the public schools and for good reasons. The typical teacher in the public school, who has five to six classes per day, must sponsor school activities, and has a host of other responsibilities, may find little time to become interested in such deliberations. What may interest this local teacher more than philosophical topics is how to improve the conditions under which he or she is operating. When conditions are better it may be possible for teachers to listen to that which concerns the teacher educator. It is no small wonder the public school teachers may begin to doubt that college personnel can help them in solving the problems they face.

The professional teacher educators must not lose sight of the "real" concerns of teachers as the teacher education department attempts to provide the in-service component of teacher education. The ability to empathize is a necessary prerequisite to any suggestion the teacher educator hopes to have the teacher effect in his or her classroom/laboratory. The professional practioner will actually put into practice the recommendations of good learning theory, philosophy, build good curriculum, and be well organized. The value of such counsel rests in the integration of the suggestions made by theorists and consultants.

The teacher educator's responsibilities often include in-service visits to local schools. The teacher educator who attempts to make an impact through such activity will realize better results if he or she has cultivated a relationship prior to offering suggestions. Opportunities to establish mutual trust and confidence can be developed by active participation in local professional meetings and group workshops where the teacher educator makes inroads toward establishing credibility.

The link between teachers and teacher educators who are members of the same professional organization is a natural one. It allows the teacher educator opportunity to operate within that structure where they are seeking the same objectives and can share a relationship as equals. This relationship can be very helpful in breaking down the barriers of skepticism and distrust.

THE AFTER-SCHOOL ENVIRONMENT

A common complaint lodged against teachers is that they are guilty of beating the students out of the school building at the conclusion of the regular school day. While at first glance they may appear to be guilty as charged, the reason for their rapid exit may not be fully understood nor appreciated by the casual observer. A look into the school may provide a reasonable explanation. Most teachers are not provided with an area satisfactory for study, preparing for the next day's lesson, or the environment conducive to the work required of a professional. Offices are the exception rather than the rule. The classrooms that teachers use during the day, while they appear to be vacant at the day's end, are about to be made ready for another day by the custodial staff. Should the teacher decide to remain in the classroom or laboratory, he or she may even become the target of a complaint by the cleaning staff by not allowing them the freedom to exercise their responsibilities.

The policies of the administration at times work a hardship on the professional teacher who may choose to remain at school and prepare for classroom or laboratory responsibilities. It is not an unusual request for an administrator to require the teacher to leave the keys to the facility in the office upon completion of the day's tasks. The reason may seem logical since the substitute teacher who may replace the teacher the next day will need keys to gain access. It is also an administrative check commonly used to attest to who is still in the building at the end of the day. Since the office must close at a "reasonable" hour and because the office cannot be locked until all keys are accounted for, the apparent professional commitment of the teacher becomes a source of probable harassment. The person in charge of seeing to it the keys are in place before the bolt is secured in the office door is likely to find fault with this teacher's behavior.

The teacher in this case is obviously denied the opportunity to use his or her facility assuming it is conducive to tasks preparatory to good teaching. The teacher may further lack motivation to gather a good personal, professional library for use at school since the hours it is available may be somewhat limited.

When these secondary-school conditions are compared to the flexibility enjoyed by professionals in institutions of higher learning, it is less difficult to understand the disparity that prevails.

PROFESSIONAL WRITING

The obligation to share experience, knowledge, and theory with others within the profession through writing is a task that college and university people take on with varying degrees of enthusiasm. While not all are equally blessed with the skills or inclination to become active in this area of professional endeavor, it remains a very visible professional activity. This is especially true of those in higher education when the time comes for promotion or tenure. It is generally assumed everyone at this level is outstanding in the classroom. (While this may or may not be the case, dependent upon each institution, it is a supposition that is common when papers are reviewed for tenure or promotion since it is difficult to quantify teaching.) Thus, the data which are more easily quantified are those which are treated.

Few will argue with the value of research, study, and organization which are required prior to writing or teaching. Writing and teaching can, indeed, complement one another. It is also obvious, however, that in order to further human knowledge, discoveries, insights, and inspiration must be passed on so others can benefit. Reading is, of course, individualized, self-paced instruction personified and has been one of our least expensive, most frequently used methods of learning.

Assuming that this responsibility is a professional obligation for those who wish to be recognized among their peers as contributors to the profession, an acceptable activity level should be achieved. The notion that one must publish or perish may exist in varying degrees between institutions of higher learning, but one thing is relatively certain, the likelihood for promotion and/or tenure is increased proportionally by the number of publications one can list on his or her vita. The quality of writing is also of concern since those writings that appear in refereed journals are more desirable than those printed without those blessings.

SUMMARY

Professionalism is a characteristic of educators that is as difficult to quantify as is the degree of excellence in teaching. We may each point to those traits that we may agree are characteristic of a professional teacher. There may even be found considerable agreement among our individual lists. The difficulty arises when assessing the degree of professional dedication or accomplishment. The many avenues of professional expression make the task of measuring one's professional effectiveness difficult if not impossible. Perhaps it is not important to measure levels of professional effectiveness. We do find considerable discussion in the literature concerning the merits of competency-based approaches to teacher education. However, it would appear the affective domain of learning plays a major role in this broad, important area of competence. Should this be true, verification of competency achieved is problematic, not to mention the difficulties that develop when the student lacks probable professional dedication.

This is not intended to relegate professionalism to a level of low importance. It is rather similar to asking a child how much he loves his mother. The answer is never a reflection of the intensity of the inner feelings. The child realizing his limited vocabulary has at times been taught to spread his arms to show just how much love he feels. Measuring professionalism may be similar since the only yardstick is the level of activity in which the professional becomes directly engaged.

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Chapter 12

Acquiring Financial Support and Providing Equitable Distribution

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A well known university department chairman once stated that there was no real problem running a department as long as the chairman has control of the budget. Perhaps, in the last analysis, this is true if it is done in an acceptable manner. In higher education, in recent times, an associated question also might be evaluated. That is, wouldn't most of the problems faced by industrial arts education be lessened with more money and more good students? While one can see this as an over simplification, reality generally can present several variations on these themes. One bears major attention. Outstanding, well managed programs seem to attract money, support, and good *students*. The major element of variance appears to be the leadership and imagination of a key individual in the department, a leader.

This is a review of the needs of a department, sources of funding, ways to get funding, managing the system, accountability, and the benefits of leadership in the process. Whether directly in charge of the program or a participant therein, the benefits of knowing the system often are a reward in and of themselves.

NEED FOR FUNDING SUPPORT

Educational systems, since the mid-1950 era, have enjoyed public and private support and program funding. About 1973–74, however, it became obvious that inflation, unemployment, energy shortage, and declining birthrate were about to impact education severely. Leaders, some for the first time, began to examine the budget structure. What they discovered, in many cases, was a system of fixed costs based on the *expanding-economy* model. Flexibility to change cost and benefit structures was to come with difficulty. The creative budgeter and promoter would emerge as the leader.

Most budgets generally can be broken into three or four broad categories:

1. Salaries, wages, and fringe benefits.
2. Transportation and professional travel costs.
3. Communications.
4. Supplies, equipment, and maintenance costs.

Some systems hold to only two categories:

1. Salaries and wages.
2. Operation costs. In any case, the creative leader is the one who can assess properly the real needs for long-range program support and structure the budget accordingly.

Since the American Council on Industrial Arts Teacher Education (ACIATE) is primarily a college- and university-oriented organization, the university departmental budget seems to be an appropriate focus or model. Some functions will not be appropriate for the secondary-school department. Implications, however, do have transferability.

The needs for funding are somewhat fixed, but the subdividing of categories can produce creative leverage. A sample budget breakdown should serve as an illustration. Non-fixed items that provide some program creativity are marked with the (*).

I. Salaries and wages.
    A. Faculty positions and the department chair.
    B. Clerical staff.
    *C. Graduate assistantships and fellowships.
    *D. Professional staff, e.g. project directors.
    *E. Student assistants and work-study positions.
    *F. Sabbatical and/or study leaves.

- *G Research and development released time.
- *H. Public relations and recruiting.

II. Travel

- A. Program travel, e.g. student-teaching supervision.
- B. Administrative travel to special meetings as required.
- *C. Class travel, field trips, etc.
- *D. Professional meetings and recruitment.
- *E. Research and development.

III. Communications

- A. Postage (ever increasing).
- B. Telephone—local.
- *D. Telephone—toll or WATS.
- *E. Data line to computer.

IV. Duplication, printing, and publications

- A. Spirit duplicator.
- *B. Copy machine.
- *C. Offset press.
- *D. Outside printing, e.g. publications or brochures.

V. Supplies

- *A. Office supplies.
- *B. Instructional supplies.
- *C. Computer supplies.

VI. Equipment

- *A. Office equipment.
- *B. Instructional equipment.
- *C. Maintenance and service agreements.

In assessing the funding needs, the department head must be aware of the synergistic nature of each budget item. If an item is eliminated, does it produce a negative effect on another item? Program integrity becomes the base for budget decisions. Overall effects on attitude development thus become major criteria in these decisions.

A careful evaluation of most departmental budgets and actual ledger sheets will show some waste of resources. Every waste item ties up resources that could have been used for program enhancement. One faculty position that is not used to full capacity may cost as much or more than the department's usable operating budget. Unmonitored telephone toll charges, for example, may allow as much as $200/month in excess cost. Poorly engaged maintenance contracts may cost more than equipment replacement over a period of time. Unchecked, resources and morale will both deteriorate.

In order to sustain its financial integrity, the department leadership must set first-, second-, and even third-line budget priorities. Every budget crisis, then, can become an opportunity for program evaluation and resource reallocation. Using capabilities from within the staff, program efforts and business/industrial support can redirect even marginal personnel to success in new areas.

SOURCES OF SUPPORT

To balance or enhance the budget, sources of income must match the expected expenditures. Gone are the days when an increase in the budget was easy to achieve. As always, however, it will continue to appear that *the rich get richer and the poor get poorer*. This can be attributed to a few simple realities.

1. Most people have not because they do not ask for the objective properly if at all.
2. The increased funding request is or is not perceived as justified.
3. The department is viewed as a good or as a poor manager of resources.
4. The funding source has inadequate funds.
5. Those who get the funding are perceived as those best meeting institutional or production goals.
6. The prestige of the department in research, publications, and service is low.

Most industrial arts teacher-education programs are in state-operated or state-supported, higher-education institutions. The major source of funding is then institutional and from the state tax base. Allocation from the institutional budget inevitably will be subject to institutional priorities. Competition for even subsistence will depend on a concerted effort of the entire faculty to establish itself as a desperately needed department. Each retirement or resignation can mean retrenchment if there is a poor justification for replacement.

To move beyond the subsistence level of funding, resources must be sought from additional benefactors. Surprisingly, these fall into a wide range of sources including:

1. Additional funding from the State Department of Education.
2. Wills and trust from alumni and beneficiaries.
3. Contributions for special programs, federal aid, especially for impacted locations.

4. Foundations supporting research.
5. Industrial donations for tax writeoff, e.g. used equipment.
6. Grants and contracts for research and/or development of curriculum materials, etc.
7. Contracts with local education or Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA) agencies for program assistance.

Pursuit of funding from other than institutional monies requires faculty and leadership energy and commitment of time. Capability to perform tasks for which income can be derived is often present but hidden from view. It emerges, rather than suddenly appearing, often as a result of persuasion and visible suggestive support from departmental leaders. Matching of departmental capability to funding-agency needs is the major obstacle faced by the leader in initiating the first funding grant or contract. Once acquired, however, a well produced product almost assures improved prestige and future funding.

Getting the Resources that Produce Results

A major source of irritation in budgeting, at the institutional level, is the practice of simply adding on to the current budget in order to determine the subsequent year's funding. All leaders probably know this leads to waste and inability to clear out obsolete programs or useless expenditures. When not monitored, budgets have been known to carry insurance or maintenance agreements on equipment not even used for several years. Expenses seem simply to disappear into the morass of the budgeting process.

While none of us has ever looked on planned-program, or zero-based, budgeting with anticipation, the principles are quite sound. The department that practices such budgeting, when the rest of the institution does not, is ahead of the game and perhaps the crisis as well. Any budget allocation beyond the planned zero-based minimum is pure excess for reallocation in an institutional add-on budgeting system. The creativity involves determining the actual minimum budget level for survival. The rest has potential for reallocation and creative program development. Lean and hungry departments are generally the ones capable of initiating aggressive and exciting programs considered by many as nearly impossible to establish. The hefty budget may lead to poor monitoring, program complacency, waste, and diminished morale and accomplishment.

Long-range planning. The difficult task of the leader is to dream of what can be and then initiate long-range plans to accomplish these dreams. Imagination, however, must come to grips with the realities of funding sources. The process is rather simple, but the implementation requires constant attention. Feedback into the system must be finely tuned.

The process falls into a systematic set of guidelines.

1. Decide what programs and outcomes are desired over the next ten years, including current programs.
2. Determine faculty and staff loads to accomplish step one.
3. Evaluate space, facilities, equipment, and existing faculty and staff capabilities.
4. Set a priority hierarchy on program development.
5. Evaluate reallocation of existing resources.
6. Closely monitor the Commerce Business Daily and The Federal Register for announcement of upcoming Request for Proposal (RFP) guidelines from the federal level. Develop a close contact with someone in the U.S. Department of Education who knows funding projections.
7. Contact campus Development Office for a list of foundations and agencies supporting research and development of the nature projected.
8. Establish a close working relationship with the State Department of Public Instruction to determine if and when an RFP for a contract or research projects is to be released.
9. Begin to collect proposals that have been successful and evaluate them for key ingredients and style.
10. Develop a file of materials to support an RFP response when it arrives. (Turn-around time is very short.)
11. Evaluate what the individual and or the department will gain from participation in any funded project. Avoid those for which there is no personal or programmatic gain. They are a waste of resources if they do not improve the image and capability of the department within the institution.
12. Select a person and program likely to succeed and benefit from the experience for the first extra-funding effort. When successful, let everyone know it in the most acceptable or traditional method.
13. When preparing the budget for the RFP, be sure to include sufficient funding for personnel time, phone and postage, travel, fringe benefits, and overhead expense. The overhead income keeps the institution happy. The rest is either pure recovery (which can be reallocated) or will cover incurred expenses. Never use a salary figure for less than 25 percent time if released time from teaching is anticipated.
14. Plan to use some recovered funds to support graduate students and teaching assistants.

15. Plan the types of holding accounts for maximum flexibility especially ones that allow carry over and residual standing. Avoid accounts that revert back to the general fund when a project terminates.
16. Plan for a systematic publication of research or development findings in appropriate journals. (This is the link most often overlooked but the most beneficial in image building and exploiting results for greatest value.)
17. Evaluate for feedback and program direction the financial, programmatic, and attitudinal value of each project as it nears the end of its cycle.
18. Use experience gained and funding acquired to support writing additional proposals and to promote programs.

Someone, hopefully the department head, must maintain the overall perspective and avoid the narrow view. Otherwise, a department's mission can become distorted and little positive benefit results from extra funded contracts.

Finally, the use of a development advisory committee, made up of industrial representatives, can be of some potential benefit. This is especially true in helping arrange for discount purchasing, equipment acquisition, fellowships, internships, and related activities.

Monitor end-of-year funds. As the end of the year approaches, constant monitoring of all budgets is necessary. A plan to expend end-of-year monies is essential. If a departmental budget is divided among service areas, collective errors or unaccounted monies can amount to hundreds or thousands of dollars. In the vernacular, this is pure gravy for an alert faculty member who plans accordingly. It is reminiscent of the parable of the talents. The money that had been buried by the ineffective steward was taken from him and given to the most investment-minded steward.

MANAGING THE BUDGETARY SYSTEM

Perhaps, as in planning to acquire resources, the management of resources when acquired requires long-range planning. When a department has had ample funding, and faculty have become complacent, resentment will appear abruptly when funding becomes difficult. For this reason, program evaluation and planning, along with zero-based style budget planning become even more important than before.

Fiscal status evaluation suggests someone must make a listing of the activities covered by department resources. These should be listed under headings of "survival," "needed," "developmental," "nice to have," and "can get along without." It is in these areas that a departmental development committee, advisory to the department head, may have some value.

Spotting and resolving problem areas and waste of resources is rarely an easy task. For example, a program that no longer serves the real mission of the department may consume twenty percent of the budget. Abuse of the long-distance phone system, for instance, may cost the department $200/month. Whatever the corrective strategies used, decisive action is required to resolve the fiscal waste difficulties.

Personnel and value systems are especially difficult to deal with when they are involved in the category "can get along without." Corrective action usually means those involved need to change to capabilities needed under higher categories of departmental need or affordability. Short-term fiscal arrangements, of course, cannot always be made to assist in developing change capability. Actually, those in such positions may suffer from personal short sightedness in not gearing up for change. Periodic evaluations of performance may not allow these declining needs to surface. Probably those personnel-oriented fiscal problems are solved by the imaginative leader whose planning is long range in nature.

Budgetary Changes and Incentives

The management of the budgetary system requires a high-level trust among faculty and staff if changes are to be initiated. Several workable themes have proved quite effective. Generally, if each person perceives a personal benefit from budgetary actions, trust and incentives are easier to establish. Of all incentives, however, improved self-esteem and increase in esteem in the eyes of colleagues appear to produce results most effectively.

In most industrial arts programs, departments, or divisions, someone holds a position of designated leadership. The person holding the position of coordinator, chairman, or head may or may not actually display much real leadership. Regardless, the position holds power and faculty generally await signals from the position holder before initiating ideas or program changes. By the same perceptions, then, the department head can indicate by actions or overt direction, priority areas that need development or areas of obsolescence.

The self-esteem incentives are powerful when one feels he or she has been *selected* to respond to a request for proposal, select new equipment, or plan the direction of a new program. Indeed, success of the latter two tasks is often dependent on the success of the proposal responding to the RFP. The skill of the leader lies in matching resource acquisition activities and personnel to developmental capabilities and personnel. The attitudinal synergism probably will not be obvious to the casual observer. The success generated will be obvious to all.

Budget Control

While one person is generally designated as responsible for budget management, portions may be shared or delegated. The feeling of trust or being trusted is heightened if pseudoautonomy or control of part of a budget is acquired. An unskilled leader, in delegating budget control, however, may find major difficulties developing in the long term. There are many reasons for this, but two stand out firmly:

1. The person to whom delegation is made probably has no firm grasp of the entire budget picture, policies, cautions, or long-range capabilities.
2. There is generally a penchant for spending until all is gone so more can be justified. Care and firmly understood policies are essential for good management.

