LEADERSHIP IN GROUPS AND ORGANIZATIONS

A Virginia Cooperative Extension Service Correspondence Course

Virginia Tech and Virginia State
Virginia's Land-grant Universities

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VIRGINIA TECH

VIRGINIA STATE

Greetings,

Much has been said and written about the penchant we Americans have for committees, clubs, and meetings. A century and one-half ago, Alexis de Tocqueville chronicled the enthusiasm our young republic displayed for community meetings and committee meetings as a means of discussing and deciding issues of concern. That tradition lives on today.

Skill development in matters such as group leadership, meeting management, communications, and motivation are important for the continued well-being of community service clubs, associations, and organizations. Your Virginia Cooperative Extension Service, through this correspondence course, is pleased to be in a position to assist in this important endeavor. We congratulate you for taking the time to build upon your competence as a group or organization leader and wish you well in the course and your community work.

M. R. Geasler

Mitchell R. Geasler
Vice Provost for Extension and
Director, Virginia Cooperative
Extension Service

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LEADERSHIP IN GROUPS AND ORGANIZATIONS

A VIRGINIA COOPERATIVE EXTENSION SERVICE
CORRESPONDENCE COURSE

PREPARED BY:
COMMUNITY RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT
in cooperation with the
CENTER FOR VOLUNTEER DEVELOPMENT

Community Resource Development

Center for Volunteer Development

PREFACE

The demands facing persons who occupy positions of leadership in committees, clubs, associations, groups, and organizations are considerable. Knowledge of leadership styles and mores, knowing why people join organizations and what they expect in return, knowing how to organize and run effective meetings, as well as displaying a competent understanding of the dynamics of group decision making, communication, motivation, and team building are the major responsibilities and expectations we place on group and organization leaders. An irony in all this is the fact that most persons who aspire to be leaders or who occupy leadership positions do so without the benefit of any training. Few organizations, groups, clubs, or associations take the time to train persons for leadership positions. In like fashion, few organizations orient or train persons already in leadership positions. We just assume leaders know what to do.

In light of this reality, the Virginia Cooperative Extension Service has prepared the "Leadership in Groups and Organizations" correspondence course. The goal of the course is to provide the reader with practical and useful information about leadership and the responsibilities leaders have in groups and organizations. We do this by reviewing group and organizational leadership literature; by having you complete mini-exercises throughout the course; and, by testing your resulting knowledge on two occasions. For your efforts, you will receive a certificate of accomplishment. More importantly, however, we think you will feel more comfortable as a leader.

Many different persons and groups of persons over the years have made inquiries about the need for materials in this subject matter area. Real movement did not materialize until late 1982, however. At that time, the Virginia Federation of Women's Clubs (VFWC) articulated the needs they had relative to leadership training. The Virginia Extension Homemakers Council (VEHC) and the Virginia Jaycees also communicated generalized leadership training needs they had. In response to the foregoing, staff resources from the Community Resource Development unit of the Virginia Cooperative Extension Service were asked to respond to these inquiries. During the winter of 1983, a topical outline was prepared and work commenced on the project.

During the summer and fall of 1983, the course materials were field tested. Approximately 40 persons participated in this effort. Academicians, citizens, as well as persons from the VFWC, the VEHC, and the Virginia Jaycees made up the review group. Although all cannot be named, it would be remiss on our part if we failed to publicly thank Maureen Watkins for her efforts. A member of the VFWC and a resident of Lynchburg, Mrs. Watkins did yeoman's work in researching much of the course content. She also penned ample portions of the initial draft. Her dedication to this project, as well as professional spirit, has been outstanding. Other "special people" include the members of the 1983-84 VFWC Leadership Committee; Faye Davis, VFWC President; Janet Cassell, VEHC President; and, Robert Doerflynn, External Vice-President, Virginia Jaycees. Virginia Tech personnel who deserve special recognition include Del Dyer, Steve Parson, Jim Clouse, Shirley Gerken, and Frances Graham.

A special thanks is also extended to Paulette Starke, a former Center for Volunteer Development (CVD) secretary, who typed the initial draft. Lastly, a special thank you is reserved for Teresa Hypes of the CVD staff for the outstanding job she did in arranging and typing this final version. Any and all praise that may result from this course should be duly shared by one and all. Any criticism should be directed to the name that appears below. Good reading and good luck!

R. Michael Chandler
Extension Specialist
Community Resource Development

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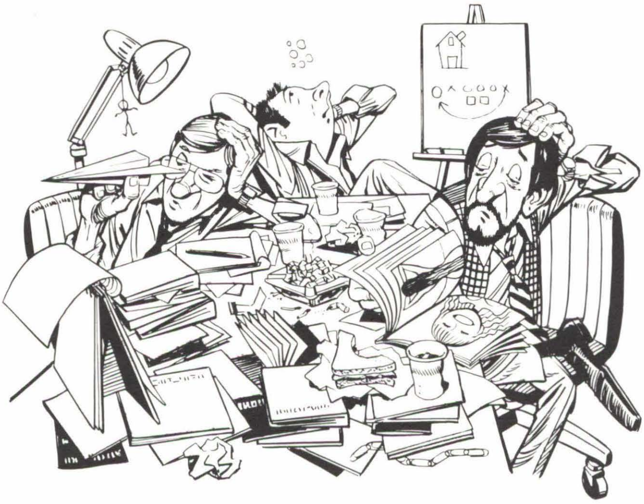
Chapter One



Organizations

and Leadership

ORGANIZATIONS AND LEADERSHIP

One of the dominant characteristics of our modern society is the prevalence of organizations. In fact, organizations pervade every element of our lives. We need only look around us to realize this fact. Most of us were born in a hospital. Most of us were educated in a school system. Practically all of us regularly participate in recreational, social, religious, or civic activities. Many of us hold jobs outside the home. In each case cited, organizations are involved. Accordingly, knowledge regarding organizations--what they are, why we have them, and the purposes they serve-is basic if we hope to influence and direct them effectively.

Of equal importance is the concept of leadership and the role leadership plays in an organization. In many instances, an organization's eventual success or failure will be dependent on the talent and skill of its leaders. Thus, a competent understanding of leadership, from a theoretical as well as practical viewpoint, is critical for organizational effectiveness. The focus of this chapter will be on the dual concepts of organization and leadership, as well as how they intersect and impact on one another.

ORGANIZATIONS

According to Webster's dictionary, the word organization has a dual meaning. Used as a noun, organization is the act or process of organizing and the condition or manner of being organized. Used as an adjective, organization is the complete conformity to standards and requirements of an organization. However, as you might imagine, several variations are possible from this base. Consider the following diagram:

To some, organization might mean direction and purpose. To others, it can mean structure, rules, and order. For still others, it may represent the opposite of how they view themselves, or it may be the opposite of chaos. The word can further represent authority, a job, or practically any other meaning we might choose to apply. Simply stated, the term can mean many things.

A 60 SECOND INSIGHT

In the blanks that follow, list the meanings or words that come to mind when you think of the term ORGANIZATION. Remember, allow yourself only 60 seconds for this insight!

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WHY ORGANIZATIONS

The study of organizations is both old and new. Writings about organizations can be traced back thousands of years to different cultures, different philosophers, as well as different points of view. The by-product of this evolution has been a variety of writings and commentaries on organizations, organization theory, and organization behavior. In many instances, the writings have tried to explain why people behave the way they do in organizations. To do this effectively, however, we must understand more about the setting of organizations.

The first question that comes to mind is why do organizations exist at all? Additionally, why have they grown in size and number? How did they come to be?

YOU ANSWER THE QUESTION

In the space below, respond to the question of WHY DO ORGANIZATIONS EXIST? Please answer the question before you proceed any further in your reading. Allow yourself five minutes to complete the question.