Monitoring and accounting of a budgetary system is a tedious but important chore. Skill and understanding of the budget process are extremely important. Its complexities and policies may take years to master. Generally, a department needs a comprehensive set of backup records. This is because the massive accounting system of the institution may take several months to clear some expenditures. Balances probably will never reflect actual amounts expended. Only by reference to the backup records and files can one know precisely what funds are unexpended.

Projecting Expenditures

With inflation running high, projected expenditures must be monitored frequently. Implementing a plan that calls for significant expenditures near the beginning of the year may mean lean times later on. Substantial expenditures generally are made after about three months of the school year when cost trends have become established.

In the past, when funding was simple and dependable, one could receive approval to purchase a particular piece of equipment, budget for it, then make the purchase. This same procedure is still used in many places. In more institutions, budget justification is by total amount based on a line-item analysis. Once approved, however, one generally can revise the non-salary items almost at will. This system allows for large expenditures for equipment, but, as indicated above, many factors can cause over expenditure in the priority areas. If the non-salary budget has been depleted for equipment before priority expenditures have been firmed up, there is little latitude for recovery to the balanced state.

Experience in purchasing, bidding, and other budgetary matters takes time to develop. Those involved, including vendors, know that most educational equipment is purchased between March and June 30 each year. In fact, for some items, acquisition prior to June 30 means the approval and bidding process may have to begin early in March. Large ticket items may not be stocked by vendors (dust-collection systems, for example) and may have to be manufactured at some distant location. After the bid is accepted, delivery may take six to eight weeks.

Monitoring Purchases

Monitoring the progress of purchasing is an often frustrating experience in the budgeting process. As an illustration, follow the purchase indicated above. Suppose the item is a $5,000.00 mill of some sort. The item must be delivered prior to the end of the fiscal year when the funding expires. The vendor accepts the contract at the bid price and agrees to deliver by June 15. On June 10, you are informed there is a truck drivers' strike and that it is doubtful the mill can be delivered by June 30. If the order is not cancelled, the mill could cost the department $10,000.00 because of the fiscal year overlap by the late delivery. This is because $5,000.00 worth of purchases would have been lost in the ending year and a second $5,000.00 would have to come from the next fiscal year.

If the above order had been cancelled, the few days remaining might have been insufficient to acquire some alternate vendor or even alternative equipment items. The example shows that along with monitoring the budget, management means having alternative plans. The example is real and occurs many times each June when funds cannot be encumbered and carried over.

The best solutions are not always possible, but the good planning can be force fed into a usable system. Generally one cannot carry over extra funds, but must carry over excess charges. On this paradox can be built a workable system.

The upcoming year's budget generally has tentative approval by May of each year. When large ticket items with doubtful delivery times are ordered, place an order for the next year's supplies or equipment items that can be delivered. If both are delivered, the excess costs are carried to the new budget. If the large ticket item does not get delivered in time, the funding is not lost, but is consumed by the alternate supply order. This leaves adequate money in the next year's budget to cover the large ticket item not delivered.

Budget Management and Fiscal Policy

It should be obvious that not all states and institutions have the same fiscal policies regarding encumbering, carryover, or line-to-line adjustments. It is essential that the leader learn the system and make it work for the department. At no time should policies be ignored. By the same reasoning, ignorance of a policy does not impress deans or treasurers either. The way the department is viewed as managing the resources within policies can determine how positively administrators view everything the department does.

In the last analysis, monitoring the budget is essential in managing the finances of the department. It brings to light spending trends, waste, abuse, and productivity. Done properly, it provides lead time to take corrective action when needed. It provides an opportunity for leadership to make the process pay dividends.

Management of the nonsalary portion of the budget system is quite straightforward when compared to the salary portion. It is here that the real challenges lie. For example, institutional policies generally cover salaries for the academic year while the faculty is actually paid throughout the calendar year. Once salaried positions are allocated, general policies appear to take over. Policies dictating what happens to salary money, when recovered from a project, are often vague. Another set of illustrations will help to round out this unique opportunity to be creative in management.

1. Positions are funded to carry out the departmental mission. Each faculty position is worth $20,000 to $40,000.
2. When one operates a funded contract or research contract, the recovered salary covering the percentage of time allocated may be used at the department head's discretion.
3. Classes may be taught by teaching assistants who cover classes missed by faculty who are operating projects.
4. Unfilled faculty positions can provide funding for as many as eight to ten teaching assistants at one-fourth time per year.
5. In some institutions, monies recovered from projects being operated go back into special departmental recovery line items not in the salary lines. Sometimes they can be expended without even rebudgeting, hence they are difficult to trace except as they balance overspent lines.

In some departments, by mutual agreement, other faculty will cover classes temporarily for the faculty operating the projects. By consent, income derived can be allocated to benefit the programs of those involved. Generally, however, it is more prudent to grant assistantships. This covers the work load, increases the number of good graduate students, and improves the departmental reputation as a mover.

The department that has invested in RFP and contract proposals frequently has developed a positive reputation for grantsmanship. Using the priority listings of departmental activities, funding recovered from these non-base accounts can be distributed where it will produce the most benefit. Properly handled, the distribution carries with it a modicum of trust, and with that an increase in productivity. Because the funding from these sources is fickle, along with some increase in productivity, there may be generated some creative anxiety. This anxiety is low level, but sufficient to provide additional stimulus.

As can be concluded from the above, managing the financial affairs of an industrial arts department can be akin to walking a tightrope. The one who makes the walk successfully gains a notable reputation. The one who slips in some critical way may quickly end his life as the fiscal manager. An old and worn saying is appropriate. Be careful who you step on as you climb the ladder to success. On your way down you may get trampled! A reputation for successful fiscal management is a worthy result.

ACCOUNTABILITY AND RESULTS

Over the years a whole range of management styles have developed based on stated objectives. Management by objectives (MBO) has enjoyed some measure of success, but has been considered by some to be cumbersome. Accountability in financial affairs easily could be considered from the viewpoint of management by results. While trying to work through the maze of fiscal problems and policies as well as related personnel problems, it is a good idea for the leader to keep a low profile on projected results. The results may have to be acquired by rules not much different from poker.

Productivity and Equitable Budget Distribution

A fact of life on the streets of towns in Mexico is expressed by the phrase, "No work, no eat." This point must be quietly evident in departmental fiscal matters. Those who produce results soon lose interest and become irritated when nonproductive programs are supported from their efforts. Change from nonproductive behavior does not come quickly. Over time, however, low merit raises and reduced financial supports, with proper counseling, gets the message across. As in all other dealings, however, incentives of this nature must be dealt out with an even distribution to those who need it. Generally, in addition to making known the difficulty and expected results, an example of how to perform may be needed. The individual may have to be led to the watering trough and shown the source of the fiscal water.

Again, let us return to the original proposition. The reason to acquire support for the department is to provide for an equitable distribution of funding that produces desired results. From the leader's position this means certain steps always must be taken or at least understood.

1. Plan to acquire funding from available sources.
2. Deliver a system which makes the funds available within the integrity of the unit. *Do not* chase useless money simply because it is available.
3. Properly account for all expenditures, recoveries, and overhead within institutional policies or guidelines.
4. Reward those who generate the actual source of funding.
5. Distribute the recovery benefits in a way to stimulate new resources and program development or maintenance.

Institutional Expectations

In accounting the resources of the department, one must always keep uppermost in consciousness the institutional expectations. In land-grant institutions, this usually means an ongoing research program and resultant publication of results. In industrial arts, this is the dimension most often missing. Part of the distribution of basic and recovery income must go into the support of research. Professorial research and publication, funded internally or externally, develops a substantial reputation. The desired and accountable result will be the attraction of competent graduate students interested in research. Every successful research project, properly published, increases the probability for a subsequent project. The net result is cascading. A high-quality program attracts quality faculty who attract funding. Students are attracted to study and become involved. The program improves and feeds back on itself. At the heart of such cascading systems, in every case, is an imaginative leader who keeps the feedback loop in a cybernetic state of accuracy.

A lesson for industrial arts promotion can be taken from the mainstay of distributive education:

1. Produce a product everyone needs.
2. Package the product in a desirable fashion.
3. Set the price so everyone can afford it.
4. Make it easily available.

5. Advertise to make everyone want the product.
6. Deliver the product acceptably.
7. Guarantee a new model when the old one is out of date.
8. Feed the profits into the system research to correct any deficiencies in the product or service as well as develop the next model.

When each of these accountability ideas have been considered, and the system implemented, the results will be positive. Evaluating the results of industrial arts programs will give an accounting of how well the fiscal system has been managed.

LEADERSHIP EFFECTS

The area of financial support and equitable distribution is one of the most often overlooked areas in leadership training. As one graduate student asked at a recent Southern Leadership Development Conference, "Where do you learn these things? They aren't in the course work." The answer, as it was then, is probably valid in most cases. One learns by working with a mentor who knows how to make things happen. One becomes a leader, in many cases, by becoming an unofficial apprentice to a master. Selected internships are appropriate experiences in which to learn the arts and crafts of fiscal manipulation.

The serious reader, by now, has sensed that fiscal management requires much more than mere bookkeeping experience. It draws from skills in cognitive and behavioral psychology, sometimes a bit of Machiavellian management, a free imagination, a conceptually oriented mind, and the ability to synthesize a solution while others are still analyzing the problem.

A leader must balance the structure and multidirections of the department with probable funding sources and faculty capabilities. Initiation of capable ideas, delegation of responsibility, and development of positive attitudes in the recipients must be followed with adequate fiscal support. Distribution of rewards for excellence while withholding same from nonproductive faculty requires great skill. Evaluating the results of such actions for synergistic relationships must be an ongoing process.

In the last analysis, as in the first, controlling the budget is one of the most powerful tools a department head may have. How the fiscal affairs are controlled will be accounted for by results. The effectiveness of the system will determine whether the department head is a leader.

Chapter 13

Time Management

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TIME MANAGEMENT

Time is the one resource technology cannot increase. Within the framework of days or weeks, it is consistently available to professional leaders and to those they lead in equal quantities. Individuals differ markedly in the ways they approach time: successful leaders use it efficiently; while those who fail to manage time wisely rarely attain eminence. Since professional success is achieved within a time framework, it is vital to manage one's time as efficiently as possible.

The value of the working hour can be expressed in at least two ways: the actual earning power of the hour; or the investment potential of the hour to the career success of the individual. Both deserve attention. It is relatively easy to compute the actual gross and net earnings from the typical hour of professional activity if one is willing to put forth the effort with paper and pencil or calculator. While that result may be surprising, it is probably an underestimate of the potential investment value of the typical hour to one's career, since future success is frequently dependent upon effective time utilization at an earlier career stage.

Individuals seeking to improve their leadership performance should examine their time management techniques to identify areas of possible improvement in their working efficiency. At the same time they improve their efficiency, they will reduce the stress associated with their professional activities. By working effectively, they can accomplish substantially more within the constraints of time and space, so their ultimate productivity and job satisfaction are both enhanced.

ESTABLISHING PRIORITIES

The first step in gaining control of one's use of time is the establishment of clear professional priorities. Without clear priorities, many important but unpleasant tasks are set aside until deadlines are missed, frequently precipitating major crises. Organizing the work tasks according to their importance helps to prevent such stressful situations from developing. The relative value of each task or category of tasks must be established and kept in mind for effective management of one's time while at work. If the task being pursued with vigor is the most important thing that needs to be done at the moment, the leader is probably practicing effective time management.

Setting Goals and Objectives

As a first step, the reasons for doing all the activities in a professional position may need to be analyzed. At this stage, the individual should state the significant goals in the professional endeavor. These goals may include such major accomplishments as the attainment of a promotion, preparation for a new position, or the completion of a significant publication. In other instances, they may include relatively short-term activities: the completion of a report, preparation of a class schedule, or planning a faculty meeting. It is helpful simply to develop a laundry list of the goals and objectives without attempting to rank or edit them at first. Ideas should simply be jotted down in the order they come to mind to increase ideational fluency during this brainstorming stage.

The outcome of such a procedure is a jumble of important and unimportant, short-term and long-term goals, and goals which must be attained within group settings as well as individual goals. When no additional goals or objectives can be identified, the next step is to group the goals into some meaningful framework. Long-term professional goals may serve as headings under which short-term, individual objectives are grouped. For example, completing a publication may logically be one of the accomplishments included within the goal statement related to attaining a promotion. At this stage, no attempt should be made to prioritize the goals and objectives; the purpose is to identify the interrelationships within one's goal framework. It may be possible to identify individual goals as separate from goals of the various groups in which one operates; where this is possible, it should be done at this stage to clarify when one is operating for individual goal attainment and when one is seeking to foster the accomplishment of a group goal.

It seems redundant to comment upon the development of goal statements and objectives in a publication directed toward leaders in education, yet it may be helpful to point out the fact that the statements should be clearly stated and readily understood. If one cannot clearly state the purpose of an activity, or if one cannot identify the relationship between a specific accomplishment and long-term goals, time will be wasted. When working with groups, it is especially important that objectives be dealt with carefully.

Huse (1979) emphasized the need for specific, understandable group objectives. Attainable, measurable objectives are required to focus the activities of individuals within a group. Group commitment to the objectives is a prerequisite to their accomplishment; the anticipated outcomes should be valued by the group members.

Ordering Priorities

Once the structure of goals and objectives has been identified in one's professional life at the moment, it is possible to proceed to establish priorities for their accomplishment. This problem may be approached by grouping large numbers of objectives into categories called "top priority," "medium priority," and "low priority." Such a rough sort will usually result in a large number of "top priority" items, since few people assign low priority to any of their closely-held goals.

A more promising technique is a simple rank-ordering of the statements. One starts by identifying the most important statement, then moves to the next most important, and so on through the list. While this approach forces one to make uncomfortable choices, and will therefore frequently be avoided if possible, it can be a powerful assistant in getting control of one's use of time. The underlying principle is that one should always be working on the most important task in the goal structure. If this is to be accomplished, it is necessary that the most important task be identified so it can be kept in mind as a guide to professional activity.

The dilemma is obvious when attempts are made to assign top priority to several items. Only one can be most important, so the process must be continued until the most important is identified and the relative ranking of the other objectives determined. The advantage of this procedure is that the devotion of planning time to the determination of objectives can become an efficient guide to working intelligently toward the accomplishment of one's goals. If the top priority is to recruit students for a program, and if one is spending large amounts of time reading routine reports or attending low-priority meetings, then it is quickly apparent that time management can contribute to the attainment of one's goals.

Priority-setting is not a comfortable task, nor is it easy to learn. It must simply be tried and applied, then repeated with enough regularity to enable one to be comfortable with it. The simple question: "What do I most want to accomplish?" will help guide the thought processes through the maze of decisions. Until priorities are set, it is futile to seek to improve one's time management techniques, since the tendency would be to do the wrong things more efficiently. Time management techniques are only helpful when they are directed toward the efficient accomplishment of important tasks.

Problem Analysis

In any activity there are obstacles to the attainment of the objectives. The problem or problems must be identified accurately. For example, an administrator may be concerned about a high turnover rate among his staff; however, this is probably only a symptom of the real underlying problem. The situation cannot be improved until the underlying problem is identified.

Once priorities have been established, it may be helpful to identify obstacles which are obviously restricting the attainment of objectives. This, too, is a reflective activity which may seem counterproductive when one is attempting to improve work efficiency. Careful problem identification can permit one to understand barriers to accomplishment. Some of the barriers are usually related to time management, but many others will be closely tied to group processes, organizational restrictions, and skill demands. Where ineffective use of working time is a problem, the techniques in this chapter can be helpful. Other problems require a different approach.

PLANNING

Once goals, objectives, and priorities have been determined, the next step in effective time management is planning. While many professionals synchronize their planning with the predetermined aspects of their lives, their class schedules, semester calendars, or list of deadlines, it is far more effective to center planning around the attainment of personal and professional goals. Once one accepts the primacy of the individual goal structure, planning can assist in allocating time for the attainment of high priority goals while meeting the demands of the professional career.

Long-Term Planning

The first step in planning should be the development of a long-range plan for attaining personal and professional goals. Since most important goals require concerted effort over a substantial period of time for their attainment, provision must be made to devote an adequate portion of one's days, weeks, and years to activities directed toward those goals. Most significant accomplishments require regular effort over a period of months or years; time must be allocated to these activities if one is to make appropriate progress toward the goals.

Long-range planning may be in terms of a period of several years or a shorter period of several months to a year. As a first step in long-range planning, a period of three to five years makes a good unit for development. Significant goals for the time period can be listed, prioritized, and time estimates for each can be formulated. The sequence of objectives to be met and tasks to be accomplished can be placed within the time structure to guide the planning of shorter units of time. For example, if the three-year goal is the establishment of a new university curriculum, the steps in course development and approval, faculty recruitment, student recruitment, and equipment purchase can be sequenced into appropriate intervals. Adequate professional effort needs to be allocated to each step of the sequence to insure its accomplishment if the goal is to be attained at the desired time.

Consistent, rational long-range planning related to professional goals is a prerequisite to the effective use of time. However, it is a difficult task; one which many professionals avoid. Once goals are clearly stated and structured in a priority framework, detailed time planning can begin in a meaningful way.

Short-Range Planning

The usual unit of time planning is the working day. The daily plan is easy to conceptualize, can be readily noted on a calendar or pocket diary, and can be followed with some degree of success by most practitioners. For most purposes, however, it is best to consider the working week as the basic unit for short-range planning. In higher education this is especially relevant, since there is considerable variation from day to day in the time available for the accomplishment of the various goals in the time management plan. While there is considerable variation from week to week as well, the weekly cycle of activities provides an effective unit for planning; one which can be kept in mind even while attention is paid to daily detail.

The effective weekly plan is based upon progress toward the prioritized objectives in the goal structure of the long-range plan. For each of the major tasks in the long-range plan, regular checkpoints should be established. An expectation should be established for the accomplishment of tasks related to each of the objectives during the week. To use the example of the new university-level curriculum again, the task of developing new course proposals may consume several weeks, since such an activity is usually carried out while other responsibilities are being met. The short-term plan for the week should indicate where one expects to be at the end of the week with respect to the preparation of the proposals: a rough draft of one course outline; a faculty discussion of the content for another course; and teacher education council approval of the curriculum framework might be expectations for a specific week (Mackenzie, 1978).

The important point in short-term planning is to see to it that time is made available for the accomplishment of all high priority long-term goals. If no progress can be made on a high priority goal during the week being planned, the plan should be reexamined immediately to see how it can be modified to provide for some level of progress on all important areas of activity. Daily planning should not be permitted to take over until the weekly plan has been examined to see that the week's work will contribute to long-range goals. Daily planning moves to expedient responses to immediate pressures if it is not conducted within the goal-structured framework of weekly and long-range plans.