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The answer to the question raised can generally be explained in economic and rational terms. Historically, the reasons for organizations have varied from safety and security to reasons of trade, economic gain, and affiliation. In short, people bound together and joined forces in order to gain an advantage they could not be assured of as individuals. Humankind's ability to deduce that needs could be articulated and met through group effort is recognized as a distinguishing feature of our mental capacity. This "rational" ability serves as a foundation for our continued use and dependence on organizations.

QUICK CAP

* The term organization has multiple meaning.
* Viewed as structure, direction, or purpose, organization reveals a goal-directed nature.
* Organization is a resource tool that humankind uses on a daily basis in all aspects of our living.

ORGANIZATION CHARACTERISTICS AND FUNCTIONS

What mix of characteristics results in an organization? A review of organization literature reveals many organization traits; however, five characteristics appear to be essential ingredients for an organization to exist. The first of these is the concept of VALUES. Simply stated, values are the underlying philosophy that defines the reason(s) for an organization's existence. Without values, no organization can hope for a successful life.

The second characteristic that must be present is GOALS. Organizational goals should be thought of as articulated values. They are the operating principles an organization has set for itself. A significant subset of any organization's goals is its objectives. Objectives are the ongoing activities an organization has set for itself. Successful implementation of objectives can result in organizational goal attainment.

The third characteristic common to all organizations is STRUCTURE. No goal or objective can be met unless it is made operational. Thus, all organizations need structure. If viewed as a support system, structure can be thought of as the institutional arrangements that enable an organization to work. Included are reporting relationships (boss/subordinate or leader/member), a communication system, procedures for decision making, rules or norms for organization members, an accounting/evaluative capability for determining goal attainment, and a system for rewarding goal attainment. These "systems," as you might imagine, are highly interdependent. In addition, they are on the cutting edge of what leadership must be concerned about in an organization.

The next characteristic present in all organizations is CLIMATE. This element is the byproduct of matching people with organizational goals. The morale of organization members, the presence of tension, stress, clarity, and cooperation--just to name a few--are "climate" reactions always present in organizations. Without question, an organization's climate can be a critical factor in whether or not the goals and objectives of the organization can be met.

Few, if any, organizations exist in a vacuum. Practically all must interact with other groups or individuals to accomplish their goals. As such, the final characteristic shared by all organizations is ENVIRONMENT. Cooperating organizations, competing organizations, customers, clients, the community itself, are all representative of the term environment. Unless an organization has a successful relationship with its environment, goal attainment may be jeopardized and trauma could result. We need only look as far as the American auto industry for an example. Following the gas crunch, Americans abandoned their "gas guzzlers" for European and Japanese economy. Detroit failed to sense or forecast this "environmental shift" back in 1973. In many respects, they are still trying to recover from that failure.

Just as organizations share common characteristics, they also share common functions. Again, the literature on organizations is quite diverse. Nonetheless, four recurring functions do appear. One of the most significant is the notion of COORDINATION. As Edgar Schein notes in his book, Organizational Psychology, the very idea of organization stems from the fact that the individual alone is unable to fulfill all of his needs or wishes. When people coordinate their efforts they find they can do more. Accordingly, a major function of organization is the idea of coordination of effort in the service of mutual help.

The second function of organization builds upon the first. In order for coordination to be helpful, there must be agreement on the PURPOSE or GOALS of the organization. Thus, according to Peter Blau and Richard Scott, authors of Formal Organizations, organizations function to achieve some common goal or purpose.

Amitai Etzioni discusses the third function of organizations in his book, Modern Organizations. Describing organizations as social units deliberately constructed and reconstructed to seek specific goals, Etzioni maintains that all organizations are characterized by DIVISIONS OF LABOR. The major premise of the division of labor is that organizational goals can best be achieved if different people do different things in a coordinated fashion. We can look to the military for an example. The Army has concluded that some of its members should be fighters while others serve as supporters, bringing ammunition, food, and medicine to the fighters. When the job of fighting and supporting are each big enough, fighters may be divided into those who shoot rifles and those who man heavy guns. Suppliers may divide into a food-service unit, a clothing unit, and an ammunition unit. The total mission is thus divided into smaller units replete with their own subgoals. The resulting philosophy is that the overall goal (military preparedness in the example) can best be achieved by distributing subgoals and the labor needed to achieve them.

The final function running through the literature of organizations is that of AUTHORITY. Etzioni describes this as the presence of one or more power centers which control the efforts of the organization. Closely allied to the idea of division of labor and coordination, authority of some kind is essential if the organization's goals are to be met. In most organizations, authority is embodied in positions, titles, or ranks. Each position tends to have defined for it an area of responsibility or division of the labor and, in most cases, the authority to insure that its part of the job will be done. Coordination of effort is attained when a plan of action is made and everyone knows who is responsible for what.

QUICK CAP

* All organizations possess certain CHARACTERISTICS. Chief among them are Values, Goals, Structure, Climate, and Environment. These characteristics enable an organization to function.

* All organizations, once they become active, perform certain FUNCTIONS. Chief among them are the following:

  A coordinative function
  A goal-directed function
  A division of labor function
  Reliance upon authority

PEOPLE AND ORGANIZATIONS

Thusfar we have been talking about the mechanistic functions of an organization. As Chester Barnard points out in his book, <u>The Function of the Executive</u>, organizations are only conceptualizations. They have no identity or character without people. And without people who are willing to work together toward an objective, organizations are incapable of achieving anything. Thus, the lifeblood of any organization--its true soul--is its human members.

The Barnard observation that people must be willing to serve in organizations raises the question of why they should do so.

YOU ANSWER THE QUESTION

Before proceeding any further, take five minutes to reflect on and compose an answer to the question of WHY YOU JOIN ORGANIZATIONS?

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No doubt your answer is somewhat wide ranging. It may also be less specific that you might have imagined. That's alright; it is a tough question. Nevertheless, why do people join organizations? They join for many different reasons. However, a primary reason is the effervescent faith (or hope) we have in the ability of organizations to meet and satisfy our personal needs. Such needs may involve money, praise, recognition, a night out of the house, or anything else. The essential point is that organizations must endeavor to establish a "climate" where members feel their personal needs are being met at the same time the organization's needs are being met.

A simple illustration of this point is a situation where three men want to cross a river for different personal reasons. To cross the river, they have to row a boat. Unfortunately, both the distance and the rainy weather make it impossible for one person to attempt the trip. At least two persons are needed at the oars and a third to bail. They decide to join forces and go together, thereby forming an organization. The organizational objective is to get the boat across the river. This is different from their personal goals. However, what makes the organization work is that they see their individual actions contributing to the organizational goal of getting across the river so that they may accomplish their private objectives.

Several crucial points are contained in the preceding example. First, the object of coordination in organizations is activities (rowing, bailing) and not people. This means that organizations <u>should</u> rely on rules and procedures as a means of meeting goals and objectives and not as a means of controlling members. All groups--service clubs, civic clubs, associational clubs, even the workplace--are amenable to this style of management. An organizational climate that is people oriented results when members are viewed as the means and not the ends.

The second point of the example is that organizations serve to fulfill member needs that may be secondary to accomplishing the organization's basic mission. Thus, in addition to rowing and bailing, the "rowboat organization," as well as any other organization, is capable of providing members the following:

-- An outlet for affiliation needs; that is, needs for friendship, support, and camaraderie.

-- A means of developing, enhancing, or confirming a sense of personal identity.

-- A means of increasing personal security or power.

-- The sense of accomplishing something for one's self or community.

-- The responsibility of a challenge.

This reality leads us to the final point of the example. Namely, each member of an organization possesses certain expectations regarding what they will give to and what they expect to receive from an organization as a result of their membership. These expectations may be very visible or they may be buried in the member's subconscious. Regardless of the state of their articulation, organizations that are people oriented must take the time to determine what their members are prepared to give to the organization (generalized goals) and what they expect to receive from it in return (satisfaction of personal wants, needs, etc.). If this task is not done or if it is done haphazardly, a gap will develop between the organization and its membership. Such gaps are characterized by member disenchantment, frustration, dissatisfaction, withdrawal, chronic complaining, absenteeism, turnover, tardiness, termination, and a host of other organizational personnel maladies. Although some of the foregoing maladies can have other causes, the basic inability of an organization's goals to intersect and complement a member's personal goals and needs goes far in explaining why people become dissatisfied with organizations.

When viewed from this context, it is easy to see why most organizations are considered complex and why the job of organizational leadership is so critical. To be successful, all organizations must take the time to view their members as individuals. They must also show a keen interest and appreciation for their wants, desires, and motivations, both as individuals and as organization members. Anything less may result in organization and member stress.

QUICK CAP

* The object of coordination in organizations is activities and not people.

* Organizations must satisfy member needs if they hope to be successful.

* Organizations are like a two-way street; they must give something to their members in exchange for their members' service and contributions. If this exchange does not take place, a gap can develop between an organization and its membership.

A WORKING DEFINITION FOR ORGANIZATION

The foregoing discussion has reviewed the major characteristics and functions associated with organizations. Through this process, several significant observations were made. For example, organizations have been portrayed as purposeful social units capable of goal determination and goal attainment. Central to this effort are the ideas of coordination, a division of labor, and some means of control or authority. If we were to mix these various concepts and themes, a definitional statement for the term organization would result. For our purposes, let's consider the following statement:

> An organization is a group of people who have established a pattern of relationships to conduct activities which address common goals through a division of labor and a hierarchy of authority.

YOU IN ORGANIZATIONS

As noted in this chapter's introduction, modern society continues to rely on organizations as a means of doing and getting things done. Whether we are talking about civic groups, professional groups, government or industry, we are talking about groups of people who get involved and make things happen. The characterization that Robert Presthus made twenty plus years ago--that we are an organizational society--seems to be even more appropriate today.

Because of the prevalence of organizations in our society, have we become more confident in our ability to maintain and nurture the organizations we are members of? That's a difficult question to answer in a general way. However, a best "guesstimate" on our part is that many of us have not. The basis for that response is that many people have a difficult time relating to organizations. For example, we can all think of organizations that seem to be large, amorphous non-entities impervious to our personal input and influence. We can also think of other organizations that seemingly exist only because of our personal involvement and dedication. In between these two extremes lies the organization that seems to be working just fine. One person, three different organizations, and three different impressions. Real or unreal you ask. Look at your personal experience for the answer. Also, if you are a member of an organization, ask some friends to answer the same questions. If the answers surprise you, talk about them among yourselves. The discussion should prove beneficial and entertaining.

REFLECT/RECALL EXERCISE

ORGANIZATIONS AND ME:
HOW WE RELATE TO ONE ANOTHER

In the column on the left, list the organizations you are currently a member of or have been during the last three years. Next, check the space under the columns numbered one, two, and three that most accurately characterizes your TRUE feeling toward the organization listed. Use the code provided at the bottom. Note example shown.

	1				2				3			
Organization	Feeling Same as Being the Only Person to Protest a Rate Hike for a Utility				Feeling Same as Being the Only Lifeguard for 50 People Who Can't Swim but who are in the Pool				Feeling Same as Being One of 8 New Spark Plugs in a Perfectly Tuned Car			
	A	S	R	N	A	S	R	N	A	S	R	N
Virginia Yo-Yo Association		✓			✓						✓	

A - Always S - Sometimes R - Rarely N - Never

LEADERSHIP

> "Leadership is one of those things you don't know you need until you don't have it."
>
> Louis Masotta

> "Leadership is the lighting of man's vision to higher sights, the raising of a man's performance to a higher standard, the building of man's personality beyond its normal limitations."
>
> Peter Drucker

> "Leadership is a process whereby one person exerts influence over the members of a group."
>
> Allan Filley
> Robert House

> "Better to reign in hell than serve in heav'n."
>
> Lucifer in John Milton's
> Paradise Lost

Leadership. Few, if any, words generate as much discussion and debate. Leadership. Few conceptualizations can lay claim to the fact that they have been a subject of research and writing since the dawn of recorded history. Leadership. Just what is it? How does it work? Can we see it?

The preceding quotes and observations are vivid examples of why leadership is and must be a concern of society and organizations. In our hurry-up world, we have come to associate organizational success, as well as organizational failure, with leadership. From General Motors to the White House, to the New York Yankees, to the Homeville Junior Women's Club, organizational effectiveness--rightly or wrongly--is tied to the persons occupying leadership positions. Accordingly, our focus in this section will be on the nature of leadership, some of its foundational supports, and a review of what leaders do--especially in an organizational context.

A 60 SECOND INSIGHT

On the blanks that follow, list the words or terms that come to mind when you think of the term LEADERSHIP. Remember, allow yourself only 60 seconds for this insight.

NATURE OF LEADERSHIP

Leadership should be thought of as a specialized application of management. To most people, management involves the planning, organizing, directing, and controlling of resources to accomplish something. Generally speaking, money, material, time, and people make up any organization's resource base. Of these resources, however, only people can be led. Leadership, as a result, becomes an "extra" responsibility that is different from the traditional connotations of management. The successful application of this responsibility involves the use of authority and its chief byproduct--power.

In organizations, authority is a functional element and power is considered a given. When we view leadership, however, authority and power take on slightly different meanings. From a leadership perspective, authority is considered position-related power, it is the rank or title a person has. Power, on the other hand, is the personal and positional attributes a person (leader) uses to influence others. The presence of authority, as you might imagine, does not automatically mean power. For example, a community service club president has positional authority but that same person may have little or no power because of his/her inability or refusal to influence others. In much the same way, a battlefield commander possesses obvious authority. However, if the commander's troops fail to follow orders, the commander would have to be considered powerless.

Numerous attempts have been made to depict the basis upon which a leader uses power. Robert Dahl, for example, defines power in a simple, yet highly precise, way when he observes A has power over B to the extent that he can get B to do something that B would not otherwise do. John French offers the same definition with an interesting twist. Power, according to French, is also a function of B's resistance to A's directive. Viewed this way, power becomes a combination of interpersonal forces and resistances. John French and Bertram Rowen have analyzed power from such a perspective. Their conclusion is that a leader can possess power in at least five ways. They are as follows:

> Coercive. This is power based upon fear. Coercive power is what happens when B thinks A has enough power to punish or reprimand B.
>
> Reward. Reward power is based on the perception by person B that person A has the ability to provide or obtain rewards for person B. Examples of reward power could include money, praise, and recognition.
>
> Legitimate. This kind of power results when B thinks A has the "right" to lead. The divine right of kings is an example, as is the deference we show to persons who have titles or hold organizational positions.
>
> Expert. Expert power appears when B thinks A has special knowledge or skill. Doctors, for example, are considered to have expert power. This is because patients believe a doctor's knowledge exceeds their own.
>
> Referent. Referent power flows when B identifies with A, as for instance, when B would like to be like A. In many instances, referent power is power based upon the leader's personal appeal. Charismatic leaders are sometimes credited with referent power.

Coercive, reward, and legitimate power are specified primarily by the individual's position in an organization. Correspondingly, the degree and scope of a leader's referent and expert power bases are dictated by individual characteristics. The mix of power that a leader chooses to employ will depend on a number of different factors. Chief among them will be the leader's attitude toward the task; the leader's attitude toward the persons working on the task; the leader's knowledge of the "workers'" needs; the leader's willingness to address their needs; and, the willingness of the workers to accept and follow the leader's directives.

The five bases of power suggest that leadership means influence. The quotes at the beginning of this section all reflect influence--or the lack of it--as an attribute of leadership. Researchers agree with this assessment, yet questions remain. For example, what characteristics or behaviors make it more likely that an individual will become a leader? Additionally, what characteristics make it more or less likely that he or she will be effective? This first question is asking who is likely to assume a leadership position. The second is asking how persons exercise leadership once they become leaders. Many of these questions can be answered by reviewing leadership research and theories.