Once the weekly plan has been established, the daily plan should be constructed, beginning with those commitments which must be met. Classes, meetings with one's superior, and significant appointments should be scheduled. Then, time should be allocated for the accomplishment of the weekly plan, including time for conferences with individuals vital to the activities to be conducted, library time, individual time for writing, telephoning, or reading, and time for planning. Appointments or office hours, time for running errands, lunches with colleagues, and optional meetings should be scheduled next. A caveat: some time must be left unscheduled each day or the loss of flexibility in the use of working time will quickly make the best time management plan unworkable. Many people find it best to leave an hour unscheduled at or near the end of the day. That way, they have the confidence that they can achieve their daily objectives even if an interruption occurs during one of their high priority activities early in the day.

Time Analysis

When one becomes serious about improving effectiveness in time management, it becomes necessary to establish some benchmark from which to measure progress. One of the most useful techniques is the time log, which enables the individual to record the actual use of time during the working day. Some provision is made for recording the activity of the moment at regular intervals, such as writing down what one is doing at each quarter hour, or a list is maintained of each activity with starting and ending times, either by writing down the change in activity or by dictating notes to a recording device. Such an analysis of actual time use is usually avoided, since it distracts one from the actual objectives of the working day; still, it is the only way to identify where one is actually spending working time, unless the task can be assigned to an unbiased observer.

Most professionals are surprised at the poor match between their objectives for the day, their perceptions of their time allocations, and the logs of their actual use of time during the working day. While many complain about interruptions, few are consciously aware of the ways they have invented to squander their working time. An honestly kept log can record what is actually going on at different times in the day, how long one spends on telephone calls of peripheral value to prioritized goals, and how little working time is devoted to the critical tasks. Such an analysis is usually necessary before effective daily planning can be instituted. The poor time utilization habits which need to be changed usually must be identified by the individual; no one else can convince the professional that time is being expended in inappropriate directions.

Planning Systems

A wide variety of time organizing aids is available commercially. These range in complexity from the simple desk or pocket calendar to quite comprehensive systems which include goal setting forms, monthly planners, weekly organizers, and daily checklists, all organized within a functional use and storage module. When embarking upon a new program of time management, one should examine these systems for features of particular value in the specific situation.

Some aspects of the time organization system are matters of individual preference. Others impose unnecessary limitations. The system should be readily accessible to the individual, yet provide for enough information to avoid conflicts and missed appointments. If the system is so elaborate or bulky that it is kept on the desk in the office, it is of little help when needed while traveling, at a meeting, or at home.

Perhaps the best system centers around the pocket calendar-appointment book-address-and-telephone list which is carried in a man's jacket pocket. This basic unit may be supplemented by secretarial desk calendars, long-range planning aids, and checklists. The basic principle is simple: as much as possible of the time organizing information should be at hand at all times.

For the planning system to work at all, it must be available and used to guide activities throughout the day and week. If only a shirt-pocket sized book will be kept in possession, it should be substituted for the larger model, even though planning must be somewhat more deliberate with the smaller format. The pocket calendar must also be synchronized frequently with the calendars of others who have the responsibility of assisting in scheduling: one's secretary, assistant, colleague, or supervisor.

The efficient planning system will integrate the use of time within the day with long-range plans. It permits the professional to meet the demands of the day without sacrificing progress toward long-range goals. Missed appointments can be minimized, time allocations honored in accordance with the plan, and commitments for time in the future made without serious interruption of on-going activities. (Zucker, 1980)

ANTICIPATION

A major tool in time planning is the anticipation of possible outcomes, the readiness to respond when circumstances change. In most professional situations, the number of alternatives which may be pursued at any moment is quite large. The freedom of action of the professional career enables an individual to work with relative freedom from supervision toward goals which are largely of the individual's own choosing. As a consequence, it is possible for the individual to anticipate actions which will require substantial time budgets and to meet those demands without stress.

On any given Friday afternoon, the individual may have an opportunity to go home early, get in a round of golf, go camping, take in an extended happy hour in a local establishment, catch up on professional correspondence, begin to outline an article, visit a colleague's classroom, view an art exhibit, read several professional journals which have arrived during the week, grade research papers which have been accumulating throughout the semester, return telephone calls, plan a conference to be held next year, or plan the use of professional time during the week ahead and review the ways the past week has contributed to the attainment of professional goals in the long-range plan. Effective use of anticipation requires that some time, perhaps the Friday afternoon in question, be devoted to planning which anticipates the outcome of the variety of activities which might be considered. In this thought pattern, it is possible to plan events and bring them to pass; one is not at the mercy of chance occurrences.

In general, crisis situations occur when the individuals responsible for planning fail to anticipate. By reviewing the alternatives likely to occur and planning a course of action to follow in each situation, the planner can arrange for effective action and the avoidance of crises. Every crisis brings the possibility of substantial time loss and counterproductive action. Alternatives should be chosen to minimize negative effects of unusual situations; wherever possible, a course of action should be chosen which will handle the situation and move the professional toward the long-range goals which have priority.

Examples of the need for anticipation may not be immediately obvious. They include plans for a course of action with regard to a research proposal which may be: (1) fully funded; (2) partially funded; (3) not funded; or (4) funded after the proposed starting date. The efficient leader should have contingency plans in mind and on paper for each of the possible alternatives. Since prompt action is required to stay within the time frame of most proposed funded activities, these plans must be made in advance. Personnel allocations, budget implications, and alternative assignments should be worked out in advance with full attention to the effect each will have upon the attainment of professional goals.

Proper anticipation of alternative courses of action is also fundamental to the training of others to perform in the organization. The management of action depends upon the contingencies within which the action is to occur. All persons who are responsible for part of the activities to be initiated in the event of a specific situation should understand in advance what their roles will be and how they will determine when they should assume those roles. Teamwork is then possible even under the stress of short deadlines and near emergency conditions as these may prevail when budgets or other requests must be prepared on short notice, plans for outside funding need rapid adjustment, enrollments fail to meet projections, or one or more members of the professional team resign with short notice.

Effective anticipation of probable outcomes can be a powerful tool in time management. It may be helpful to write, in flow chart or other form, probable outcomes in the vital activities in the long-term plan. By plotting the alternatives and planning appropriate action in the event of each outcome, crisis management and its accompanying error can be avoided. The anticipatory manager can proceed, unruffled, through a variety of events which could otherwise result in large quantities of time being devoted to crisis management, staff meetings, and sporadic flurries of inappropriate action.

DELEGATION

No person can do everything which is expected; yet many leaders seem to feel that only they are qualified to perform many tasks. Effective time management requires that this attitude be conquered so others can do as many tasks as possible in support of one's professional objectives.

Mackenzie (1972) pointed out the need to *manage*, rather than *do* if one is to achieve the maximum potential of any executive position. Perhaps educational managers are especially prone to avoid delegation, since most of them feel quite competent in performing tasks which could be assigned to others—after all, they have done those tasks for years. Whatever the barrier to delegation, insecurity, perfectionism, lack of organizational skill, or urgency, the leader must learn to delegate to supporting staff as much of the work load as possible.

Clear identification of tasks which can be delegated, selection of the best person to perform the tasks, and the development of clear instructions for performance of the task should precede any delegation to a subordinate. The manager should then give clear instructions to the subordinate, provide for feedback at appropriate intervals, and set clear deadlines for the accomplishment of the tasks (Mackenzie and Waldo, 1981). By expanding the task force through delegation, the effective leader can concentrate the efforts of an entire work group upon a task which would otherwise require substantial amounts of personal effort and time.

Reverse delegation is a major time-waster for many administrators. If subordinates try to avoid risk, fear criticism, lack information or lack confidence, they may seek to obtain the information directly from the supervisor rather than make decisions themselves. Similarly, if one is unable to refuse requests for help, subordinates will continue to bring their problems for solution, rather than resolve them. Persons who want others to need them intensely also attract reverse delegation. Perhaps the best guide for the manager whose subordinates keep bringing problems for answers is the question: what is your recommendation? If subordinates are not solving problems, they need training, confidence, or reassurance. It is a clear waste of time for the educational manager to do any task which can be performed by another.

Failure to delegate effectively, follow up promptly, and utilize the talents of support personnel fully is a serious handicap to effective time management. Perhaps industrial educators are more effective "do-it-yourselfers" than professionals in other areas; in any case, they are unusually susceptible to the failure to delegate. Curing the delegation problem can substantially increase one's effectiveness in moving toward personal and professional goals.

STANDARD OPERATING PROCEDURES

The establishment of standard operating procedures for most regularly recurring tasks enables one to do those tasks with a high level of efficiency. Basic habits enable an individual to perform useful tasks quickly, with a minimum of physical or mental exertion; standard procedures enable the professional to conquer routine and focus creative efforts upon goal-oriented activities which hold higher value for the future.

Individual habits play an important role in establishing such procedures. For instance, the individual who establishes the habit pattern of starting to work early in the day, working on the most important task until it is completed, and working continuously and consistently, has managed to conquer a number of time management problems before they occur. Just giving careful attention to the formulation and selection of effective operating procedures will substantially improve the time management effectiveness of most educational leaders.

Routines

Most work consists of carrying out routines: answering the telephone, sorting through and responding to the mail, responding to deadlines, and preparing reports for the organization or institution. Basic time management procedures require the establishment of efficient routines, even if they are not especially comfortable when they are first implemented. Effective routines require the individual to focus upon the most important portions of the task, to eliminate unnecessary (even though enjoyable) activities, and to move expeditiously to the completion of the task.

Routines may also involve selective neglect: the avoidance of time expenditures upon tasks which will not contribute substantially to the accomplishment of the professional goals currently in force. Activities which may be quite appropriate for the professional during one stage of a career may become counterproductive during a later stage, when they must be discarded so time may be devoted to more important activities. Examples include detailed reading of positions available columns after a satisfactory position has been obtained (and when a more appropriate goal would be advancement in the new position) to spending time in pursuits popular among graduate students (bull sessions at the local pub, avoidance of involvement with the institution, or identification of minimum requirements) when the more appropriate goal-oriented behavior focuses upon career-advancement techniques.

Procedures

The appropriate way to do most tasks may be established by the organization, the work group, or by the individual. When a number of people must work together, some boundaries must be established to guide practice. These norms must be communicated to all persons who need to use the procedures, and the manager must follow through to see that all persons actually follow the established procedures. This is frequently a troublesome area in higher education, where many professionals insist upon their right, if not their freedom, to follow their own procedures. It is folly for the manager to permit individualization of procedures which affect all group members when standardization would save time for all persons involved. It is much more appropriate to be certain that all persons are informed of correct procedures (and this may take more than one telling), than to be certain that the procedures are implemented. Time spent deciphering unique individual approaches to routine can then be diverted to more important activities.

The Work Area

If one is to work effectively, it is imperative that the working environment be organized to permit efficient activity. Careful organization of one's desk, filing system, bookshelves, and office area can expedite effective performance.

The room should be pleasant, as attractive as may reasonably be attained in the surroundings, yet it need not be a center of aesthetic interest to enhance efficient work. The importance of order to the efficient use of working time is the primary criterion to be utilized in organizing the working space. Therefore, the flow of the work to be done in the area should provide the primary guidance for the development of the area. If large numbers of visitors must be accommodated to meet the demands of the job, it is imperative to provide ready access for them, comfortable seating for them, and a place where they can carry on their activities. While accommodations for visitors can vary from one uncomfortable straight chair through upholstered sofas and chairs to a full-fledged conference table, the general guideline should be to provide the smallest amount of visitor space which can be tolerated within the requirements of the job. If additional space is available, it will frequently be occupied by individuals who accompany the person(s) who really need to work with the occupant of the work space. It is probably more efficient to conduct meetings of more than three persons outside the primary working space to avoid the delays and interruptions as individuals gather at the beginning of a meeting and chat at the end of it. A separate conference room is most efficient for meetings of larger groups; the administrator can work in privacy in his nearby office until the group is assembled and ready to begin work on the task at hand.

The Filing System

Filing systems should be simple if time is to be saved in storing and retrieving information. Opinions differ on the type of files which are most useful; however, there are considerable advantages in having a filing system maintained by the administrator rather than one maintained by the support staff. This seems to negate the principle of delegation, but actually saves time. In the first place, the administrator should not file any papers which can be discarded; therefore, the contents of the files should include only those items of substantial importance and which will be needed frequently by the administrator. These items should, therefore, be located in close proximity to the usual work station. When they are needed, the professional should be able to reach directly into the filing system to obtain the needed information, without fidgeting while waiting for a staff person to retrieve the documents.

Most administrators, however, prefer to have the majority of their files maintained by support personnel. If this is to be done successfully, a clear-cut system must be developed so all persons who have access to the files know where documents are to be filed and where they may be found. A carefully developed list of mutually exclusive and totally inclusive categories must be developed for the filing categories; these need to be coded in a standardized way. A consistent pattern in filing is dependent upon thorough training and consistent practice; these are difficult criteria in an era when clerical workers are difficult to find, hire, and retain.

Once appropriate standard operating procedures are established, the professional has managed to routinize a large portion of the work load. Since the work week is structured so much of the detail is handled in a very consistent way, it is possible to delegate a large portion of the routine with high confidence that it will be performed in the desired way. If no one is available to perform much of the routine (a state of affairs that seems more typical than unusual) it is possible for the professional to move through the routine quickly and at a time which leaves prime time available for more creative endeavors.

The standard procedures remove doubt about the time to start the working day, the way to respond to certain categories of mail, the proper location for a file, and the techniques for handling a telephone caller. After clarifying the procedure so work is performed efficiently, it is important to avoid the pitfalls associated with appealing ways to spend the time which has been so carefully saved for important activity. The discussion now turns to an exploration of the ways of handling the common time wasters.

CONQUERING TIME WASTERS

A substantial portion of each working day is devoted to a variety of time wasting techniques. While there is considerable variation from person to person in the proportion of time spent on specific time wasters, the procedures included in this section seem to have wide application among professionals in industrial arts education.

Most time wasters have the potential to be effective tools for time management. However, they have insidious appeal for application far beyond the degree required for the attainment of professional goals. When they become dominant as consumers of time rather than serving as effective aids in accomplishing objectives, their use should be reexamined and controlled.

Telephone Interruptions

For many professionals, the telephone is both an important time saver and a major time waster. While it is possible to use the telephone to save large quantities of time by using it to avoid travel or writing long letters or memoranda, it is even easier to allow the use of the telephone to occupy a large portion of the work time with only minimal results. Most persons are too accessible by telephone to be fully efficient; they use telephone conversations as a means of socializing within the work space and time. They may fail to recognize the fact that they are sabotaging the attainment of their own goals when they permit themselves to be drawn into telephone conversations which should be conducted by others on their staffs.

To deal with these problems requires a high level of self-discipline. One must decide to use the telephone for the attainment of one's goals, and avoid its use or limit its use when the conversation is counterproductive. Whenever possible, calls should be screened by a receptionist who is trained to ask the caller enough questions to determine who is calling, what the problem is, and whether another person can more appropriately handle the call. While many callers want to talk to the person in charge, it is neither practical nor necessary that they do so if another individual can meet the expectations of the call. Social calls from family and friends can consume substantial portions of one's work time; it may be necessary to retrain these people to call at less demanding times. It is frequently necessary to limit the time devoted to such conversations if one is to work efficiently, since one's circle of friends and relatives would be willing to talk for a large proportion of the day if the opportunity is made available.

Positive methods for improving the contribution of the telephone to time management include: being available for telephone calls during a specific portion of the day; referring callers to others whenever possible; returning calls at a specific time each day; having relevant information at hand when returning calls (which means that the person taking the callback message must also record the subject of the conversation); standing while talking to be more effective as a speaker and to limit the time in the conversation; summarizing what has been agreed upon during the conversation before concluding it; and developing an effective means of limiting the conversation of dedicated visitors, perhaps by thanking them for calling and indicating an anticipation of the next step in the interaction.

Drop-in Visitors

Professionals who spend large proportions of their working time in an office setting frequently find that they cannot accomplish the work they plan to do because of the large number of persons who stop by. Whether the individual wants to raise an important question or is just on the way to a cup of coffee, the interruption is equally damaging to the concentration of the manager. Some means of control must be established to control interruptions by drop-in visitors if time management is to be practiced effectively.

As a first step, many leaders insist upon appointments and schedule those appointments *around* their own prime working time. This technique is only effective if the appointments are made by a secretary; that individual must have the power to make appointments once a reasonable need has been established for the meeting. The appointment should be scheduled only with the appropriate person: the person who can resolve the problems identified in the appointment-making discussion. Where possible, the educational leader should delegate clear responsibility for solving problems to appropriate staff members. The secretary can then refer the visitor to the person who can solve the problem in the shortest amount of time and with the least disruption of professional activities.

The traditional open-door policy maintained by many administrators is counter-productive when students, clients, colleagues, and staff members use the ready availability of the superior to their own advantage. Frequently, socialization is a substitute for professional accomplishment in this setting. While social activity is certainly desirable, it should not take precedence over goal-oriented activity in the professional setting. Each individual must develop an acceptable method of controlling access to the work setting, either by establishing specific time periods when no appointment is necessary, by seeing others only by appointment, by restricting the length and impact of the interruptions, or by establishing times when no interruption is possible. A secretary who can signal when fifteen minutes have elapsed or a readily visible clock are useful in shortening office visits.

Stand-up meetings tend to be relatively shorter than sit-down meetings; frequently time can be saved simply by not seating the visitor. It is easier to terminate a discussion if it is held in the other person's office, especially when it is prefaced with a comment indicating the brevity of the time available to conduct the business at hand. Therefore, one way to handle the drop-in visitor is to reverse the situation by offering to drop by their office when the work at hand is finished.

For many professionals on university campuses, the only workable alternative is the establishment of a separate refuge: a carrel in the campus library, an office in the home, or a hideaway on campus. Some even find that they can accomplish more when working in a restaurant or coffee shop than they can at their regular desks where they are too readily accessible. Such drastic measures may not be needed if more effective control is exerted over the drop-in visitors and their time demands.

Meetings

Meetings are high on the list of activities which consume managerial time. While many individuals complain about the expenditure of their time for participation in meetings, they tend to waste the time of others in their own meetings. Both problems deserve attention here.

Leaders responsible for planning and conducting meetings owe their participants a planned session, with a clear-cut purpose and agenda, at a convenient time and place, involving only those people who need to be there. They should set a time limit which is realistic, start the meeting on time, and use sound leadership techniques to keep the discussion on target. Consensus or action steps should be reached as soon as they can be reasonably attained, and the meeting adjourned promptly. Such a procedure encourages participants to postpone less critical discussion until after the session, perhaps over refreshments, while those whose schedules require them to be elsewhere can move on to meet their obligations.

Start on time. There is rarely an acceptable reason for failing to start a meeting on time. If a minor revision in the agenda is necessary to permit an individual or event to arrive, the adjustment should be made without fanfare.

Keep a time schedule. By allocating time for each of the agenda items, the meeting can accomplish its objectives. If it is apparent that an item cannot be dealt with adequately in the time available, it is frequently best to assign someone the task of gathering data, formulating alternatives, and suggesting action at the next meeting, when time can again be assigned to that item on the agenda (Wallack, 1977).

Use an agenda. Meetings are generally most effective when they have a specific purpose and when everyone understands what that purpose is. Distribute the agenda in advance so participants can be prepared. If an individual in the group is to provide significant presentation on one of the agenda items, be sure it is anticipated. Background information should accompany the agenda so all attendees can be prepared to participate actively in the discussion and decision making.

Invite only those who need to be there. It is an unnecessary waste of professional time and effort to ask individuals to attend meetings as observers, unless they are seeking to learn how that specific group works. Only those persons who need to have input on the decisions at hand should be in attendance. This is especially important in the working group, where communication is frequently hampered by the presence of others.

Keep minutes. Designate one person to keep concise records of all decisions reached during the meeting. Brief, accurate minutes should be distributed promptly after a meeting. If decisions require action, the minutes should indicate who will take the action, and the time frame within which it is to be accomplished. The minutes also should indicate the time and place of the next meeting of continuing groups, as well as the agenda items held over for action at subsequent meetings.

Attending Meetings

One of the best time management techniques for use by the administrator is the question: must I go? Unnecessary meeting attendance is the bane of professional accomplishment. It is far better not to go than to attend meetings with an obviously disinterested air; to read one's mail; to do other work; or to create the contention that so frequently accompanies alienated attendance at a group session.

What if one must attend and needs to minimize the time spent at the session? One of the most satisfactory techniques is the request to the chairman, prior to the meeting, to have those items on the agenda which are of particular importance to you be the ones considered during the time you can devote to the meeting. While the status of the requestor may not always enable the attainment of this objective, it can frequently be accomplished simply by asking.

Persons attending meetings as participants have the obligation to study the agenda and supporting documents prior to the session so time will not be wasted bringing them up-to-date on issues or problems. They should expect to participate, both as active listeners and as speakers, with the intent of assisting the group reach its objectives within the time available.

One should arrive at the meeting informed, alert, and ready to participate in discussion, consensus building, and decision making. In the interests of time management, however, it is important to avoid lengthy discourse during meetings; brevity is the essence of effective participation. When it is obvious that one is on the winning side, it is easy to be brief; when one is clearly going to lose, it is difficult to refrain from pointing out the obvious accuracy of one's position in substantial detail. Such useless expressions of self-centered behavior, the submission of minority reports, and other techniques designed to delay action are rarely appreciated by colleagues whose time is also being expended in the process.

Procrastination

Both time and effort are squandered by procrastination. The combination of factors which enable an otherwise productive administrator to avoid beginning, continuing, or completing a task not only wastes time, it also creates a variety of other problems. The most effective use of time is the direct, purposeful attack on the task at hand. When one avoids timely work on a task, deadlines may be missed, with the concomitant loss of status for the person responsible; work may be done hurriedly at the last minute, with substantial reduction in quality of performance; or a task may be started several times without bringing it to completion, with a high level of inefficiency in the working arrangement. Sometimes one is simply too perfectionistic to accept the quality of work which can be accomplished within a reasonable time available for the task—such perfectionism is a major waster of professional time.

It may help to allocate a specific amount of time for the accomplishment of a task (based upon its priority, its difficulty, and the time available for its execution) and simply concentrate upon its completion. The product achieved within the available time must then be accepted as adequate, and no further time expended on it.

IMPROVING TIME MANAGEMENT

The ultimate goal of this chapter is the improvement of the time management procedures used by the readers. However, only the readers can take such action. This section includes some specific suggestions which are intended both as a summary to the chapter and as a basis set of time management guidelines.

Barriers to Effective Time Management

Administrators may avoid managing their time effectively because of their beliefs in the importance of other determinants of managerial success. LeBoeuf (1980) identified twelve such irrational beliefs:

> The more you sweat, the more you get.
> Activity means productivity.
> Efficiency means effectiveness.
> Burn the midnight oil.
> The best way to get the job done is to do it yourself.
> The easy way is the best way.
> Hard work is virtuous.
> Work is not fun.
> There is only one best way.
> More discipline means less freedom.
> Justice for all.
> We work best under pressure.

Such erroneous beliefs can only lead to ineffective behavior. Changing the beliefs is not easy, but must precede the restructuring of one's activities to manage time more effectively.

Improving Work-Time Effectiveness

One of the most basic suggestions is the development of the ability to work anywhere, so even a few spare moments of waiting can be put to productive use (Taylor, 1979). Whether one is travelling, attending a meeting, or has a few free minutes in the office, the available time can be turned to useful purpose with proper planning (Lee and Pierce, 1980). Being ready to use bits and pieces of time effectively means that one needs to have some highly important work available; so a brief case, pocket calendar, note pad, and portable dictating machine need to become routine company. Instead of simply reflecting upon one's problems, concentrated attention can be brought to bear upon current activities while waiting for the automobile to be repaired, the dentist to be ready for his appointment, or the delayed flight to arrive. Many important objectives can be achieved in time that would otherwise be spent aimlessly.

Writing should be avoided if dictation is possible. If one cannot dictate because equipment is unavailable, typing should be used rather than longhand, since the speed is significantly higher with a bit of practice, and legibility is immeasurably better. Strenski (1979) pointed out the immense time savings which can result from the use of a word processor; the leader may want to use one directly, rather than doing written work the traditional way: write or dictate; wait; revise drafts; wait; proofread; wait; request copies; wait. Direct use of the word processor can eliminate uncertainties and waiting periods, while enabling the author to maintain continuous contact with the work. Extreme interest in the mechanics of word processing, however, can easily lead the manager into a wasteful use of time performing an easily delegated task.

Reduce the amount of time spent on paperwork by sorting papers into three categories: those which require action; those which must be processed (read, passed on, or filed); and those which are to be discarded. Delegate as much responsibility as possible, then concentrate effort upon the first category (Douglass and Douglass, 1979). A similar categorization of tasks to do can help identify the important tasks and reduce time spent on easy, but unimportant tasks. It helps to use Lakein's Questions: "What is the best use of my time right now?" (Lakein, 1973, p. 96)

Whenever possible, use activities to reach two goals at once. Morgan (1981) suggested the preparation of a journal article from an outstanding classroom presentation or a funded project, and the writing of texts based on successful courses. Given the large number of tasks to be accomplished, this is an appropriate technique to increase output without substantially increasing the workload.

While a lot has been written about individual rhythms and their effect upon productivity, administrators tend to overlook their own rhythms in planning their working time. Winston (1978) suggested capitalizing upon one's peak productivity times to do the most difficult tasks; she also suggested doing shorter and less difficult tasks at times when productivity is at a low ebb. It also may be worthwhile to attempt to increase the length of the high-productivity cycle to relocate it to coincide with the times of peak demand in one's professional situation, or to reduce the frequency and duration of the low-productivity periods. Individuals can modify many behavioral attributes simply by paying attention to the factors which seem to affect the behavior and modifying them as necessary to produce the desired results.

Effective time management can enable the educational leader to increase productivity without increasing the effort devoted to the career. It can improve the output of the individual and the work group. Effective use of time management principles enables the manager of professionals to facilitate the attainment of individual goals and of the shared goals of the group.

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Chapter 14

Coping With the Stress of Leadership: Leaders—Followers—Organizations

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INTRODUCTION

The industrial arts educational leader who succeeds copes most effectively with stress. By definition, stress coping relates to various principles, conceptualizations, and ideas about maintaining individual and group well-being. Regardless of its general nature, however, stress comes from an inability to adopt, or adapt, to specific conflicting demands. The triggering of these competing forces, called stressors, will vary among leaders and also among group members. The objective for the creative leader is to become aware of the stressors and to learn how to tolerate, reduce, and manage them effectively. Failure to control excessive stress, called distress, results in lowering personal and professional performance. Distress indicators for an individual may include an increased error rate in carrying out a task, reduced overall productivity, lowered ability to get along with others, and the added possibility of incurring numerous health problems.

The industrial arts educator who encounters the difficulty of distress, and yet aspires to serve others better (leadership), can increase his or her effectiveness and health by learning how to cope with and overcome this malingering hindrance. The best approach for an aspiring leader is to internalize a positive attitude toward managing stress situations and be able to function under conflicting external pressures.

Stress *cannot* be prevented. However, as Edelwich and Brodsky (1980) stated, while "it is useless to try to prevent it, individuals and organizations can still learn to manage it consciously and use it as a source of creative energy" (p. 39). The important idea is for the leader and followers to learn how to grade and direct their stress behaviors so the best possible results can occur. Edelwich and Brodsky (1980) added, "One cannot smooth out the surf, but one can ride the waves—if one sees them coming" (p. 39).

Overall, what causes a person the greatest stress? Giammateo and Giammateo (1980) stated that the greatest stress comes from situations when an event's importance or the amount of ego involvement challenges an individual's personal and professional self-esteem. How violently or calmly a person reacts to stress is strictly personal. "Stress makes some people tick and other stop ticking" (Giammateo and Giammateo, 1980, p. 2).

The purpose of this chapter is to enable industrial arts educators to reach their fullest potential as leaders. The possibility of achieving this goal can be enhanced by learning how to "ride the waves" of excessive stress through increased knowledge and skill. A model for comprehending the significance of stress and how an industrial arts educational leader can deal with it more effectively is provided in the following four sections:

1. Stress and some common characteristics.
2. Stress and the work environment interaction.
3. Techniques to tolerate and reduce individual stress.
4. Leadership in managing organizational stress.

SECTION I: STRESS AND SOME COMMON CHARACTERISTICS

What Is Stress?

There are as many different definitions of stress as there are sources on the subject (Greenberg and Valetutti, 1980). Hans Selye

(1974), considered the father of stress research, referred to stress as the General Adaptation Syndrome (GAS), the body's typical mechanism of response to disease and other stressors. He defined stress as the state which manifests itself in the GAS and as a nonspecific response of the body to any demand made upon it. Stress is the essence of life. "Without stress there is no life" (Selye, 1974, p. 24). A working definition of stress as a transactional model (a complex and dynamic system of interaction between a person and the environment) has been supplied by Cox (1978): "Stress, it is argued, can only be sensibly defined as a perceptual phenomenon arising from a comparison between the demand on the person and his ability to cope. An imbalance in this mechanism, when coping is important, gives rise to the experience of stress, and to stress response" (p. 25). A similar but somewhat different definition of stress involves the holistic approach. Girdano and Everly (1979) defined it as "a fairly predictable arousal of psycho-physiological (mind-body) systems which, if prolonged, can fatigue or damage the system to the point of malfunction and disease" (p. 5).

A Positive Side of Stress

One of the myths about stress is that it should be totally reduced. This statement is wrong. Understimulation is just as stressful as overstimulation (Tanner et al., 1976; Girdano and Everly, 1979). Some people, according to Smith (1980), are stress seekers while others are stress givers. When things are too quiet, they begin to create diversity and challenging situations. These stress seekers give ulcers rather than get them. They have fewer "hangups," breakdowns, or heart attacks than others. For example, world-class athletes fit the stress-seeker category (Tanner et. al., 1976). Through the never ending struggle for perfection, these great performers deliberately expose themselves to stressful conditions. Humans need stimulation through controlled stress to meet performance needs. If it were not for psychological rewards from students, teachers would not prepare. If it were not for tests, students would not study.

Some Common Characteristics of Stress

The literature supports several commonalities about human stress. The next items reveal several of those common factors.

1. Some stress is necessary to well-being and lack of it is harmful (Cox, 1978).
2. Stress makes some people perform and others stop performing (Giammateo and Giammateo, 1980).

3. Stress may not be as large a factor in cardiovascular disease as many once thought (Blythe, 1973).
4. Stress is definitely a high contributor to hypertension, migraine, hay fever and allergies, asthma, peptic ulcers, colitis, arthritis, diabetes, skin disorders, cancer, and tuberculosis (Blythe, 1973, p. 28).
5. Severe stress makes people accident prone, but modern city stressors cause no more harm than old-fashioned country ones. The stressors are just different (Tanner, 1976).
6. Natural disaster stress can have a beneficial effect on a group (Tanner, 1976).
7. Stress affects all ages, the young as well as the old (Tanner, 1976).
8. Mid-management has more stress than top administration. Stress is higher for those who work less and lack participation in decision making (Greenwood and Greenwood, 1979).
9. Teachers have more stress than principals (Smith, 1980).
10. Stress on the job is due to how people react to the stressors that exist within their work environment (Cox, 1978).

As a result of assimilating the information in Section I, an operational definition for stress in this chapter is "any force, element, or factor that hinders the dynamics of creative leadership from functioning within the leader-follower-organization situation." The essence of industrial arts leadership is to reach the highest possible performance. Dealing intelligently with stress can enhance that possibility of achieving intended results.

SECTION II: STRESS AND THE WORK ENVIRONMENT INTERACTION

Individual Stress and the Work Environment

The ability of an individual to function effectively in a work environment is a personal matter. It specifically relates to a person's physical, psychological, and social ability to cope with the forces operating in the work setting. Cox (1980) concurred when he stated the following:

> Coping is both psychological (involving cognitive and behavioral strategies) and physiological. If normal coping is ineffective, stress is prolonged and abnormal responses may occur. The occurrence

> of these, and prolonged exposure to stress per se, may give rise to functional and structural damage. The progress of these events is subject to great individual variation. (p. 25)

As work demands on an individual increase, personal capabilities must move in to maintain a balanced sense of well-being. If an individual's capabilities fail to match the work demands, an imbalance will result which creates stress and a possible loss of well-being. A person who consistently experiences excess work demands can fatigue or damage the human system to the point of malfunction and disease. MacKay and Cox (1978) agreed when they stated that when a person's job environment misfits the individual's well-being, stress will occur and be manifested in job dissatisfaction, anxiety, and physiological problems. Accordingly, stress occurs when the industrial arts educator's abilities are incongruent with the demands of the job environment, or where clear obstacles exist to fulfilling strong personal needs and values.

Work overload is typical for educators. French and Caplan (1973) differentiated overload in terms of quantitative and qualitative means. The former refers to "too much to do" while the latter denotes the work is "too difficult." When French et al. (1965) reviewed quantitative and qualitative work overload of professors and administrators in large universities, they found some rather interesting results. As the demand for quality work increased, the self-esteem of professors significantly decreased, while for administrators it did not. Quantitative work overload did not significantly alter self-esteem for either professors or administrators. Regardless of academic rank, tenure/non-tenure faculty and administrators are experiencing increasing work demands in both quantity and quality. They must deal with increased accountability, do more and better research, and excel in teaching skills.

A portrait of the interaction between a worker and the job environment was drawn by Edelwich and Brodsky (1980). They conducted hundreds of interviews with workers in the human services professions and found a process of disillusionment (burn out) that commonly occurs in the following stages:

1. Enthusiasm—Initial period of high hope, high energy, and unrealistic expectations. Hazards of this stage are overcommitment and overidentification with the job.
2. Stagnation—Still doing the job, but no longer is it so thrilling in life. Start thinking about leisure time, money to spend, a car, etc. Emphasis is on meeting one's personal needs, such as more money, shorter working hours, and career development.
3. Frustration—Job performance and its value to one's life is questioned. A mismatch develops between what is required

to achieve job success and the support provided. Job satisfaction is lost. Emotional, physical, and behavioral difficulties may begin at this stage.

4. Apathy—This is the most natural defense mechanism which results from increased frustration. A conflict within the person develops because of the need to remain with this job, yet there is chronic frustration with it. The individual exerts minimum effort, avoids involvement, and seeks to protect the job from changing conditions.
5. Intervention—Consists of what is done to break the previous four stages or cycles. This process varies with each individual and does not occur on a straight line. It is somewhat similar in nature to a learning curve where there are plateaus and valleys.

Giammateo and Giammateo (1980) provided a similar account of a person's actions in a "burned out" organization. First, the person becomes apathetic from continuously being "put down." Personal hostility grows, and the only defense is to stop being hurt or disappointed. Apathy keeps a person from new growth within the organization. Reduced self-worth and self-esteem generates fear of making poor decisions. Eventually, the person's leadership capabilities will be lost, creating even more stress. Apathy leads to capitulation, which creates even more difficulties that result in worry and a lack of foresight. Ideas, creativity, and dynamics come to the person who has a positive thinking free mind, but for those people whose attitude about the organization promotes apathy, capitulation and then worry eventually will result in poor performance, diminished body functions, and especially reduced capabilities. Therefore, creative leadership is a process that could make a difference in productivity if excess stress is recognized and steps taken to intervene correctly.

The Group (Leader-Followers) and the Organization

The leadership act involves an interaction with the leader-followers and the situation. The composite interaction more appropriately is referred to as the organizational environment. The conflicts found in the environmental context (leader-follower exchange) relate to the well-being of the social interaction within the organization.

When the organization's well-being is threatened by distress, it is the responsibility of the leader and group members to work through their personal stress in a positive and constructive manner. If the leader has the competence to persuade group members rather than force them, organizational well-being may well be enhanced. Further, when organizational goals are similar to those of individual members that form the group, conflicting demands are reduced. Van Harrison

(1976) agreed when he stated that a person's stress related to the goodness of fit between the goals of the organization and the group members.

Numerous types of problems can be created by excessive stress within an organizational environment. Smith (1980) indicated that "people are getting out of their profession to enter a totally different career field." One reason for such mid-career crisis is the organization is burned out.

Organizational burnout, according to Smith (1980), can create more stress for an individual than conditions external to the work place. He went on to state that people may not burn out as much as organizations. The industrial arts leader-follower attempting to function within an organizational environment that is hostile, antagonistic, untrusting, and overdemanding will intensify stress.

Indices of personal difficulties with the organization are found in the following list:

1. High personnel turnover.
2. Increased absenteeism.
3. Frequent scapegoating.
4. Negative attitude toward co-workers, client system and program.
5. Lack of cooperation between or among units or departments.
6. Lack of initiative, motivation—people giving up on organization.
7. Formulation of cliques, creating wedges between one person and the group.
8. Generating rumors.
9. Low productivity.
10. Reduced communication.