> QUICK CAP
>
> * Leadership is the management of people toward some goal.
>
> * Authority is like a lamp and power is like a light bulb. Leadership is the act of turning on the light.
>
> * Leadership without "followership" is not leadership.

LEADERSHIP RESEARCH

As was noted, leadership has long been the subject of theorists, researchers, and practitioners. Several of these efforts have yielded useful information which can help leaders. A brief review of the major leadership research follows.

TRAIT THEORIES

Much of the early work on leadership focused on identifying the traits of effective leaders. This approach was based on the assumption that a finite number could be found in effective leaders and, in turn, be used to identify future leaders.

This approach became known as the "great man" theory of leadership. Hundreds of studies designed to determine what personal characteristics were related to leadership effectiveness were conducted. Physical traits such as age, height, weight, and energy were investigated, along with social background (e.g., education, social status), intelligence, and a long list of personality measures (e.g., assertiveness, dominance, independence, self-confidence, and objectivity), and social characteristics (e.g., attractiveness, popularity, tact). Needless to say, the results were discouraging. They indicated little consistency of traits in the leaders studied. Several positive results did occur, however. First, the notion that leaders are born was disspelled. Second, the situation or environment where leadership was being applied became a subject of interest.

BEHAVIORAL THEORIES

Dissatisfaction with the trait approach to leadership led to a new tactic, which focused on leadership behavior. The methodological and theoretical emphasis was on reliable observations, rather than on internal states or traits. Leadership was viewed as the performance of those acts which helped the group achieve its preferred outcomes. Accordingly, much of the research conducted in this area focused on what leaders do when leading.

One of the first behavioral studies undertaken was the 1938 effort of Lewin, Lippett, and White that resulted in the identification of the now-classic three styles of leadership--autocratic, laissez faire, and democratic. The location of the decision-making function is what distinguishes the three styles. In general, the autocratic leader makes all decisions; the laissez faire leader allows individuals in the group to make all decisions; and the democratic leader guides and encourages the group to make decisions. The following descriptions are representative of how leaders function in each of the three styles.

AUTOCRATIC LEADERS AND GROUP ACTIONS

1) Very conscious of his/her position.

2) Little trust or faith in group members.

3) Gives orders and demands that they be carried out. No questions encouraged and no explanations given.

4) Group members assume no responsibility for performance and do only what they are told.

5) Nothing gets done unless the leader is there to see to it.

LAISSEZ FAIRE LEADERS AND GROUP ACTIONS

1) Laissez faire leaders have no confidence in the ability of their group members.

2) No goals are set for the group.

3) Decision making is performed by whoever is willing to expend the effort.

4) Morale and teamwork are generally low.

5) The group usually has little interest in their work.

DEMOCRATIC LEADERS AND GROUP ACTIONS

1) Decision making is shared between the leader and the group.

2) Criticism and praise are objectively given.

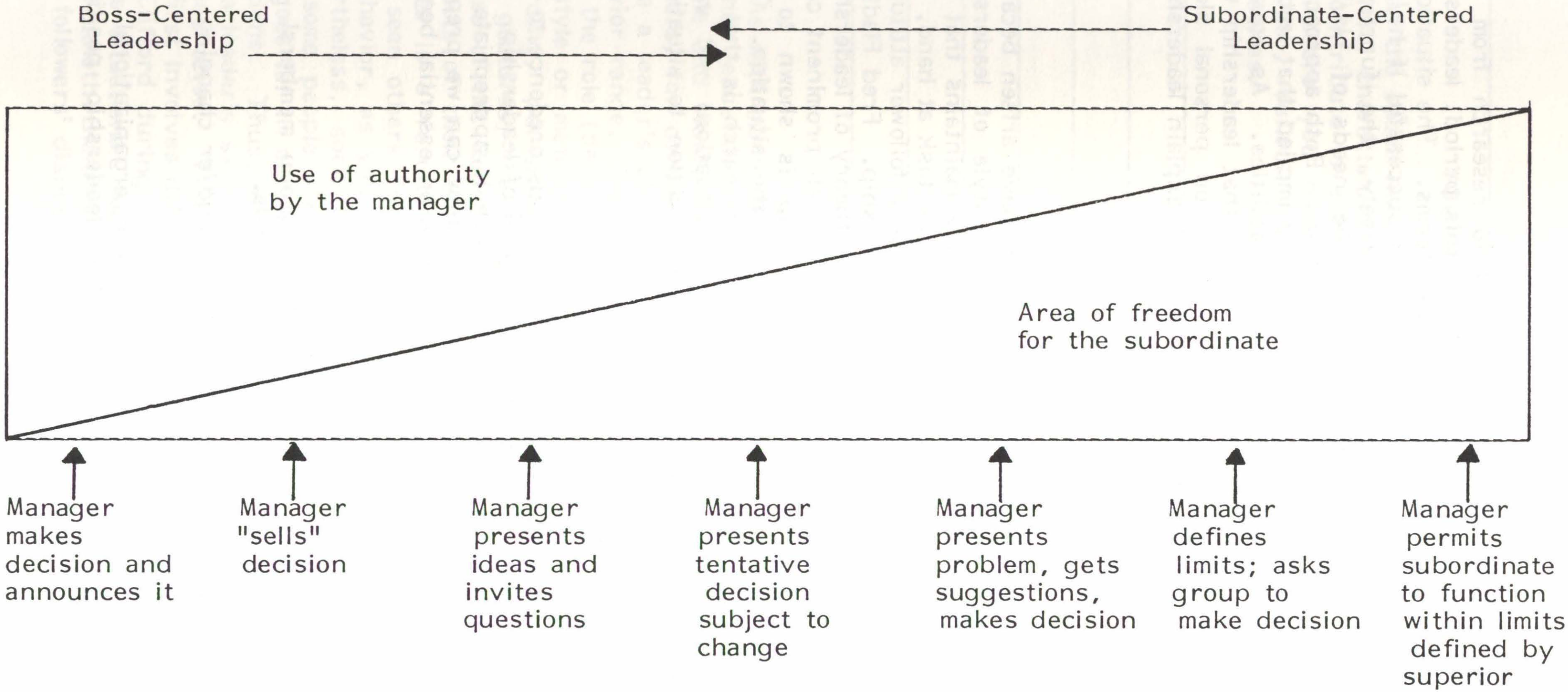
3) New ideas and change are welcomed.

4) A feeling of responsibility is developed within the group.

5) Group productivity is usually high.

Following the introduction of the three leadership styles, behavioral research began focusing on the situational aspects of leadership (when and what styles of leadership are employed) and the functional aspects of leadership (how leaders get things done in an organization). Voluminous research has been conducted along this dual track. Tannenbaum and Schmidt (continuum of leadership), McGregor (Theory X and Theory Y), Likert (job-centered/employee-centered leadership), Korman (two-dimensional leadership), and Blake and Mouton (the managerial grid) are representative of the studies conducted.

The results of the behavioral studies have been fairly impressive. Situational approaches, as well as functional approaches, to leadership were strongly influenced by the leader's attitude; namely, whether the leader viewed leadership as being boss-centered or subordinate-centered. The research of Tannenbaum and Schmidt is representative. They contend that leadership is related to the manager's disposition in allowing followers to make decisions. Their continuum, reproduced below, notes the relative strength of the manager's authority and the subordinate's freedom. The essence of the continuum is that effective leaders are those who are adaptable and can rely on their followers for assistance.