When an administrator-leader perceives (real or imagined) a loss of power due to poor organizational performance, selected negative behaviors begin to emerge. For example, the leader experiences tremendous ego deprivation due to the threatening prospect of losing power over subordinates. Those administrators who are unable to cope effectively with the conflict (stressors) may take authoritative action to control subordinates. Several indicators on this reaction are as follows:

1. Increased use of official memos.
2. More controls through related policies and procedures.
3. Less access to administrator.

4. Reduced personal communication.
5. Reduced morale.
6. Plotting to remove administrator.
7. Increased work demands.
8. Increased task accountability.
9. Explanations, manipulations, and censures.
10. Work role-task changes (Smith, 1980).

Cooper and Marshall (1976) outlined the sources of managerial and organization stress (see Figure 14-1). The individual factors found in the various geometric shapes provide sources of organizational stress. Most factors are internal to the organization, but external demands also provide significant sources of stress on the individuals who comprise the group (see Figure 14-1).

Stressors: Leader-Followers

Due to inherent effects of time and space memory and processing sensory stimuli, any given stressor or potential stressor may affect one individual but not another (Greenwood and Greenwood, 1979). Again, a stressor for one industrial arts leader may or may not be the same for another. Thus, there is no one list of environmental stressors that can be generalized across individuals. However, the flow and trend of occupation-related stress situations may provide a context for studying specific stressors found in various environmental factors, e.g., noise, overcrowding, overaccountability, poor support, etc.

The literature on stressors has indicated that the first steps in reducing and managing them are awareness and knowledge. It is known that leadership performance is directly tied to the ability of an individual to influence others. When leaders cannot reduce or manage distress, others normally will lose confidence in them, and the great opportunity to lead is diminished.

Stressors were defined by Lazarus (1976) as demands that tax or exceed the resources of the self-system. Antonovsky (1979) defined similarly when he stated that "A stressor may be defined as a demand made by the internal or external environment of an organism that upsets its homeostasis, restoration of which depends on a nonautomatic and not readily available energy expanding action" (p. 73). Any specific excessive stress is a candidate for being a stressor.

Selected results from a survey of 105 industrial arts teacher educators from the rank of instructor to dean (Wenig, 1981) showed that task overload (meaning a work situation that places demands beyond the ability to respond due to various factors) ranked as the number one stressor of 23 categories. "Publish or perish" ranked 13.5

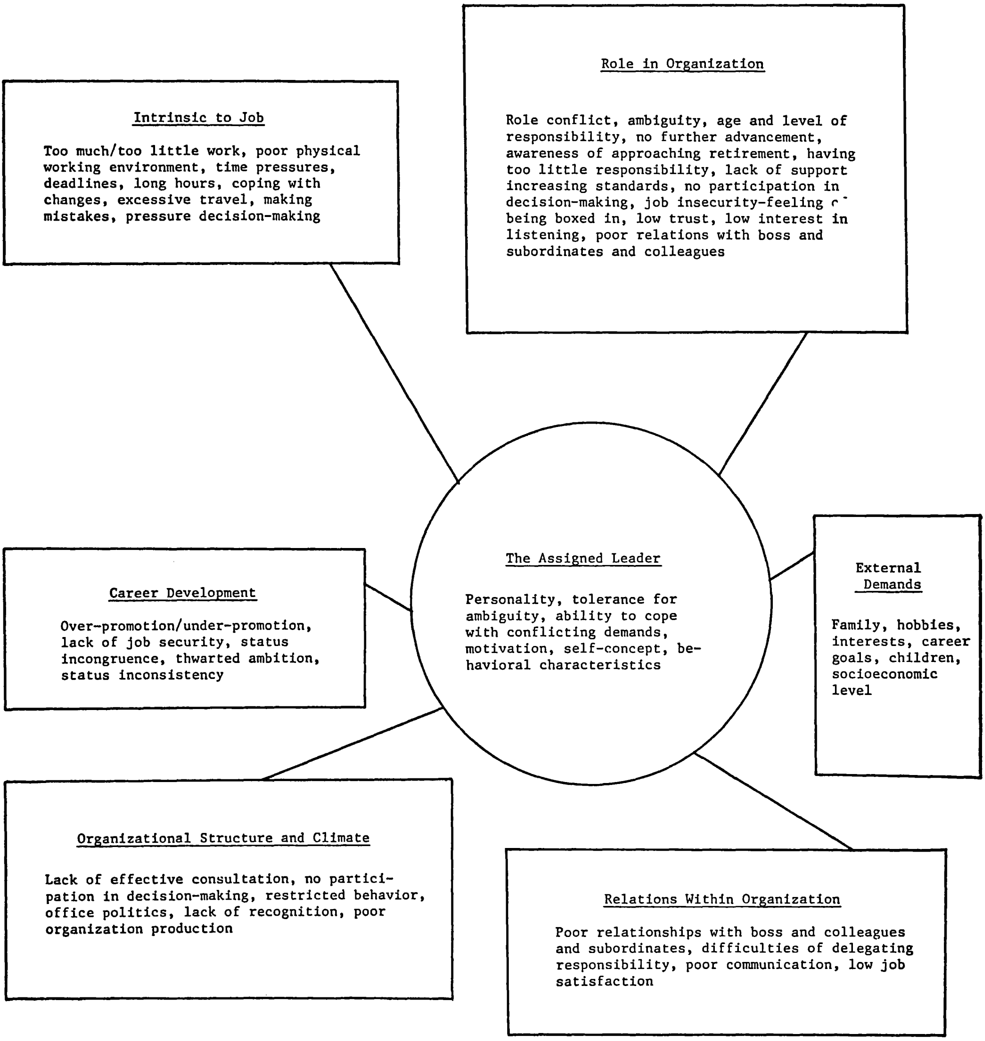
Intrinsic to Job
Too much/too little work, poor physical working environment, time pressures, deadlines, long hours, coping with changes, excessive travel, making mistakes, pressure decision-making
Role in Organization
Role conflict, ambiguity, age and level of responsibility, no further advancement, awareness of approaching retirement, having too little responsibility, lack of support increasing standards, no participation in decision-making, job insecurity-feeling of being boxed in, low trust, low interest in listening, poor relations with boss and subordinates and colleagues
The Assigned Leader
Personality, tolerance for ambiguity, ability to cope with conflicting demands, motivation, self-concept, behavioral characteristics
Career Development
Over-promotion/under-promotion, lack of job security, status incongruence, thwarted ambition, status inconsistency
External Demands
Family, hobbies, interests, career goals, children, socioeconomic level
Organizational Structure and Climate
Lack of effective consultation, no participation in decision-making, restricted behavior, office politics, lack of recognition, poor organization production
Relations Within Organization
Poor relationships with boss and colleagues and subordinates, difficulties of delegating responsibility, poor communication, low job satisfaction

Figure 14-1. Sources of Organizational Stress (adapted from Cooper & Marshall, 1976)

out of 23, which does not seem to indicate as much stress to professors as some have stated previously. The respondents apparently had no worry about keeping their present positions, as evidenced by its ranking at the very bottom of the list. Further research could enable industrial arts educators to become more aware of the stressors specific to their profession so they can cope better themselves and assist others to reduce and manage excessive stress.

SECTION III: TECHNIQUES TO TOLERATE AND REDUCE INDIVIDUAL STRESS

Negative stress severely reduces an individual's capability to meet daily life demands. However, all stress is not negative. Positive stress motivates people to perform up to and even beyond their known abilities.

Optimal Stress Level

The optimal stress level is referred to as *eustress* (Selye, 1976). Eustress is defined as that point where health and performance increase with additional stress. When an overload of stress occurs (distress), health and performance begin to decrease. A graphical illustration of this concept is presented in Figure 14-2. The best way to recognize distress (overload) is to look for the signs in the self-system (health and performance reduction). To manage this situation, begin to develop ways and means to tolerate more stress or reduce it for gaining optimal eustress or well-being.

How can an industrial arts educator tolerate or reduce stress? The process involves the interaction between leader-followers and the situation or work environment. The key is the functioning of the individual (whether a leader or follower) within a given situation or event.

Tolerating Stress

Persons are unique and different, which adds color and interest to life events, but people must function in a group. The group represents a collection of individuals with strong views on how things should be. Difficulties arise when individuals do not permit others to see the world through their own eyes. Not everyone can accept the fact that each member of the group has value and should receive the same treatment.

Tolerance demands serenity in each individual. Recently, the "meism" philosophy has caught on, i.e., be assertive; be independent;

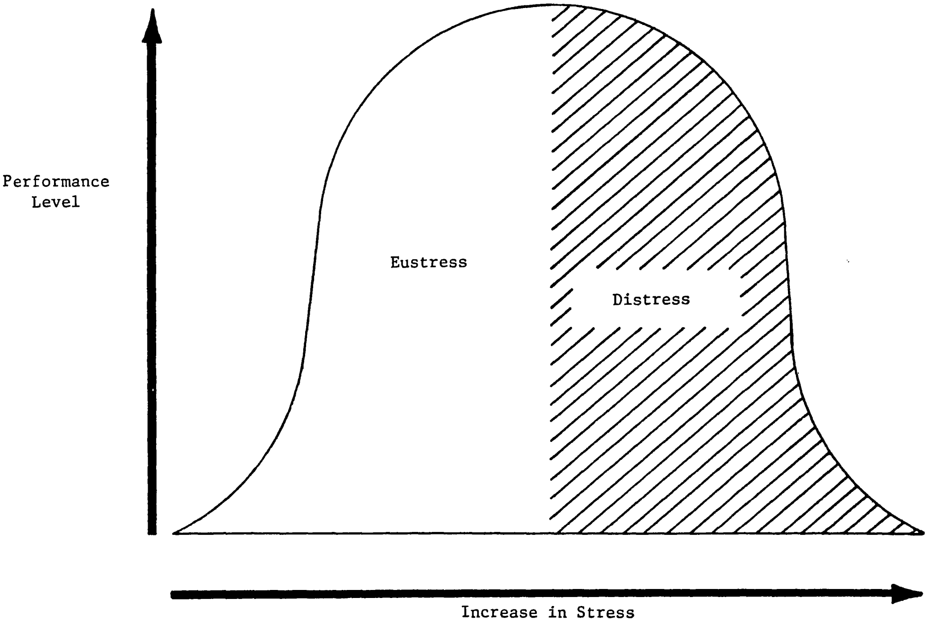

Figure 14-2. Optimal Stress in Relation to Overload.

do your own thing. Carl Menninger from the world-famous Menninger Clinic (Smith, 1980) stated that psychologists should move away from training individuals to over assert themselves. It is better to be yourself by naturally releasing built-up aggression than by holding it back (which typically creates increased stress that may lead to physical and emotional disorders). However, a more positive approach would be to foster a process to control behavior by releasing tension through such activities as exercise, hobbies, or just counting to ten. Further, Smith (1980) stated that a person might want to evaluate the natural use of tenderness, love, hopefulness, and sensitivity with others.

Stress tolerance, according to Giammateo and Giammateo (1980), teaches a person to do the following:

1. Determine the importance of the action demanded—a value judgment of worth, emotions, energy, and time.
2. Appraise a person's actual ability to cope—perhaps a lack of technique or training that creates the negative stressor (quality overload, grant writing, teaching skills, etc.).

3. Prepare for the stressor—rehearse multiple approaches to the stressor. Prioritize the approaches. Write out alternatives to assess their value in tolerating the stress.

Becoming aware of a person's stressors will determine the style used in responding. Tolerance represents a balancing act, a mind set, and knowing the end result of an action in a person's work world. Again, the level of tolerance is a natural phenomenon which is different for each individual. It is affected by heredity, training, and experience. Experts generally agree that tolerance level is related to an individual's ability "to be in control" of the situation (Tanner, 1976).

Excess ego involvement is a powerful trigger in producing negative stress. Typically, it involves poor interpersonal relationships. To express feelings constructively without putting others down requires the best in human relations. Failure to control emotions in a positive manner can lead to deep-seated problems.

Friedman and Rosenman (1974), in their research on different personalities that relate to stress, categorized behavior into Type A and B. Type A people are those who are go-go-go, race-horse types, impatient with traffic lines. They set deadlines, feel guilty when relaxing, eat on the run, and do two things at once. Type B people relate to others in a constructive, positive way, take time to be themselves and to have a balanced life, delegate responsibility, enlist the support of others, and accept fallibility.

Positive ways for individuals to tolerate threats from others are vast. One technique suggested by Giammateo and Giammateo (1980) was the use of specific questions. Reduction in defense behavior comes when a person uses specific questions to release pent-up feelings and control self-systems. More information is sought by the listener through asking questions that are open ended, sensitive to feelings, spontaneous, problem oriented, and that make use of behavior descriptions. Instead of the person firing off a negative response to a threat, Giammateo and Giammateo (1980) suggest that the person use the following questions to gain acceptance and clarification of an individual's ideas:

1. *Clarifying purpose:* What is your goal in using this approach? What are you after? Why are you doing it?
2. *Clarifying definitions:* What do you mean when you say that... ? What would be some examples of your idea?

3. *Clarifying the sources of ideas:* What groups or authorities agree with you? Where were these ideas started? Where could we get data to support your ideas? Is that based on personal experience, on data, or both?
4. *Extending other's views:* Could we hear more? How might we find out more about your views? How can we help you build on your ideas? Do you have other reasons for saying that? What would be examples of your idea?
5. *Clarifying how long the person has held an idea:* Is this a current belief you hold? Have you been feeling this wav long? Do you feel you will always think that?
6. *Clarifying crucial factors:* Which event was most significant in causing you to feel this way? What incident aided you most in forming your point of view?
7. *Pointing out inconsistencies:* Is this consistent with other points of view expressed by you?
8. *Questioning usefulness:* Would it be beneficial for us? Could we make that idea work for our group? Is this something you (value) (need) (like)? What are some bad things about the idea?
9. *Considering consequences:* If we were to use your idea, what might we anticipate? Would your implemented idea create a better situation? Where will your idea take us?
10. *Clarifying the strength of an idea:* How sure are you? Could any other points of view be valid?
11. *Considering alternatives:* What other choices might the group make? Was this your only choice? What other possibilities are there?
12. *Pointing out similarities and dissimilarities of ideas:* In what ways is that similar to Bill's point of view? Where do you and Bill differ?
13. *Summarizing:* Can one of you recall the facts we discussed? Who can play back the data we have uncovered?
14. *Creating opportunity for insight and evaluation:* If given the opportunity, what might you have done differently? How did you feel while you were doing that? Would you do the same thing over again? What would you change? (p. 36).

Being tolerant requires patience, good communication, a passive trigger—count to ten, write the letter and let it stand for several days.

Agree with how someone thinks, but express your feelings as a positive force.

Frustrations are born of conflicting desires. If an educator can live with (tolerate) the frustrations in an effective way, well-being can be maintained. To gain that well-being, however, requires implementing a problem-solving rather than a win/lose approach. The results from any decision approach provide information to the individual for making a choice between fight or flight. If the frustration leads to depression, chances are the choice will be flight—Get away, withdraw, move to stop all productive activity. On the other hand, frustrations may lead to the aggressive behavior of fighting. The person attacks in either a positive or negative fashion to release pent-up feelings. The choice between flight and fight relates to what makes up the individual, the group, and the situation.

The reaction style relates to the specific stressor. When people expect or perceive threats, they typically display a defensive behavior. Most of their verbal, nonverbal, and emotional energy is spent on ego-defending manners. The verbal defenders often are done to impress, dominate, escape, avoid, or minimize a perceived assault on their person or ego (Giammateo and Giammateo, 1980). The intrinsic feelings and emotional state observed by others threaten to check the individual's ability to change positively and may force a negative behavior mode. Listening becomes difficult, which produces nonverbal defenses such as facial and postural checks. These result in the message sender turning off the person receiving the message, who then starts sending back results from the same defensive behavior. The negative stimulus gets a negative response and communication is blocked.

Stress Reduction

The occupational stressors related to industrial arts educators are similar to those found in other helping professions. Further, the individual involved must be considered, for it is a known fact that one man's stressor may be another's stimulator. Knowing that these two principles are basic requires not one specific method or procedure for stress reduction but the best in general suggestions.

Industrial arts education has very little research or writing that relates specifically to stress reduction. However, general suggestions on reducing stress will be provided from selected sources which should help each reader to promote eustress or the best in leadership performance.

Cooper and Marshall (1978) stated that any approach to stress reduction in an organization first must diagnose accurately the stressor before attempting resolution. By recognizing the possible stressor, the group shows its leadership in reducing the negative consequence. The interaction of the leaders and followers that comprise the group provides specific stress within that context.

In chapter one, Hollander's (1978) thoughts on the interaction of the leader, followers, and the situation were illustrated. To reduce stress, Greenwood and Greenwood (1979) stated that a person could start analyzing the three factors of stressors, context, and vulnerability. McLean (1974) depicted the stressful event as the place where the stressor, context, and vulnerability of the individual dynamically interact. Using McLean's (1974) concept, and adding clarification for industrial arts education leadership, a model for analyzing stress reduction can be developed (See Figure 14-3).

As humans interact with life events, the best approach is to seek a healthy balance among varying forces. The three major areas where people focus their energy are illustrated in Figure 14-4. The best approach to reducing stress is for the individual to obtain a balance among work, self, and relationships. When individuals overemphasize one of the three areas, the other two will suffer. Continuous energy

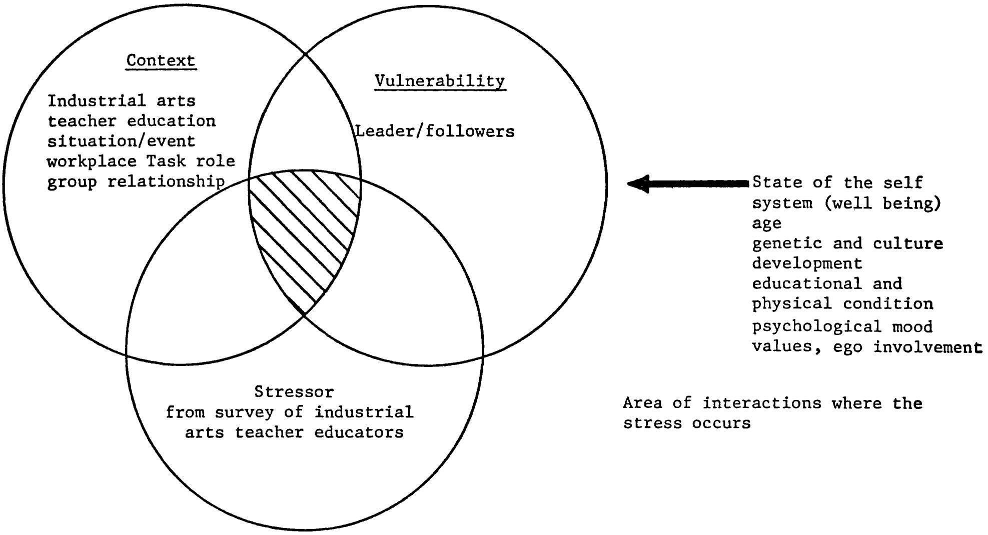
Context
Industrial arts
teacher education
situation/event
workplace Task role
group relationship
Vulnerability
Leader/followers
State of the self
system (well being)
age
genetic and culture
development
educational and
physical condition
psychological mood
values, ego involvement
Stressor
from survey of industrial
arts teacher educators
Area of interactions where the
stress occurs

Figure 14-3. Stress Dynamics—Context, Stressors, and Vulnerability

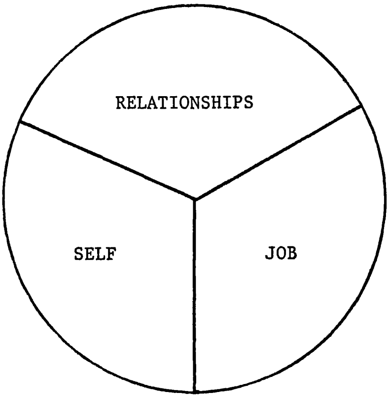

Figure 14-4. Areas Where People Should Exert Equal Energy

output to one area may result in a total breakdown of all three areas. Increased emphasis on one area, e.g., the job, may be due to greater and greater demands. A situation by itself, theoretically, is not stressful. The combination of a particular situation and an individual with a specific personality, behavioral pattern, and life event circumstances creates the stress that produces an imbalance. A proper energy balance can provide life's well-being. To regain a balance, or equilibrium, with the job situation, the person creates his or her own set of energy requirements.

The place to start reducing distress relates to the vulnerability of the leader and followers. Realizing that stress reduction also relates to the specific context and stressors, the major concern still lies with the human element. There are numerous stress reduction self-help publications on the market. Three sources that provide relevant information for the industrial arts educator follow.

Managing Executive Stress: A Systems Approach (Greenwood & Greenwood, 1979)

The authors suggest the following three major factors for reducing stress: preventing measures, diversion techniques, and control measures.

Preventing measures. It is impossible to prevent completely the impact of specific stressors on the individual. However, measures can be taken to reduce exposure and vulnerability. To reduce vulnerability, the individual might include: changing sleeping habits, more control over diet, achieving better posture, a daily physical exercise program, and the use of biological rhythms. Refusing to be drawn into a stressful situation by taking a different, more passive attitude (Type B personality) also could help. Stress arising from interpersonal relations can be improved by developing an attitude of trusting, serving, and seeking open communication. Accidents and pain increase as a result of heightened emotional conflicts and feelings of a need to suffer.

Diversion techniques. These include spreading the stress over other body parts. A person must be careful not to use the diversion process to create a greater stress. For example, playing competitive golf on the weekend, where ego involvement is possible, does not constitute diversion realization. There can be great relaxation value from hobbies, non-ego involved sports, games, and physical exercise. The change of pace should be opposite to an individual's life style, e.g., muscle to reading or sitting to physical activity. Caution must be emphasized, however, since overindulgence in any change of pace tends to create distress. The key to successful diversion is the variety in obtaining a balance among different activities.

Control measures. Controlling the industrial arts educator's vulnerability to stress means taking charge of his or her life to maintain a sound mind and body. This includes adopting a rational life style with adequate diet, exercise, rest, recreation, a mature mental and emotional outlook, and the prospect of achieving a correct balance between moderation and excess. Controlling techniques begin by gaining advance notice of the stressors. This will enable industrial arts educators to take appropriate measures to gain relief—for example, daily exercise after a day's work, channeling built-up aggression into positive and constructive hobbies, thinking through a difficult situation to offer cold logic, and relaxing by reading an interesting book.

Executive Well-Being: Stress and Administrators (Giammateo and Giammateo, 1980)

Their suggestions for stress reduction focus on a better way to relax. An individual experiences stress when others attack his or her ideas, goals, and dreams.

Stress reduction concepts on the job. Within the work environment, specific activities can help reduce stress and improve productivity. Five examples are the following:

1. Read at least one article a day while communications are stopped.
2. Have a private retreat where everyone is off limits for two to five minutes every hour.

3. Avoid irritating and overly competitive people prior to lunch or the end of the day.
4. Concentrate on one task at a time so accomplishments are enjoyed.
5. Design your daily calendar so you have a chance to perform at least one activity each day at which you are good.

Stress reduction external to job. Many techniques away from the work place are valuable in reducing stress. Three mentioned are as follows:

1. Learn to plan a free weekend at least once a month.
2. Avoid time off that is overcrowded with duties.
3. Plan easy-going, non-structured vacations, three to four days long.

Stress as a positive force in its own reduction. A systematic procedure is a viable technique to help reduce excessive stress. One such process is found in the following three steps:

1. Establish a system to handle appropriately any conflict situations.
2. Use a "must do" list and a "can wait" list.
3. Identify the stressor and a scheme to resolve conflicts.

Mental relaxation as stress reduction. Pleasant images and specific breathing exercises are used to reduce stress. Guide imagery is a conditional pattern of responses which become associated with particular thoughts that guide our mind's action. Both visualization and guide imagery attempt to control body functions through specific sensory input to the brain's hypothalmus. Imagine watching a horror movie or viewing a lovely calm beach. Each image creates its own symbolic brain-body reaction. Controlled breathing techniques assist the body to relax and gain a deeper and fuller visualization in using the imagery process. What an individual thinks is, therefore, how a person acts.

Controlling Stress and Tension: A Holistic Approach (Girdano and Everly, 1979).

These authors stated that the best approach to stress reduction is the holistic process. That is, stress reduction involves the following techniques: environmental and social; mental and physical; perception, thoughts, and anticipation; and action and thwarting action. Stress is reduced through a holistic approach instead of a single technique.

A brief summary of the strategies to accomplish the holistic approach is revealed in Figure 14-5.

Levels of stress	Reduction Strategy	Description
First	Social engineering	The process of willful altering lifestyle and general environment for modifying exposure to stressors. Attacks at the source.
Second	Personality engineering	The process of decreasing adverse behavioral reactivity to perception of stressful life events by increasing resistance to it through mental, psychological, and physical operatives.
Third	Altered States of consciousness	The process of diminishing overreaction to environmental stimulation, cool the fires of imagination, and reduce the time and energy defending ego involvement.

Figure 14-5. Overview of Three Levels of Stress Reduction Strategies With Identified Description

Social engineering. The most logical and effective point to alleviate a stressor is at its source, but the stressor cannot always be changed. Therefore, social engineering attempts to modify a person's position in relation to the stressor. A summary of social engineering strategies to reduce an individual's societal stress is given below:

1. Adaptive stress—need to maintain balance and rhythm.
   a. Organize responsibilities into routines to reduce physical and psychic energy.
   b. Institute a weekly mental health day for rest and relaxation.
   c. Reduce excessive changes.
2. Stress from frustration—causes of most needless stress.
   a. Analyze reasons for blocking or lack of progress toward goal.
   b. Apply a goal alternative system to find a new option.
3. Overload—time pressures, excessive responsibility, lack of support, and excessive expectations.
   a. Use time management and set priorities.
   b. Break difficult tasks into manageable parts.
   c. Gain support/aid from others or find ways to relax.

   - d. Identify optimal stress level (eustress).
   - e. Become aware of distress signs.
4. Deprivational stress—insufficient stimulation (boredom).
   - a. Determine vulnerability to deprivational stress, e.g., no raise.
   - b. Use aversion activities that are relaxing and not ego involved.
   - c. Reduce boredom by improving interpersonal skills.
5. Bioecological stress—use nutritional and noise control.
   - a. Control use of chemicals in daily diet that can cause stress, e.g., caffeine, smoking, etc.
   - b. Avoid or control harmful noise environment.

(For details in applying these strategies, see Girdano and Everly, 1979.)

Personality engineering. Personality engineering is a technique of stress reduction through adopting a positive attitude toward life. A summary of the strategies for improving poor self-esteem is given below:

1. Verbalize a person's positive qualities.
2. Strongly accept compliments—"Thank you, I like it too."
3. Practice using the assertive ladder—ask the why, what, and how questions in a positive and productive way. Express your feelings; show positive disagreement; use eye contact; greet others enthusiastically; use complimentary statements toward others.
4. When appropriate, change Type A behavior to Type B.
5. Practice concentration—over stimulation can be reduced by focusing all consciousness on one thing.
6. Apply thought-stopping techniques to stressors—The actual stressor might be short-lived, but the mind recreates the stressful event which tends to be much more severe than the actual stressor. To stop the cycle, shout the word STOP, switch abruptly to a pleasant relaxing image or scene, or count backward. Repeat the process until the cycle is broken.

Altered states of consciousness. To maintain optimal health requires methods to intervene in the stress arousal cycle itself by changing from ego consciousness, a planning-doing state, to an experiencing or egoless state. Techniques to alter states of consciousness are as follows:

1. Self-transcendence—control I-centered activities.
2. Mind-directed states—meditation, biofeedback, and various relaxation training techniques.

Additional Resources Relating to Teachers

Two other sources that can provide exceptionally good information for teachers include:

Burn-out: steps of disillusionment in the helping profes sions. (Edelwich and Brodsky, 1980).

This book is directed specifically to the helping professions. It contains considerable knowledge and uses typical illustrations to convey selected principles. All teachers should read it.

Teacher burnout and what to do about it. (Truck, 1980).

A good book for local teachers. It is somewhat negative, but it uses many references to substantiate statements. It provides numerous stress self-testing devices as well as means to cope. Information is provided on how a local classroom teacher could reduce student stress for better teaching.

A brief overview of the three sources on tolerating and reducing stress has provided ample strategies to begin. Further information should come through a more intensive study of these three authors' work and the additional resources related to teachers. Whether any one or the group of techniques will work to improve an industrial arts educator's leadership capacity remains for each individual to determine. This judgment comes only through experiential use.

SECTION IV: LEADERSHIP IN MANAGING ORGANIZATIONAL STRESS

The lack of structure or a reference point in a group situation causes stress (Torrence, 1961). Without structure, it is difficult or impossible for the group to cope with meeting situational requirements. The leadership problem is one of evolving or supplying a structure and expertise for coping with group demands of the situation. Even established leaders must continue to validate their leadership or power roles by extending the needed structure and influence for group maintenance. Stress control in the organizational group results with mutual agreement among the participants about the structure.

What happens in the group when there is no designated leader? In this event, whoever is able and willing to persuade the group to accept a proposed essential structure emerges as the leader. When the designated leader fails to provide expertise and structure to the group, stress increases. To reduce this stress, the leader then may delegate a leadership function to a follower who can supply the structure and expertise for group action. Over time, however, the incompetent leader may be threatened and react by disposing of the new leader or may decide to withdraw and possibly drop from the scene completely.

Torrance (1961) stated that the leader under increasing stress tends to tighten up by delegating responsibility and power to others, then closely checking their performance. The leader eventually feels so threatened that all power is taken away or there is an abdication of the power role. Eventually, the stress level intensifies to where the group falls apart by the complete breakdown of communication. Initially, common group stress draws members together. However, once the crisis is over, they tend to fall apart and possibly resent each other. A conceptual model of the interactive forces from specific group stressors and their effect is provided in Figure 14-6 (Torrance, 1961). Note what typically happens to group behavior when process factors are applied.

Improving Creative Leadership by Reducing Group Stress

Specific group behavior and forces either impede or facilitate. Torrance (1961) suggested four qualities that can lead to improved group performance—power linkages, affective linkages, communication linkages, and goal linkages. The secret to a group's functioning under a stressful situation is for members to gain skill in adapting to changing demands.

Building strong linkages with the group members actually will help reduce the persistence and strength effect of the stressors as identified in Figure 14-6. Positive linkages of power, goal, affective, and communication factors for reducing organizational stress are found in Figure 14-7. (Please note these are in contrast to those identified previously by Smith (1980) in Section I).

Intervention Techniques to Reduce Organization Stress

The most important point that always must be kept in sight when coping with and managing organizational stress is the individual's well-being. Wright (1975) agreed when he stated that the responsibility for maintaining personal health should be the major force between the individual and the work organization. Cooper and Payne (1978) suggested the following changes that can be made in organizational behavior to reduce stress:

Stressor

- Inability to meet group goals
- Challenged by hostile person or groups
- Too demanding tasks
- Loss of recognition
- Deprived financial and social needs
- Physical discomfort of basic needs
- Missing or rigid group-task structure
- Lack of competent and effective leaders and group members
- Agressive, hostile, erratic unpredictable, disloyal, and/or deviate member
- History of internal strife
- Poor motivation
- Inadequate training to meet expectations
- Loss of group member

Process Factors

- Persistence →
- Intensity →
- Creative Leadership →

Result

- Panic, disorganization, lack of group task efficiency
- Apathy, capitulation, poor effort, escapism, withdrawal
- Excessive hostility, defiance, disregard for law
- Loss of esteem-worth-value
- Reduced productivity, loss of energy
- Overcompensation, intensive effort, fatigue, poor performance
- Increase/decrease group task efficiency
- Control of panic, maintenance to survival
- Excessive disharmony
- Interpersonal strife, meet the challenge
- Lack of trust, mutiny, loss of integrity
- Planning, good group decision, cooperating mutual support and self-sacrifice of members
- Inventiveness and creativity, organizational well being, human resource valued and develop group-member productivity

Figure 14-6. Group Stressors and the Factors that Affect Them (Adapted from Torrance, 1961)

POSITIVE FACTORS TO REDUCE ORGANIZATIONAL STRESS

POWER LINKAGES--Positive Conditions/Behaviors that Affect the Group to Reduce Stress

1. Cooperation and trust among power levels.
2. Official leader accepts the informal leadership structure.
3. The blending of the capable leader with the less able to cope with stress forces.
4. Leader and leadership group are accessible to the larger group.
5. Leaders promote their power with group by decreasing hostility.
6. Power is managed by the leader.
7. Leader successfully acts outside own authority area.
8. Group attempts to function with a designated leader.
9. Leadership is stable and the leader has the ability to meet the group's expectations.
10. Leader resolves communication gap.

AFFECTIVE LINKAGES--Conditions that Typically Support the Group to Cope with Stress and Make Them Capable of Productive Action

1. Good human relations are generated by gaining consensus on values and reducing personality conflicts.
2. Group members rise to the task and perform needed role expectations.
3. There is congruence between leader's values and those that predominate within the group.
4. Individuals mutually support and sacrifice personal goals for group objectives.

GOAL LINKAGES--Factors that Seem to Strengthen Their Achievement

1. Not giving into immediate comfort.
2. The will to achieve goals.
3. A plan or method for coping with stress within the organization.

COMMUNICATION LINKAGES--Factors that Create Productive Conditions for Controlling Stress

1. Group members openly share information with others about their activities.
2. Information is provided which serves as a basis for effective management through reduced resistance on serious matters.
3. Absence of dyads of cliques to control information promotes sharing with entire group.
4. There is effective use of group judgment in making decisions and use of leadership styles that promote operational communication.
5. Power sharing that promotes appropriate informatio is being used to make informed decisions.

Figure 14-7. Identification of Positive Linkages of Power, Goal, Affective, and Communication Factors to Reduce Organizational Stress

1. Recreate the social, psychological, and organizational environment in the workplace to encourage democratic participation by all.
2. Build bridges between the work place and home by providing opportunities for the worker and family to understand the job better.
3. Use a well-developed catalog of social and interactive skill-training programs to help clarify role and interpersonal relationship difficulties with the organization.
4. Create an organizational climate that encourages rather than discourages communication, openness, and trust.

Smith (1980) suggested that organizational stress could be reduced and wellness increased if a leadership-team concept could be established. Specific intervention questions that should be asked in developing an organization that concerns itself with occupational stress are as follows:

1. What are the relationship factors in the work environment that represent stress? What are the personal conflict stressors?
2. Why do specific stressors affect some employees and not others?
3. What are the short-term/long-term stressors that prolong individual job misfits?
4. What kind of intervention techniques could be applied that are feasible to deal effectively with job stress?
5. What is the human and economic justification for implementing a program?

Smith (1980) stated further that many organizations can reduce significantly their stress environment when hiring and working with employee misfits. He suggested the following four-point model:

1. Diagnose chronic misfits before hiring. Use a job description during hiring to ask key questions that reflect anticipated job demands. Hire people who are compatible with job demand and personality type, either A or B.
2. Implement therapeutic intervention for those experiencing distress. Determine stressors, then help reduce difficulties.
3. Implement a selective prevention program by providing space and time during the workday. To help employees counteract excessive demands, they may need time to relax through a host of strategies such as exercise room, aerobic dancing, etc.
4. Design evaluative plans to determine whether the program actually is working.

Specific policies, plans, and procedures to develop a framework for reducing organization stress of leader/followers within an environment were identified by Greenwood and Greenwood (1979). First, prerequisites to change are:

1. Anticipate the good/bad effects of changing the organization.
2. Know where the organization's and individual's stress difficulties are before making significant change.
3. Take full stock of the nature within the human system—each individual is unique with a totally different set of values, goals, plans, motivation, and personal problems.

After establishing the prerequisites, a set of general policies should be established. The attempt is to incorporate these policies into the organizational structure as a positive force to reduce human stress levels within the environment. These policies include the following:

1. Provide periodic physical and psychological examinations to determine levels of personnel stress.
2. Provide personnel counseling to identify undue stress levels of the organization's members.
3. Provide financial and technical assistance to enable individuals to develop long-range plans for stress reduction.
4. Develop and maintain a data base to monitor incidents of stress, cost and other effects on the organization.
5. Reexamine personnel policies to eliminate stressors and stressful contexts, but more importantly, to gain greater benefits from using eustress in terms of creativity, productivity, and progress.
6. Provide appropriate work which can be used to meet basic human needs for long-term career development.
7. Provide the opportunity to place people in different work environments that match ability with job requirements to maximize eustress levels.
8. Provide social support systems on and off the job for those who are involved in stressful work situations.