Boss-Centered Leadership
Subordinate-Centered Leadership
Use of authority by the manager
Area of freedom for the subordinate
Manager makes decision and announces it
Manager "sells" decision
Manager presents ideas and invites questions
Manager presents tentative decision subject to change
Manager presents problem, gets suggestions, makes decision
Manager defines limits; asks group to make decision
Manager permits subordinate to function within limits defined by superior

Behavioral studies dominated leadership research from the late twenties to the early sixties. During this period, leadership was examined in situational and functional terms. The situational approach maintained that a leader could be successful if he/she knew the nature of the problem. Conversely, the functional approach felt a leader's ability to meet the needs of his/her followers was the key to successful leadership. Both approaches came up short. Situational leadership wrongly implied that leaders were born of situations and not of their abilities. As equally imprecise, the functional approach theorized that leadership was totally dependent on "followership" and not on personal skill. Because these one-dimensional views failed to explain leadership, a third body of research was generated.

CONTINGENCY THEORIES

The contingency theories of leadership have arisen because the search for the "one best" pattern or style of leadership proved to be impossible. Contingency theory maintains that the fit between leader and follower personality, the task at hand, the environment of the situation, as well as leader/ follower attitudes and perceptions are the determinants of leadership. Fred Fiedler's contingency leadership theory, the path-goal theory of leadership, and the Vroom-Yetton model of leadership are all prominent contingency theories. In each case, leadership is shown to be influenced by the leader, the followers, and the situation. The other salient point revealed by contingency research is that the variables of leadership (leader, followers, situation) will vary from organization to organization and from situation to situation.

THE EMERGING SYNTHESIS

The brief review of leadership theories lends credence to the notion that there is no one best style or model of leadership. On the contrary, effective leadership is that which is appropriate for a specific situation. That being the case, how can we prepare leadership? The following points appear to be an essential beginning:

--An understanding of self.

--A knowledge and appreciation of the group members' personal, as well as organizational, needs.

--The flexibility to respond to different and/or changing situations.

--A knowledge of the technical and/or organizational responsibilities associated with the leadership position.

YOU ANSWER THE QUESTION

In the space below, list personal characteristics, behavioral characteristics, and situational characteristics that contribute to a person's leadership capacity. Think of leaders you have known in answering this question. Also, reflect on your own leadership qualities and styles.

____________________	____________________
____________________	____________________
____________________	____________________
____________________	____________________
____________________	____________________
____________________	____________________

As with many theories, a paradox exists with respect to contingency leadership. At the same time leaders are implored to be flexible and fluid, they are bombarded with pleas, usually from followers, for consistency. Jerry Robinson and Roy Clifford describe a leader's ability to react to different situations as his/her behavior range. This repertoire of interaction skills is dependent upon the role (democratic, autocratic, free rein) the leader plays, the style or method the leader uses to play the role (judging, rewarding, punishing), and the behavior bits (frown, smile, other gestures) the leader uses to act out the chosen style. The premise of the Robinson and Clifford concept is that leaders are products of their socialization. In other words, what we do as leaders is a result of habit, experience, or applying what we have seen others do in leadership positions. The resulting range of behavior, as you might imagine, can be either large or small. Nevertheless, socialization appears to be a good explanation of why some people always exercise the same leadership style. It also goes far in explaining why leaders appear to "freeze" in some situations. Thus, the challenge of socialization is one of insuring that a leader's skill level is capable of fitting different situations as they arise. Two points are worthy of note in this regard. The first involves different leadership roles identified by Robinson and Clifford during their discussion of socialization. The second is the situational model of leadership developed by Paul Hersey and Kenneth Blanchard which encourages leaders to be aware of their followers' disposition toward goal attainment.

The research of Robinson and Clifford resulted in the identification of five different leadership styles which can be characterized by the role expectations and behavior of the leader. The five roles have been symbolically labeled activator, controller, martyr, cavalier, and abdicator. Activators, according to Robinson and Clifford, involve group members when trying to solve group problems. As such, activators use behavior bits that encourage members to get involved. Controllers, conversely, act out power roles. They tell members what to do and when. The behavior bits they use strengthen their position. Martyrs play a code reinforcer role. They use behavior bits only to produce guilt. Their goal is to get group members to feel sorry for them. Cavaliers are just the opposite. According to Robinson and Clifford, cavalier leaders see their role as providers of pleasure. They entertain first and then they entertain again. In many cases, this is because cavalier-type leaders have little faith or confidence in their abilities. Lastly, Robinson and Clifford describe abdicators as leaders who take no risk and assume little or no responsibility for their actions. The relationship of the Robinson and Clifford leadership styles to the traditional styles of leadership can be depicted in the following way:

ACTIVATOR -	Democratic Leader
CONTROLLER -	Autocratic Leader
MARTYR -	Autocratic Leader
CAVALIER -	Laissez Faire or Free Rein Leader
ABDICATOR -	Laissez Faire or Free Rein Leader

A more complete review of each of the five roles is contained on the tables that follow. Do any of the roles look familiar?

THE ACTIVATOR

ROLE EXPECTATION: Involve others because team work is essential for successful task achievement.

Behavior Style (active & flexible)	Behavior Bits
1. Initiates	1. Friendly handshake. 2. Encouraging attitude; smiling and chatting to put people at ease. 3. "You know, Tom, why I brought you here. There have been some problems over the new youth center, and I thought we could discuss them."
2. Involves	1. Leans forward, says, "I see," and creates an open atmosphere. 2. Repeats and asks specific questions. 3. "What do you think needs to be done to solve this problem?"
3. Assimilates	1. "Is that what you mean . . .?" 2. "In summary, we have agreed that you will do _________ and I will do _____________." 3. "Let's list all of the ways this is to be done."
4. Reinforces	1. "You did that well." 2. "Dr. Smith's research supports your idea." 3. "We tried your suggestion and succeeded last time. I think your plan is good this time, too."
5. Solidifies	1. "Let's review those points once again." 2. "Now, what is it that you are going to do by tomorrow?" 3. "That's exactly what I want you to do. Go ahead."

THE CONTROLLER

ROLE EXPECTATION: People need supervision. They are lazy by nature. Creativity is rare. Leaders must apply power to stimulate.

Behavior Style (active but rigid)	Behavior Bits
1. Regiments	1. Hides goals and controls information. "Get a pencil . . . get a piece of paper . . . write your name at the top of the page . . . number from 1 to 10 on left margin . . . spell process . . . spell content, etc." 2. Deals with group members one at a time. 3. Rigid agenda with much control over it.
2. Judges	1. Stands over people. Attempts physical intimidation. 2. "You are not doing what I said." 3. "I told you yesterday what to do." 4. "That will never work."
3. Rewards or Punishes	1. "That's what I told you to do." 2. "You will fail if you do it that way." 3. "Sally's doing it right. Will you ever be able to do good work like Sally?"

THE MARTYR

ROLE EXPECTATION: Makes group aware of values and norms. Attempts to use guilt to enforce rules. Considers disloyalty an unpardonable sin.

Behavior Style (passive & active, but too rigid)	Behavior Bits
1. Enforces norms	1. "The handbook says . . . and if we don't follow it, the results will be disastrous. You've got to do it this way." 2. "As you sow, so shall you reap." 3. "I feel uneasy about all this change." 4. "Now don't get into trouble tonight."
1. Overworks self	1. "Let me do it; I hope it won't kill me." 2. First to meeting and last to leave. 3. Takes lots of work home. 4. Cleans up after everyone. 5. Runs around a lot; preoccupied with busy work.
3. Seeks pity	1. "My back is killing me." 2. "I work so hard, but I never seem to get anything done." 3. "It looks like someone else around here could do something." 4. "My husband has threatened to leave me if I have to go to one more night meeting." 5. "You go ahead to the party; I'll stay here and work on our report."

THE CAVALIER

ROLE EXPECTATION: Pleasure comes first. People only work when they can have fun.