Even though these prerequisites and general policies may not totally fit the university setting, they do provide possibilities for improving productivity and the human organization's health. The leader/followers within a given environment can reduce stress. The result will enhance the well-being of the group membership and provide better service to clients. Like any other relationship, it takes all parties to function together for the benefit of each. The leader always has the responsibility of influencing others to achieve a mutually desirable goal. The leader who cannot cope with stress ends in failure for the group and himself or herself.

SUMMARY

Perhaps Edelwich and Brodsky (1980) summarized best the intent of this chapter in the following account:

> Do you want the kind of organization where there is leadership, discipline, modeling, goal setting, and an atmosphere of constructive guidance from the peer group as well as from management . . . ? The inevitable experience of "burn-out" can be, professionally speaking, a terminal experience or a growth experience. Thinking of frustration or depression as an educational experience may not make it more pleasant, but understanding its place in the rhythm of our development can help us be at peace with it. (pp. 245–246)

With birth there is pain followed by joy. Leaders/followers who experience distress experience pain, followed not by joy but by a host of problems. However, with the identification of stressors and learning how to tolerate, reduce, and manage them, joy can result in a more productive and healthful life. Leaders are those who learn how to manage stress for themselves and their followers in such a way as to gain the best possible world for serving others.

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Section V

Reviewing and Implementing Creative Leadership

Chapter 15

In Summary: A Guide to Implementation

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INTRODUCTION

Creative leadership will be needed to forge approaches to both old and new problems created by society and the changing world of work. For the industrial arts education (IAE) profession, the major issue regarding creative leadership seems to be how to meet the needs of the educational consumer through programs and services that will meet yet unidentified needs. As was stated in the Preface of this Yearbook, industrial arts has survived by serving specific educational consumers. As the needs and demands of these consumers change, IAE must be capable and willing to provide new and improved programs and services. The demands of our rapidly changing and expanding technological society dictate that dynamic responses on the part of the IAE profession must be the way of the future. It is unlikely that the IAE profession will survive if it lags ten or twenty years behind the current demands of the educational consumer. IAE departments, both at the secondary school and collegiate level, must develop and utilize creative responses to the needs for change. This will require the development of creative leadership by each member of the IAE profession as well as by leaders at the department and school levels.

This Yearbook was written to provide the profession with a better understanding of the concepts of creative leadership, the development of creative leaders, and the application of creative leadership in selected professional activities. Following is a brief summary of the key points in the Yearbook.

CHAPTER SUMMARIES

Section One of the Yearbook focused on the specific dimensions of creative leadership. Wenig and Matthews, in Chapter One, develop the concept of leadership as a common element of successful people, institutions, organizations, businesses, and industries. Leaders are characterized as being sensitive to the fundamental needs, wants, and values of followers. The authors develop the idea that creativity is a necessary element in leadership, both in theory and as it is applied to industrial arts. The best in leadership occurs when the interaction among the situation, followers, and leader are congruent. Wenig and Matthews point out that creative leadership must be present in everyone in industrial arts if it is to maintain and enhance its place in the schools.

Coomer, in Chapter Two, reviews the history and development of leadership in identifying several approaches to characterizing various styles. He concludes that the strongest leadership characteristics are the ability to motivate and challenge, to get people to accept leadership responsibility, and to develop positive attitudes toward new ideas. Intuition is shown to be a necessary and important aspect of leadership. The ability to match the appropriate leadership approach with the people and situation requires intuition because leadership is a multi-faceted and elusive concept which is far from being totally understood.

Section Two presents some of the common behavioral characteristics of creative leadership. Peter, in Chapter Three, identified a variety of approaches to categorizing the identified characteristics and behaviors necessary for effective leadership. He illustrates the leadership behaviors necessary for task effectiveness (getting the job done), and for maintaining effective interpersonal relationships (getting along with other people). Leadership is described as a fragile entity and a scarce commodity. In industrial arts education, leadership is, and must be, action-, process-, and being-directed.

In Chapter Four, Wolansky and Shores further develop the need for creative leadership. There are no easy procedures, approaches, or practices that enable a person to be a creative leader in every situation. Wolansky and Shores point out that leadership can be learned through a systematic acquisition of knowledge and specific skills appropriate to leadership functions. These learnings can then be reinforced through experiences and continued practice. They further show how leadership is a continuous and dynamic process. Maintaining a balance between accomplishing organizational goals and individual goals is developed as a major function of creative leadership. The essential task of leaders is to manage conditions in such a way as to facilitate those behaviors which enable individuals to meet their own goals and in the process also fulfill the goals of the organization.

Section Three of the Yearbook is concerned with the preparation, selection, and development of creative leaders. Miller, in Chapter Five, concludes that a leader cannot be created through a program or curriculum of selected experiences, but that leadership qualities can be improved and enhanced. Leadership is a combination of many qualities. When a number of these qualities are present in sufficient measure in one individual this individual is likely to be an effective leader.

In Chapter Six, Pyle and Farmer present an interesting plan of action for identifying, recruiting, and selecting creative leaders for IAE positions. This plan involves eight steps: (1) developing a plan for recruiting, (2) using external consultants, (3) developing organizational structures, (4) developing a firm position description, (5) evaluating creative leaders, (6) identifying and selecting potential creative leaders, (7) planning the recruiting process and (8) making the selection.

Todd, in Chapter Seven, illustrates several approaches to developing and enhancing creative leadership qualities in IAE. Some specific methodologies for implementing these approaches are also presented. These include a taxonomy for creativity and a description of the roles of simulations, internships and mentorships, controls and constraints, synergism and serendipity, as well as adversity and progress. Special emphasis is placed on the opportunities available to current leaders to enhance not only their own creativity, but through their role as mentors, play an important and critical role in the development of future creative leaders in IAE.

Section Four of the Yearbook presents the application of creative leadership to selected professional activities within IAE. Horton, in Chapter Eight, presents several concepts and criteria which are important to effective group action. The clarification of group tasks is seen as the critical element upon which effective group action would then become possible. The members of the group should be complementary resources rather than a homogeneous selection. Horton indicates that a major function of those in power is to provide the climate for effective group action which allows its members to share in solving mutual problems and in some measure control their own destiny. This atmosphere provides the necessary foundation that will nurture and enhance the development of creative leadership within a group.

The primary focus of Chapter Nine, by Streichier, is the exploration of personal dynamics which affect departmental leadership. He provides a discussion of theory and research related to leadership as it interfaces with various IAE departmental situations. In addition, practical leadership suggestions are illustrated in a case study example. Streichler emphasizes that rarely does a leader conform to any one of the generic styles described, but rather is usually a composite of styles contingent on the situation and on departmental needs. Streichler offers twelve suggestions for successful leadership action based on personal observation and experience.

Rosser and Cochran, in Chapter Ten, address the changing patterns in personnel actions at the university level. They indicate that internal and external forces have caused the promotion and tenure cycle to become more concerned with qualitative factors, the ability to meet procedural guidelines and requirements, and the ability to document past performances adequately. Rosser and Cochran point out that if IAE is to survive in this changing university environment, industrial arts educators must prepare themselves to meet these requirements by having a thorough understanding of the decision-making process and the ability to document past performances in accordance with the requirements.

Professionalism as viewed by Hanson in Chapter Eleven, is seen as an elusive quality that is difficult to measure in standard form. In an effort to provide an understanding of the quality of professionalism, Hanson reviews the characteristics of a profession and professionals in general terms. Specific applications to IAE are incorporated into the discussion. Suggestions are offered as to how professionalism can be fostered in IAE; i.e. stringent initial student selection for the industrial arts field, active participation in IAE youth organizations, the association with appropriate IAE mentors, etc. In addition, Hanson raises numerous issues regarding the potential for job-related constraints affecting professional involvement/development for both secondary school and university educators: e.g. inadequate study areas, inaccessability to personal laboratory space, inability to gain necessary released time for professional meeting involvement.

Matthews, in Chapter Twelve, identifies the role of the leader in managing the financial resources of an IAE department. He points out that this important task of the leader has been often overlooked in the leadership training process. Management of financial resources is most often learned, and, according to Matthews appropriately so, through working with a mentor who is skilled in financial matters. Financial control is one of the most powerful controls that a leader possesses, and the manner in which that power is exercised to a great extent determines the ability of the leader to lead.

Householder, in Chapter Thirteen, presents an interesting description of the various elements that affect the management of time, which is seen as a critical element in effective leadership. Effective use of time is likely to increase productivity as well as to improve the quality of production without greatly increasing the amount of effort required by the profession. Effective use of time management can assist individuals and groups greatly in meeting their goals.

Wenig, in Chapter Fourteen, describes the impact that stress plays in the role of leadership. He indicates that stress cannot be prevented, but that when used intelligently and effectively it can be turned into creative energy. It is important that leaders know how to identify and utilize their stress to produce actions that will facilitate positive outcomes both for themselves and for those whom they are leading.

SUMMARY OF PREVIOUS CHAPTERS

The authors of this Yearbook have presented many important concepts and issues that affect each member of the IAE profession. The development and enhancement of effective creative leadership in IAE is of paramount importance to our future success. If we professionals fall short in this quest for improved leadership (for the present and in the future), our profession most likely will have a short-lived future. IAE must, as it has in the past, be able to meet the challenges of new and emerging issues. It seems likely that we will experience an accelerated rate of new issues which are raised by our educational consumers and by our colleagues, all of whom are faced with a shortage of resources. To be able to meet these challenges will require creative and dynamic responses and actions on the part of the IAE leadership. Addressing the issues of the future will require a more effective and creative use of individual and group leadership on the part of every member of the IAE profession. In the next section of this chapter we offer suggestions for the further development of creative leadership in IAE.

CREATIVE LEADERSHIP: A METHODOLOGY

At the present time most IAE departments are doing a "good job" of what they are doing. They are involved in attempts to collaborate with people outside of their department. The interpersonal relationships among faculty members within the department are good, and for the most part everyone is putting out 100% effort on the job. These criteria indicate that we have the potential for getting a job done, but the major problem today is that many, if not most, IAE departments are in a rut. We see ourselves as doing all we can do, given our present resources, and see no possibility of incorporating further changes in how we function.

Even though the number of demands being made by society is accelerating and the nature of these demands is changing rapidly, most IAE departments are not responding adequately to (some are not even addressing) the need for change in their programs and services. Because technology is expanding at a greater rate in many fields than it was even five years ago, new and creative responses are needed at a greater rate than in the past. For many reasons, new services and programs, as well as new administrative structures to facilitate addressing change, have not been sought out effectively or even encouraged by large parts of the profession.

The IAE profession must develop an ability to respond to the changing needs of the educational consumer and to the changing requirements of the institutions of which they are parts. IAE departments need to stimulate greater innovation on the part of their faculty and future members of the profession. Departments and individuals need to look for more interesting, dynamic and effective ways to function, to meet the needs of the future, and to develop new programs and services. At the same time, we need to improve our ability to show the remainder of our institution that we are contributing to revised patterns of institutional goals. To achieve this ability will require a combined effort on the part of individual faculty members and the departments.

There are several issues concerning the development of creativity that need to be addressed by both individuals and their departments. Some of these issues are related to: (1) values and rewards, (2) compensation, (3) channels for advancement, (4) freedom, and (5) communication. Each of these issues should be addressed if a department hopes to develop or enhance creative leadership in its faculty.

An IAE department that is creative and wants its faculty to also be creative must value creativity. The faculty needs to feel that creativity is important and that the department will reward them for their creative efforts. An atmosphere must be present that encourages creative responses to departmental issues. The department needs to establish creativity as a goal.

Faculty members (including department heads) who demonstrate creativity in their work should be compensated for that creativity. Productivity should not be the prime factor in determining compensation if, in fact, creativity is the goal. In this case, creativity, and not productivity in outmoded activities should be the criterion for determining compensation and rewards. If productivity in traditional work is the primary criterion for determining compensation it will discourage faculty from spending their time in developing creative responses to issues.

Faculty members who demonstrate high levels of creative leadership within a department should be allowed to advance, based on that creativity. Promotion and tenure requirements should include consideration of the demonstration of creative leadership. If faculty are not rewarded for their creative leadership by advancement opportunities, chances are high that junior members of the department, in particular, are likely to exert little effort to be creative. Since much of the potential for future creativity lies in the junior faculty, keeping them from creative work is likely to have adverse, cumulative effects.

IAE departments need to develop policies and provisions to provide individual faculty members (including department heads) with the necessary freedom to be creative. Restrictions (many of them unrecognized) that are present in most IAE departments make it very difficult for the faculty members to have the necessary latitude within which to function creatively. In order to overcome years of resistance to change, departments must develop attitudes that foster creative change. This will require giving faculty members much more freedom than they now have or think they now have.

Departments need to develop open communication between and among the faculty. Mutual trust and esteem must be present for creativity. This can best be accomplished where faculty are free to communicate with each other as well as with the administration. Communication should be supportive of individual efforts and provide encouragement for faculty to pursue their creative efforts.

IAE departments can develop a program that will facilitate creative leadership on the part of their faculty. One method that can be utilized involves a four-step staff development program. The four steps are: (1) assessment of existing conditions in the department, (2) planning a program for staff development, (3) implementing the program, and (4) evaluating it. By using this four-step process it is possible to develop a staff development program that will promote and facilitate creative leadership within the department. The following paragraphs provide an expanded discussion of each of the four steps.

Assessment of Existing Conditions

Identify the current level of innovation that exists in the department. Use the five issues discussed earlier as categories for the assessment. Assess the interest of faculty members and their need for more creative effort in their work. Identify the constraints that are barriers to the development of creativity.

Planning the Program

Using the information obtained during the assessment, develop a plan of action to stimulate creativity. Depending on the identified needs, some of the following activities could be utilized as a part of the staff development program. Bring in an outside person to evaluate the current functioning of the department in terms of fostering creativity and to suggest possible ways of improving the department's operation. Develop a team of faculty members to address the issue of creative leadership and ask them to develop processes that will improve the creative atmosphere and productivity of the department. Conduct a job enrichment session in which each faculty member is given the opportunity of devising ways of enriching her or his own job. Develop quality circles to improve creativity.

Another activity could include developing a system for job rotation. Rotate individuals into different positions and allow them to work with a different mix of faculty members in solving old or new problems. This could also include the development of short-term groupings of faculty members both in the IAE department and other departments within the school. This would allow for new ideas and ways of looking at problems to be presented. Reorganize the faculty meeting to encourage faculty to bring out new ideas more easily. Develop a system that will keep the faculty informed of current and anticipated problems within the department that need solving. Develop a department policy that reduces the fear of failure if someone tries something new or different. Develop a department review or advisory committee to review and provide support and assistance for individual faculty member's creative efforts. Develop a reward-bonus incentive system that will reward faculty for new ideas. These and many other types of activities that could be developed will foster creative efforts on the part of an IAE faculty and department. It is desirable to use creativity in developing ways to foster creativity.

Implementing the Plan

After the program has been developed it is ready for implementation. To be successful, any program requires the full support and commitment of all who will be involved. If the staff development program is accepted by the faculty, it is more likely to succeed. This may require substantial effort on the part of the faculty developing the program to sell the activities to the other faculty members. Each member will have to be willing to invest time and energy in the activities if they are to have any chance to succeed.

Evaluating the Program

Once the program of activities has been in operation for a period of time, it is a good idea to evaluate the activities to determine if the program is having the desired outcomes. This evaluation should involve every faculty member. Information on the program can be obtained by interviews, questionnaires, or group discussions. Each activity should be evaluated to see if it is resulting in a more creative departmental climate with a subsequent increase in the creative output of the faculty involved.

At several points above we have felt it necessary to insert a reminder that department heads are faculty, and have many of the same needs as other faculty. The same is true of deans and other administrators. Non-administrative faculty sometimes forget that administrators also need to have opportunities to be creative. They wonder why administrators burn out or withdraw within a shell. These are perilous times for administrators, and any faculty should exercise its own creativity to see that its administrators have freedom of action and rewards for personal creativity, particularly if it aids the creativity of others. If you fail to provide good working conditions for your administrator, you might be drafted for the job or find it turned over to someone who is completely unqualified.

CREATIVE LEADERSHIP: A LOOK AT THE FUTURE

As the needs of educational consumers and of educational institutions are undergoing rapid change at the present time, the future holds promise of an even greater rate of change. Successful leaders in the years to come will have to develop creative solutions to many of the emerging issues of today. The ability of the IAE leaders of tomorrow to successfully address these issues will dictate the future of IAE in a direct manner.

A major emerging issue that will affect IAE in the future is the concern for economic responsibility. It will be necessary for the IAE leader of the future to be able to cope successfully with the pressure of fewer dollars for educational programs and services. Current and future leaders will be required to develop creative solutions to many of the economic conditions that are just now beginning to affect IAE. When institutions face severe fiscal pressures, they tend to cannibalize their units, destroying those they think they need least in order to insure the survival of the units they think they need the most. Future IAE leaders need to be prepared now to deal effectively with the fiscal planning and budgeting problems that will threaten the existence of IAE in the years to come. If our department and its faculty are perceived to be leaders in the institution, they are unlikely to be candidates for cannibalization.

With the rapid advances in technology has come a tremendous increase in information, both written and oral. Leaders of the future will be required to cope with the abundance of information available. They must be able to glean essential information from the many sources of information and to arrive at a solution to a particular problem. The ability to analyze, synthesize, evaluate and communicate with greater efficiency will become essential. The wise and efficient use of available time will also become of critical importance. Although the use of information is generally accepted as a major concern today, the future will require even greater creativity on the part of the leader to cope with the ever increasing amount of information.

The future will also bring about a need for increased attention to the differences which exist in our society. There is little doubt that IAE leaders will be confronted with a wider range of religious, ethnic, social, and political groups, many of which will wield considerable power. The members of these groups will most likely possess very different sets of values than did similar groups in the past. Many of these differences have not been recognized in the past, but will be accepted in the future and our leaders will have to be deal with them. To manage this cultural pluralism effectively will require new and creative approaches to leadership. While today's leaders possess many of these skills, the future will require much higher standards of creativity in order for the leader to successfully address the problems.

There appears to be a movement toward a more conservative way of life in the decades to come. The educational consumer has begun a "back to the basics" movement. Many schools are being directed by the educational consumer to "cut out the frills" and as a result many art, music, and physical education programs have been cut. The IAE leader of the future must be capable of dealing with this conservatism. The IAE leader will have to become an advocate for the programs and services that are needed by the educational consumer.

This will require creative responses on the part of the leader to insure not only a somewhat traditional educational program of high quality, but also new programs and services which will insure a greater congruence between what is and what ought to be.