Behavior Style (active & passive, but too flexible)	Behavior Bits
1. Entertains	1. Tells jokes and laughs a lot. 2. Pulls pranks and emphasizes sense of humor. 3. Long breaks for fun and games. 4. "Let's have fun while we work."
2. Avoids judgment	1. "You're a good guy, a fun person, and my kind of fellow, don't worry . . ." 2. "We are all chiefs in this organization, there are no Indians. Ha! Ha!" 3. "That's O.K., I'll take care of it for you. Don't you bother about it." 4. "We are just one big, happy family here. I'll look after you." 5. Pats subordinates on the back a lot, even when they make mistakes.
3. Seeks approval	1. "Do you like my idea?" 2. "Wasn't I great?" 3. "What do you think of my new outfit?" 4. Uses flair and flashy behavior.

THE ABDICATOR

ROLE EXPECTATION: Let others assume responsibility. Never take any risks personally.

Behavior Style (passive, but rigid, sometimes flexible)	Behavior Bits
1. Withdraws	1. Avoids conferences and meetings with superiors, peers, and subordinates. 2. Day dreams constantly. 3. Passes buck constantly.
2. Postpones action	1. "Let's wait and see what happens." 2. "Don't do today what you can put off until tomorrow." 3. "Let's get all of these reports filled out on the <u>old</u> project before we think about a <u>new</u> one." 4. "What research findings are available on that?"
3. Avoids responsibility	1. Creates busy work and gets preoccupied with minutia. 2. "You do it. I just don't know what to do." 3. "Let's don't do anything. It's really their duty." 4. Misses crucial meetings. 5. Blames "bad" decisions on subordinates and/or boss.

One of the newest models in situational leadership theory is that of Hersey and Blanchard. They contend that a leader's behavior range or leadership attitude is but one factor in leadership effectiveness. The other factor is the followers' willingness and ability to comply with the leader's directive. Hersey and Blanchard maintain that such willingness is a function of the followers' motivation toward goal achievement, their ability to work toward the goal, and the skills they bring to the task. If a follower is deficient in one of the above areas, the Hersey/Blanchard model suggests that leaders must choose a behavior that suits the followers' needs. For example, a subcommittee chairperson for a civic club may be totally comfortable in organizing and running meetings, but unsure of his/her abilities relative to a fund-raising activity. In this case, according to Hersey and Blanchard, a leader should not take an active role in directing the chairperson in the area of meeting management because of the chair's demonstrated competence. On the other hand, because the chair is weak in fund raising, the group leader should take an activist role in providing guidance and direction.

The essence of the Hersey and Blanchard contribution is that leaders must take the time to recognize the potential in their followers and strive to establish a climate where they may develop and maximize their potential. When combined with the Robinson and Clifford leadership roles, a comprehensive view of leadership--involving leader behavior and follower behavior--is revealed.

LEADERSHIP IN ORGANIZATIONS

We have observed that our society has developed through the creation of specialized organizations which provide the goods and services we desire.. We have further stated that organizations are guided by one or more persons we call leaders. Accordingly, the interface between organizations and leaders becomes critical; especially when viewed from the standpoint of organizational goal attainment and whether or not individual members needs are met as part of that process.

A hallmark of most organizations is the notion of knowing what needs to be done and having access to the resources to get the job done. The concept of leadership weighs heavily in this proposition. Unless clarity is achieved regarding the organization's purpose, most organizational leaders will have a difficult time determining what specific goals and objectives should be pursued. Such indecision is usually present in organizations which are characterized as being deficient.

Leadership in organizations is also critical when actions are taken that translate the planned activities into structured events. In other words, an additional test of organizational leadership is the degree to which leaders successfully define organizational tasks, assign persons to get the job done, and evaluate the process. The ability of a leader to effectively discharge this responsibility requires a precise knowledge of the organization, a thorough understanding of the human and non-human resources available, and the skill and ability to mold the group of individuals into an effective team. Such a leader views leadership as a shared and group-centered function. That is, the leader realizes his/her function is to assist and guide the group rather than arbitrarily and dictatorially direct the group. Such leaders would probably possess the following characteristics:

* Personal confidence in themselves.
* A belief in their personal ability to lead.
* A pronounced belief in the ability of people to do things for themselves and a willingness to allow them the opportunity.
* A belief that the group succeeds because of everyone's contributions and not just the leader's.
* Adherence to the notion that the organization is to serve its members and not vice versa.

Such a leader would also agree with the following quote:

> A leader is best when
> People barely know that he exists.
> Of a good leader, who talks little,
> When his work is done, his aim fulfilled,
> They will say, 'We did this ourselves.'
>
> Lao Tse

CHAPTER SUMMARY

The focus of Chapter One has been on the dual concepts of organization and leadership. Organizations were portrayed as purposeful creations which enable humankind to conduct innumerable activities and events. As part of this effort, salient points were noted that explain why people join organizations and what they expect from organizations.

Our journey through the maze of leadership revealed much about the concept, as well as much about ourselves and how we view one another. We reviewed the different leadership styles. Although they are varied, they each reflect a leadership personality. They also reflect a perception of humankind and the degree to which a bond of trust and integrity typifies a leader/follower relationship. The emerging consensus from Chapter One is that leadership is a two-way street. It must give in order to receive. Followers, in addition to leaders, bear a major responsibility for the success or failure an organization enjoys. An appropriate food for thought item is the following comment on leadership by IBM:

> Leadership is an invisible strand as mysterious as it is powerful. It pulls and it bonds. It is a catalyst that creates unity out of disorder. Yet, it defies definition. No combination of talents can guarantee it. No process or training can create it where the spark does not exist.
>
> The qualities of leadership are universal: they are found in the poor and the rich, the humble and the proud, the commoner and the brilliant thinker; they are qualities that suggest paradox rather than pattern. But wherever they are found, leadership makes things happen.
>
> The most precious and intangible quality of leadership is trust--the confidence that the one who leads will act in the best interest of those who follow--the assurance that they will serve the group without sacrificing the rights of the individual.
>
> Leadership's imperative is a "sense of rightness"--knowing when to advance and when to pause, when to criticize and when to praise, how to encourage others to excel. From the leader's reserves of energy and optimism, his/her followers draw strength. In his/her determination and self-confidence, they find inspiration.
>
> In its highest sense, leadership is integrity. This command by conscience asserts itself more by commitment and example than by directive. Integrity recognizes external obligations, but it heeds the quiet voice within, rather than the clamor without.

CHAPTER ONE

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Chapter Two

The Leadership Function

THE LEADERSHIP FUNCTION

The dominant thinking today is that leadership is a matter of abilities and skills that can be learned. Also obvious is the realization that all organizations rely on certain activities which enable them to function in a logical manner.

The purpose of this chapter is to review the activities associated with the function of leadership in an organizational setting. Chief among these activities are meeting management, decision making, and conflict management. Our focus will be on the particular roles and responsibilities a leader is expected to perform in each of the respective activities.

THE SUBJECT IS MEETINGS

Meetings have become a way of life for most American institutions. Local governments, businesses, churches, schools, civic clubs, neighborhood associations, service clubs--just to name a few--would be lost without meetings to conduct business, share opinions, make decisions, and solve problems. In fact, it is estimated that over 11 million meetings are held daily nationwide.

YOU ANSWER THE QUESTION

How many meetings do you go to in a week's time? What about a month? In the space below, list the various meetings you attend during a week's time, or a month's time, and estimate the amount of time you spend at the meetings. Complete this question before you proceed any further with your reading.

Meetings	Time Spent
______________________	______________________
______________________	______________________
______________________	______________________
______________________	______________________
______________________	______________________
______________________	______________________

WHAT MEETINGS PROVIDE

As was noted in the first chapter, much of what we do in society is done by groups. And because people must communicate in groups to get things done, meetings have become, as the preceding statistic reveals, commonplace. In the process, most meetings serve one or more of the following purposes:

* To make decisions
* To share important and timely information.
* To divide the group's workload.
* To find new solutions to problems.
* To build organizational membership and morale.
* To help bring about the group's vision and goals.