Future leaders will find themselves providing quality programs during times of recession and declining student population. These trends will require more and more creative ability on the part of future IAE leaders. To deal effectively with the problems of declining dollars as well as rising costs and a declining student population will be a necessary leadership skill of the future. Doing more with less will be a way of life for the future IAE leader. New and creative bargaining skills of a high order will be necessary for the IAE leader of the future. These skills will be of vital importance in ensuring the quality of the educational programs and services.

SUMMARY

The IAE leader of the future will have to deal with a wider variety of problems and issues than present day leaders. The changing economic system, with fewer dollars, added to the problem of a declining student population has only now begun to impact IAE. Clearly, however, whole departments are threatened with extinction unless they are perceived to be leaders within their institution. The emergence of a more conservative way of life and the return to more traditional values will need to be addressed by future leaders. The ever-increasing deluge of information must be dealt with as well as the ever-increasing acceptance of divergent cultural groups. The leader of the future must be able to address each of these issues in as efficient and humane manner as is possible. To do so requires much creativity and deserves high rewards. The standards by which future IAE leaders are measured undoubtedly will increase in complexity and level because they will be confronted with more difficult and diverse problems than exist today. Preparing these leaders for the future of IAE is the responsibility of the IAE leadership of today. It must not be neglected.

Epilogue

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In this Yearbook, a substantial group of authors have expressed their views and the views of historical researchers concerning the dynamics of creative leadership. It is a substantial work that brings the collective wisdom to bear on an issue critical to the field of industrial arts education. As with any such work, its impact can be so overwhelming as to cause one to wonder if leadership can survive. Perhaps at this conclusion, it is time to put the work into perspective.

The evaluation of the historical leadership development concepts has been filtered through the thoughtful efforts of several authors. The projected results of a variety of suggested scenarios have been considered. The role of the leader has been explored, as well as suggestions for how to improve in the role. Comparisons of research and conventional wisdom have been made. The attitudes and techniques of both the military-business and the educational complexes have been discussed.

Leader creativity has been shown to play a key role in the process of influencing followers. Accordingly, the yearbook authors have suggested the following factors on how industrial arts teacher educators can exert influence as leaders:

1. Place the service to others above self interest.

The process requires the leaders to clarify within themselves what are their dominant personal objectives. Leaders who want to gain and hold followers must be willing to be servants first, and leaders second.

2. Appeal to the motive base of those being led.

Leaders must define the motives, aspirations, values, and goals that can mobilize followers. Authentic leadership requires collective decision making—where leaders as well as followers can influence each other. This process emerges from the clash and congruence of motives and goals expressed by leaders and followers. If potential followers are going to be reached, a broader and higher range of motivation must be employed by the leader. The result is a sharing of goal identification and means selected as to how they are to be achieved, a force higher than any one individual's ability. The leader-followers interface represents a symbiotic relationship.

3. Establish a consistent direction of leadership efforts.

Leaders can significantly influence followers, through a process of collectively seeking mutually agreeable goals and objectives. Since all leadership is goal oriented, then for leaders to be successful, they must seek a direction and vehicle through which an organization can achieve intended results. If difficulty arises in the leadership process, the leader should make corrections by focusing on techniques and procedures rather than human frailties.

4. Overcome obstacles to goal achievement.

The specific approach used by a leader in maintaining and developing an organization could lead to future troubles. For example, the leader may seek a specific direction as identified solely by a potential follower. In the zest to be completely democratic with the followers the leader may not analyze completely the motives of others. To overcome this difficulty, the leader must search for the true motivation of potential followers. Therefore, the best advice for leaders is to make decisions based on objective and reliable information.

5. Operate from a harmonious self system.

The leader's performance relates directly to his/her physiological and psychological well-being. Positive influence emanates from those leaders who are cool under pressure, maintain correct body weight, communicate well, are enthusiastic, and feel good about themselves. These leaders take charge of their lives and have a sense of destiny that others seek out as a center of influence.

6. Promote leadership in others.

Leaders who are knowledgeable and skilled in the functions of leadership provide role models (mentors) for others to follow. These leaders are lifelong learners and master teachers who enjoy helping others to reach beyond themselves to self-fulfillment. There is nothing quite so helpful in learning how to be a leader as having an internship experience with a leader.

In the last analysis, it must be said that industrial arts education is a human oriented system. It responds well to the human touch. With the best of understanding of what to do in any decision-making incident, it is a human being stressed by a multitude of environmental inputs that must be willing to gamble on how best to lead in the decision. Leadership framed in this setting enables leaders and followers to conceive and articulate goals which unite them in pursuits worthy of their best creative efforts.

Index

Academia, and presidential styles, 153–154
Academic department, and organizational theory, 156–158
Accountability, 229–231
Ad hoc committee, 141
Administrators, and stress reduction, 269
Adversity, in preparation of creative leaders, 131
After school environment, and professionalism, 214
AIAA, and teacher recognition, 208
AIAA/ACIATE convention, leadership of, 29
American Management Association (AMA), and creative leadership measurements, 62–63
Analogies, in synectics, 124–125
Anticipation, in time management, 239–240
Appointment, of faculty, 179
Apprenticeship, to prepare creative leaders, 129
Art of the possible, operating from, 58–69
Association memberships, and professionalism, 206
Attitudes, leader develops positive, 53
Autocratic leadership, 39
Autonomy, as professional characteristic, 197
Autonomy of object, as leadership stage, 124

Behavior—
  leadership, 59–65
  leadership of chairpersons, 160–172
  leadership style affects group, 153–156
  organizational and leadership, 151–159
Behavioral theories, 74–76
Budgetary system, 218–231
  managing the, 224–229
Burn out—
  of the organization, 258–260
  stages of professional, 257–258

Chairpersons, as new leaders, 160–161
Chairs, department styles, 154–155
Challenges, and the leader, 51
Charisma, and power, 45, 46
Classroom, professionalism of teacher inside and outside of, 201–202
Clubs, organizing student, 205
Coercive power, 46
Coffee klatch, affects leader decisions, 166
Commitment, developing in group process, 145–146
Committees, and goal achievement, 140–141
Communication—
  and the leader, 50
  as leadership skill, 166–168
Competence, as professional characteristic, 196
Competencies—
  for developing leaders, 121
  in measuring leadership, 63
Competency, concerns of, 198–200
Competency-based approach, to leader development, 120–123
Competency measures, vs. grades, 198–199
Consciousness, altered states of to reduce stress, 272–273
Consistency, and leader effectiveness, 167
Control measures, to reduce stress, 269
Controls, in preparing creative leaders, 129
Coordinative groups, 140
Creative leadership, *see* Leadership
  see Creativity
Creativity—
  application in professional activities, 137–280
  characteristic of leaders, 31
  defined, 78
  facilitators of, 83–84
  of the individual leader, 82
  inhibitors of, 84
  and leadership, 61–65
  principles of increasing, 62
  role in leadership, 24–25
  stages of, 78–81
Creativity taxonomy, 127–128
Critical incidents, and behavioral theories, 74

Deferment, as leadership stage, 124
Delegation, in time management, 241
Democratic leadership, 39
Department chairs, styles of, 154–155
Design approach, to leader development, 125–126
Detachment, as leadership stage, 124
Direct analogy, in synectics, 125
Direction, vs. leadership, 32–33, 34
Directive behavior, in chairperson, 156
Disillusionment, stages of professional, 257–258
Dismissal, of faculty member. 181
Diversion techniques, to reduce stress, 269

Dividends, in the group process, 147–148
Doctorates, and effect on leaders, 168–170
Dual Factor Theory, 43–44
Dynamics—
  of creative leaders, 57–91
  of industrial arts education leadership, 32–33
  role in leadership, 25–26
  of stress, 267

Education, and leadership styles, 153–156
Educational leaders, creative, 94–103
Emergent group, 141
Empirical inquiry, and intuition, 54
Enlightenment, in preparation of creative leaders, 130
Entepreneurial competence, and leadership, 63
Espirit de corp, leader builds, 54
Ethics, and professionalism of teacher, 201–202
Evaluation decisions, in the design approach, 126
Executive stress, managing, 268–273
Excitement, as characteristic of leadership, 64
Expert power, 45
External consulting service approach, to leader selection, 116–117

Faculty—
  achieving personnel actions, of, 176–193
  evidence of professional growth, 187–192
  increasing scholarship and service in, 163–164
  leader encourages participation, 164
  and presidential styles, 154
  rights and responsibilities in higher education, 178
Fantasy analogy, in synectics, 125
Fiedler's Contingency Model, 42–43
Filing system, in time management, 244
Financial support, and distribution, 218–231
Fiscal policy, 228
Followers—
  and dynamics of creative leaders, 57–91
  and leaders relationships, 86–89
Followership, necessary to leadership, 22
Funding, 218–231
  need for, 219–221

Gamesman Chair, 155
Goal-directed group strategy, 85
Goal-related dividends, 147
Goals—
  achieving through group action, 138–149
  context of achievement of, 139–143
  setting, 233
Grades, vs. competency measures, 198–199
Graduate assistants, 165
Great Man, approach to leadership, 36–38
Group action, achieving goals through, 138–149
Group behavior, leadership style affects, 153–156
Group process, 143–147
Group stressors, 273

Headhunting, to select leaders, 116–117
Herzberg, and Dual Factor Theory, 43
Holistic approach, to stress control, 270–273
Humanistic theories, 75
Human Resources Development (HRD), and creative leadership, 70–91
Hygiene factors, in Dual Factor Theory, 43

Identification power, 44
Identification-Recruitment-Selection (IRS) process, 108–114
Implementation, of creative leadership, 282–292
Incubation stage, of creativity, 80
Industrial arts education—
  developing creative leaders for, 119–135
  identifying potential leaders for, 104–118
  leadership philosophy of, 28–34
  profiles of creative leaders in, 94–103
Industrial arts educators, exerting influence as leaders in, 293–295
Industrial arts fairs, 209–210
Industrial arts teachers, preparing for club leadership, 204
Industrial educator, responsibilities of, 185–186
Influence—
  interpersonal leadership, 70
  and the leader, 51
Inservice, bridge to professionalism, 213
Inspiration stage, of creativity, 80
Instruction, creativity taxonomy for planning, 127–128
Intellect, requisite of competence, 200

Intellectual competence, and leadership, 63
Interaction-influence principle, 76
Internal committee approach, to leader selection, 115
Internal consultant process, to leader selection, 115–116
Interpersonal competence, and leadership, 63
Interpersonal influence, as leadership, 70
Interpersonal relationships—
  and the leader, 50
  and Type-B behaviors, 61
Intervention techniques, to reduce organizational stress, 274–279
Intuition, leadership ingredient, 54–55
Involvement, as leadership stage, 124

Japanese quality circles, and academic departments, 157
Jungle Fighter Chair, 155

Key force, in creative leadership, 21
Knowledge, as leadership competence, 63

Laissez-faire leadership, 39
Leader, power and behavior, 44–48
Leader-followers, and stressors, 258–262
Leaders—
  characteristics of effective, 158–159
  creative, 93–135
  creativity, 31
  developing creative, 119–135
  dynamics of creative, 57–91
  and followers relationships, 86–89
  humane, 152–153
  identification of effective, 73–77
  new chairpersons as, 160–161
  preparation of creative industrial arts education, 128–131
  process of identifying creative, 104–118
  selecting for profiles, 95
Leadership—
  in academic departments, 160–172
  application of creative in professional activities, 137–280
  and the art of the possible, 58–69
  behaviors of, 59–65
  characteristics of, 64–65
  characteristics of effective skills in, 158–159
  coping with stress of, 253–280
  creative, 61–65
  definitions of, 22–24
  developing creative, 131–134
  driving forces of creative, 70–91
  and dynamics of personnel actions, 150–175
  effects on budget, 231
  epilogue guidelines for industrial arts educators, 293–295
  as a frame of reference, 22–24
  the "Great Man" approach to, 36–38
  groups as resources for, 141
  guides to action, 172–174
  ideals of, 20–34
  interrelationship of forces, 79
  introduction to, 20–21
  and intuition, 54–55
  a look at future creative, 290–292
  managing organizational stress by, 273–279
  methodology for creative, 287–290
  and organizational behavior, 151–159
  origins of, 30
  and perceptions of leader, 65–68
  philosophy of industrial arts education, 28–34
  and power, 44–48
  preparation for, 33
  profiles of creative educational, 94–103
  and resolution of differences, 145
  reviewing and implementing creative, 281–295
  specific situations for, 26–28
  strategies for, 85–89
  style affects group behavior, 153–156
  styles of, 39
  systems of, 41
  transactional vs. transforming, 22–23
Leadership behavior, of chairpersons, 160–172
Leadership characteristics, from ACIATE survey, 49–54
Leadership process model, 88
Leadership research, history and development of, 36–56
Learning, creativity taxonomy for assessing, 127–128
Learning hierarchy, 122
Legalist environment, in higher education, 178
Legitimate power, 45
Linking-pin concept, 76
Listening, and the leader, 51
Logistic decisions, in the design approach, 126

Management focus, as characteristic of leadership, 64
Managerial Grid, 41–42

Meetings, as time wasters, 247–249
Mental health, and competence, 200
Mentor identification, of potential leaders, 106
Mentorship, to prepare creative leaders, 129
Morale, and the leader, 52
Methodology, of creative leadership in IAE, 287–290
Motivation—
  approach to leadership, 43–44
  in Dual Factor Theory, 44
  and the leader, 51

Operating procedures, standard, 242–244
Operational committees, 141
Organization, perception of by leader, 67–68
Organizational behavior, and leadership, 151–159
Organizational stress—
  leadership management of, 273–279
  sources of, 260–262
Organizational theory, and the academic department, 156–158
Organization Development (OD), 76–77

Participative leadership, 41
People emphasis, as characteristic of leadership, 64
People-oriented leadership, 42
Perception, affects leadership, 166–168
Perceptions, of creative leaders, 65–68
Personal analogy, in synectics, 124
Personality conflicts, within faculties, 161–163
Personality engineering, in stress reduction, 272
Personnel, and dynamics of leadership, 150–175
Personnel action, 150–175
  achieving appropriate faculty, 176–193
  context for, 170–172
Philosophy, of industrial arts education leadership, 28–34
Planning, in time management, 235–239
Planning systems, in time management, 238–239
Position, as base for leadership, 31, 32
Position power, 45
Power, and leader behavior, 44–48
Praise, and the leader, 53
Preparation stage, of creativity, 79
Presidential styles, affects faculty, 154
Preventing measures, to reduce stress, 268–269
Priorities—
  establishing, 233–235
  ordering, 234
Problem analysis, in establishing priorities, 235
Problems as challenges, in goal achievement, 139
Procedures, standard in time management, 243
Process-related dividends, 148
Procrastination, as time waster, 249
Production emphasis, as characteristic of leadership, 64
Productivity, and budget distribution, 229
Profession—
  characteristics of, 195–197
  leader promotes, 53
Professional associations, membership in, 206
Professional development, of faculty, 181
Professional growth, evidence of, (outline) 187–188, 189–192
Professionalism, 194–219
  defined, 194
  and the after school environment, 214
  the inservice bridge to, 213
  recognition of, 207–208
  and teaching conditions, 210–213
  and writing, 215
Profiles, of creative leadership, 94–103
Progress, in preparation of creative leaders, 131
Promotion, of faculty members, 180
Promotions, guiding principles of university faculty, 183–185
Public image, of teaching as profession, 199
Public relations, initiatives in, 208–210
Purpose decisions, in the design approach, 126

Reality, in preparing creative leaders, 129
Recruitment, of creative leaders for industrial arts education, 104–118
Resource deterioration, in higher education, 178
Resources, budgetary, 221–224
Responsibility, and the leader, 51
Restraint, as characteristic of leadership, 64
Retrenchment, of faculty, 181
Reward power, 45
Routines, and time management, 242

Sanction power, 45
Scholarship, leading faculty to increased, 163–164
Self-concept, attribute of leaders, 96

Self-perception, and creative leadership, 65–66
Seniority prerequisites, 168–170
Servanthood, and leadership, 21
Service—
  leading faculty to increase, 163–164
  as professional characteristic, 197
Seventies, and professional stature, 177–179
Short-range planning, in time management, 236–237
Simulation, to prepare creative leaders, 128
Situation, and Fiedler's Contingency Model, 43
Situational leadership, 26–28
Sixties, turmoil in the, 177
Social engineering, and stress reduction, 271
Social overlays, affect leadership, 166–167
Socio-emotional competence, and leadership, 63
Spectator Chair, 154
Speculation, as leadership stage, 124
Standard operating procedures, in time management, 242–243
Strategy, choosing in group process, 146–147
Strategy decisions, in the design approach, 126
Stress—
  characteristics of, 255–256
  coping with leadership, 253–280
  defined, 254–255
  tolerance levels of, 262–266
Stressors, 257–262
  in organization, 258–262
Student clubs, organizing, 205
Student fairs, 209, 210
Student identification, of potential leaders, 105–106
Student organizations, and teacher professionalism, 203–204
Support, financial, 218–231
Supportive behavior, in chairperson, 156
Symbolic analogy, in synectics, 125
Synectic approach, in developing leaders, 123–125
Synergism, in preparation of creative leaders, 130

Task effectiveness, and Type-B behaviors, 60–61
Task-oriented leadership, 42
Teacher—
  as role model, 203
  see also Teaching
Teacher educators, professional role recognition, 207
Teachers, and stress-reduction publications, 273
Teaching—
  complementary assignments in, 199–200
  evidences of effectiveness in, 189–190
  as a profession, 197–198
  and student organizations, 203–204
Teaching conditions, and professionalism, 210–213
Technician Chair, 155
Telephone interruptions, as time wasters, 245
Tenure, 180
  guiding principles of university, 183–185
Tenured professors, leading, 168–170
Theoretical models, of leadership, 36–56
Theory X—
  authoritarian leadership style, 40
  style of management, 153
Theory Y—
  democratic leadership style, 40
  style of management, 153
Threats, dealing positively with, 264–265
Time management, 232–252
  barriers to, 250
  improving, 249–251
Time wasters, conquering, 245–249
Tolerance, and stress, 262–266
Traditional administrative approach, to leader selection, 114
Trait theory, as effective leadership concept, 73–74
Traits, and "Great Man" leadership approach, 37
Transactional leadership, 22
Transforming leadership, 22–23
Type-A behavior, 60
Type-B behavior, 60–61

University, understanding system in, 183
University personnel actions, 176–193
Upward spiral, of leadership, 71–72

Verbal facility, attribute of leaders, 95
Verification stage, of creativity, 81
Vulnerability, and stress, 267

Work area, in time management, 243
Work environment, and stress, 256–258
Work-time effectiveness, improving, 250–251

Zone of Indifference, 48–49