Another reason for meetings is our desire for interaction with one another. Another is the fact that the best way to communicate information to persons in a group is through face-to-face contact. It is almost always much harder and more time-consuming to convince someone of something by letter than it is to convince them face-to-face. In groups, creative dynamics emerge that do not always occur when we sit and think alone. Thus, a group has the potential of becoming more than the sum of its parts through the open sharing of ideas and opinions. Properly planned, meetings provide:

* Face-to-face contact.
* Group dynamics versus individual input.
* An opportunity to equalize participation among group members.
* An opportunity for preferences to be shown.
* A vehicle for group decision making.

WHY MEETINGS SOMETIMES FAIL

How do we know if a meeting works? There are two ways of judging the success of a meeting according to Michael Doyle and David Straus, authors of <u>How To Make Meetings Work</u>. First, we must judge the real importance of our meeting by the results we get from them. If the meeting contributes to our organizational goal or aids in the satisfaction of a group objective, we can probably judge the meeting a success.

The second way to judge a meeting is through the examination of the meeting process. Questions about the meeting's sequence, whether or not the group worked well together, how participants felt, and the like, must be answered before judging the meeting a success or failure. As such, group evaluation of the meeting process should be considered a necessity and not a luxury. Several good instruments are available for this activity, including the following.

MEETING-EVALUATION SCALE
Frank Burns and Robert L. Gragg

Circle one number for each statement.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I was notified of this meeting in sufficient time to prepare for it.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I understood why this meeting was being held (e.g., information sharing, planning, problem solving, decision making, open discussion, etc.) and what specific outcomes were expected.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I understood what was expected of me as a participant and what was expected of the other participants (including the leader, coordinator, chairperson, facilitator, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5
4. I understood how the meeting was intended to flow (e.g., agenda, schedule, design, etc.) and when it would terminate.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Most participants listened carefully to each other.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Most participants expressed themselves openly, honestly, and directly.	1	2	3	4	5

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
7. Agreements were explicit and clear, and conflicts were openly explored and constructively managed.	1	2	3	4	5
8. The meeting generally proceeded as intended (e.g., the agenda was followed, it ended on time) and achieved its intended purpose.	1	2	3	4	5
9. My participation contributed to the outcomes achieved by the meeting.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Overall, I am satisifed with this meeting and I feel my time here has been well spent.	1	2	3	4	5
11. At the start of the meeting, I understood its purpose and agenda.	1	2	3	4	5

A 60 SECOND INSIGHT

Why do you think MEETINGS FAIL? Over the next 60 seconds, list all the reasons you can think of. Rely on your personal experiences. Please complete this exercise before proceeding any further.

As you might imagine, several reasons can be noted for less than successful meetings. Doyle and Straus identify several in their text. The following example helps identify the first reason.

Mrs. Brown, the chairperson of a fund-raising committee for a non-profit service club, has called a meeting.

Mrs. Brown:	It's clear to me our problem is that we need to raise membership dues by $10.00 a year.
Mrs. Smith:	Our membership would drop if we did that. What we need to do is change our group's name.
Mrs. Brown:	What would happen if we raised dues by only $5.00.
Mrs. Jones:	I know the name of a good fundraiser we could hire.
Mrs. Smith:	What about changing "committee" to "association"?
Mrs. Wright:	Why not cut the budget for this year? What is it, anyway?

The problem with this example is that every participant has a different view of the problem. Doyle and Straus call this the Multi-Headed Animal Syndrome--or the tendency of group members to go off in all directions simultaneously. The key is to focus on one problem and work on it exclusively. If everyone goes in a different direction, confusion and inefficiency can result.

A second reason for meeting failure is the inability to distinguish between a meeting's content and its process. Content is the what or topic of the meeting, while process is the how or method/procedure the group will use to discuss the content. Simply stated, a meeting's chances of success will be enhanced if the group agrees on what is going to be discussed (content), as well as how they are going to discuss it (process). Having an agenda can be a remedy for this problem, as can a defined procedure for conducting the meeting itself.

The third reason Doyle and Straus note for meeting failure is figuratively called the "group rape syndrome." This occurs when a person gets ridiculed by fellow group members following a comment or suggestion they make. It also occurs when group members defer to "dominant types" who monopolize the meeting conversation. A by-product of either experience can be timid members who will shy away from active involvement. The fact that all members do not feel they can participate equally can result in a poor meeting.

A fourth reason for ineffective meetings is the lack of guidance. If we think of a meeting as driving in traffic, we can see the value a traffic light provides. A smooth-paced and safe flow of traffic moves through a busy intersection with the aid of a light. In much the same way, a leader or chairman is needed to insure that a meeting flows well.

Lack of clarity regarding member roles and responsibilities is another reason for lousy meetings. If participants are unclear about what they are supposed to be doing, as well as how, the chances for a successful meeting can be seriously jeopardized.

Leland Bradford notes two additional reasons why meetings fail. The first is ritual and tradition. In his book, Making Meetings Work, Bradford contends that some meetings fail because they are not needed to begin with. How many times have you gone to a meeting, or scheduled them, when there was no need to do so? How many groups meet just for the sake of meeting? If we find ourselves answering yes to these questions, that might help explain why some of our meetings turn out bad.

The second point made by Bradford has to do with the environment of the meeting itself. The convenience of the meeting place, its size, its acoustical quality, and layout regarding seating arrangements, all contribute to its eventual success or failure. Also, the patterns of participant involvement or noninvolvement are strongly influenced by the style or tone of the group "environment" that develops at meetings. The meeting chairman or discussion leader contributes significantly to this, both through personal input and management of input by others in the group.

Meetings can fail for a variety of other reasons. For example, participants may not receive information regarding the meeting time and location far enough in advance to plan their schedules. Similarly, if participants receive the materials they will be discussing the day before the meeting or on the meeting date itself, many may have trouble getting effectively prepared for the session. Typically, reactions can include skipping the meeting or attending and saying very little. Lastly, meetings can fail due to inconvenient starting times. A 3:00 p.m. meeting time for a Junior Women's Club, for example, may prove to be a problem for mothers with young school-age children who arrive home at 3:30 p.m.

QUICK CAP

Meetings can fail for a variety of reasons; some of the more prominent ones are as follows:

* No clear meeting focus or purpose.
* No agreement on the agenda or how it's going to be discussed.
* Lack of full and equal participation by all members.
* No guidance or administrative direction.
* Holding meetings when they are not needed.
* The physical environment may not be good (poor layout, poor acoustics, inaccessible).
* Lack of time for members to prepare.
* Inconvenient meeting time.

MEETING CHARACTERISTICS

Regardless of the size or dimension of a meeting, all meetings share a common set of characteristics. People, a meeting atmosphere, and the meeting place itself are characteristics we have already touched on. Several additional characteristics are worthy of note. A brief overview follows:

Purpose. All meetings have, or should have, a reason for people coming together. Sometimes these purposes are clearly stated and sometimes they are taken totally for granted. The key point is that the meeting's purpose should influence how we plan for the meeting.

Time. All meetings involve a starting and ending time. It is important to relate items of business to the time available. Also, it may prove beneficial to schedule meeting times that are convenient for the membership.

Meeting Plan/Agenda. All meetings have some kind of meeting plan, whether written or unwritten. Generally speaking, meetings that feature a written agenda, that is sent in advance of the meeting, contribute to a meeting's potential for success.

Follow-up. It is rare that meetings end without some need for follow-up. The preparation of minutes and the monitoring of work activities between meetings are examples of meeting follow-up activities.

Cost. All meetings have some kind of cost attached to them. Examples could include meeting room fees, equipment rental fees, and transportation costs. Also involved are the "opportunity costs" of participating in the meeting itself. That is to say, participation means sacrificing the "opportunity" of doing something else such as going bowling or staying at home.

In sum, meetings are complex activities which rely on specific processes. In turn, the processes contribute to a meeting's success or failure. Persons who are responsible for meetings must be aware of the dynamics associated with meetings. Elements to be noted would include the following:

* Clarity regarding the meeting's purpose (content).

* Clarity regarding how the meeting will proceed (process).

* Assurance that meeting participants are clear about their meeting roles and responsibilities.

* Stability in guiding the meeting discussion to a logical conclusion.

* Creating a meeting climate or atmosphere that encourages member involvement.

MEETING MANAGEMENT: THE LEADER'S ROLE

Upon designation as a group leader or chairperson, each person has to make a decision regarding his/her subsequent behavior. Some seize the opportunity to impose their will on a group. Others view their tenure much like a grandmother does her first grandchild -- endless cuddling and holding. Many others fall between the two extremes, yet they too must constantly face and deal with the temptation of leader self-indulgence.

YOU ANSWER THE QUESTION

Take a few minutes to reflect on the responsibilities associated with being a group chairperson or leader. In all cases, people bring a certain philosophy, knowingly or unknowingly, to the task of chairing or leading a group. What is your philosophy? What would you like it to be? Take five minutes and compose a response to these questions before proceeding any further with the readings. Be as honest as you can be with yourself.

Self-introspection can be a difficult and demanding task. The response you gave to the philosophy question can be neither right or wrong. All it can be is you and your idea. If you are not pleased with it, take some time and investigate why. See if there are not avenues open to you that will enable you to become more comfortable with your leadership philosophy. Hopefully, the following information will be useful in this regard.

Leader Qualities. Personal relations form the basis for most leadership processes. While the concepts and ideas presented in a discussion are an integral part of the leadership process, successful leadership depends on the leader's ability to deal with the reactions of individuals and to handle divergent points of view in a positive manner. In recognition of this reality, several leadership qualities, ideally, should be displayed by a group leader.

Cochran and Phelps, authors of Advisory Committees in Action, identify empathy, self-awareness, and objectivity as three such qualities. Empathy is defined as the ability to look at things from another person's point of view. Self-awareness is the ability to gain an accurate picture of yourself; with an appreciation for how others see you. Objectivity, according to the authors, is the leader's ability to react to the behavior of others in an analytical rather than emotional way.

Del Dyer and Oscar Williams, in their monograph Developing Effective and Efficient Local Committees, note several additional qualities for group leaders. Chief among them are the following:

* Ability to inspire the confidence of others.

* Willingness to be a part of rather than apart from the group.

* Ability to listen as well as speak.

* Belief in the ability of the group to make decisions.

* Ability to understand and communicate the group's tasks with clarity.

The synthesis that emerges from a discussion of leader qualities is one of cooperation, consideration, and communication. If a leader possesses or acquires these qualities, the opportunity for effective meetings will be improved.

Meeting Responsibilities. A group or committee leader has the primary responsibility for stimulating members to their highest productivity, both individually and as a group. In order to do this job effectively, a leader must prepare for the task of chairmanship. Several significant points can be noted.

COMMITTEE HOUSEKEEPING DUTIES (Done on a regular basis)

-- The chair should insure that all members know each other.

-- The chair should provide all new committee members with the background information they will need to do the job.

-- The chair is responsible for understanding the purpose of the committee and making sure fellow committee members do likewise.

-- The chair is responsible for seeing that the committee does its job.

PLANNING COMMITTEE MEETINGS

-- The chair is responsible for helping members agree on a time and place for regular meetings.

-- The chair is responsible for agenda preparation and distribution in advance of committee meetings.

CONDUCTING COMMITTEE MEETINGS

-- The chair should begin and end meetings on time.

-- The chair should preside at all meetings.

-- The chair should monitor and direct meetings according to the agenda.

-- The chair should seek to involve all committee members in the meeting process.

-- The chair should summarize and clarify points of agreement and disagreement, rather than initiate or dictate discussion.

-- The chair should clearly establish future meeting plans and ask committee members for agenda items.

-- The chair should always thank committee members for their participation at committee meetings.

COMMITTEE MEETING FOLLOW UP

-- The chair should insure that committee minutes are prepared and sent to all members.

-- The chair should monitor the progress of committee members who may be working on special projects or reports between meetings.

REFLECT/RECALL EXERCISE

THE TWENTY-FOUR INCH RULE FOR CHAIRPERSONS

How well do you do as a group or committee chairperson? If we are honest, most of us have little or no idea of how we are doing. The purpose of the following exercise is to help give us some feedback. Please answer each question in an open and forthright way.

	(Check One)		
Inches	(1) Always	(2) Sometimes	(3) Never
1. Do I know all the members of our committee, their backgrounds and relevant skills, etc.?			

	(3) Always	(2) Sometimes	(1) Never
2. Do I know what our specific task is and when it is to be completed?			
3. Do I know what resources are available to do our work? How to get additions if necessary?			
4. Am I clear on the committee's assigned task and its importance to the organization?			
5. Do I know what other committees our committee must work with, make recommendations to, etc.? If so, have I made this matter clear to all?			
6. Do I get all possible information to the members in sufficient time before the meeting?			
7. Is the time, place, and date of the meeting clear to all members? If there are any changes, do all members know about them?			
8. Have I checked the facilities at the meeting place?			
9. Do I know the manner or form in which our report must be given? And to whom, when, etc.?			

	(3) Always	(2) Sometimes	(1) Never
10. Do I know the formal and informal rules for conducting meetings?			
11. Have I prepared an agenda that will help the group do its work?			
12. Do members know how to get items on the agenda?			
13. Do I start meetings on time?			
14. Do I discuss questions to encourage participation?			
15. Do I help clarify issues?			
16. Do I try to get less vocal members to participate?			
17. Can I manage disagreements without getting personally involved?			
18. Am I tolerant of members whose opinions I disagree with?			
19. Can I manage disagreements based on facts rather than fiction?			
20. Do I move expeditiously from topic to topic?			
21. Have I made the decisions reached clear to all?			

	(3) Always	(2) Sometimes	(1) Never
22. Have I made the assignment clear to those who must carry it out?			
23. Do all members know when the next meeting is scheduled?			
24. Do I end meetings on time?			

Scoring Scale:

60-72 Excellent
45-67 Good
36-42 Poor
0-33 Very Poor

TOOLS FOR MEETING MANAGEMENT

The responsibilities of the group leader or chair are substantial. There are, however, several resources available which will, if properly used, make the task easier. A review of these tools, beginning with goals and objectives, follows.

Goals and Objectives. You probably are saying something like this to yourself right now, "I can skip this stuff. I already know all about them. I work on these things all the time." Or, "Why is this stuff in here? What a bore--everybody knows what they are!"

Really! Are you sure?

Granted, a lot of people do talk about goals and objectives. We also talk about the weather a lot, and we all know what kind of control that talking has resulted in. Spend some time on the following stop and go exercise before you decide to skip this section. Maybe you will change your mind!

A STOP AND GO EXERCISE

GOALS, OBJECTIVES, AND ACTION STATEMENT--WHICH IS WHICH

Read each of the following statements and circle the letter or letters which best describe(s) the statement. The letter code will be as follows: G-Goal, O-Objective, AS-Action Statement, N-Neither. Please complete the exercise before continuing with the reading.

1. Establish a lathe operator program that will graduate 60 students in one year who can meet industry needs.

   G O AS N

2. Determine the training needs of the underemployed aged 18 to 24.

   G O AS N

3. Consult with guidance counselors to determine the job needs of 16 year olds.

   G O AS N

4. Provide training opportunities for 30 unemployed persons that will allow them to obtain jobs in six months.

   G O AS N

5. Establish a training and placement program that will improve the abilities of potential employees.

   G O AS N

6. Survey the employment needs of industrial employers.

   G O AS N

Still wondering why we need to talk about goals, objectives, and action statements? The distinctions between the three terms, especially once they are operationalized, can be less than precise. A brief review of each should help clear the air.

The basic idea about a goal is that it is an ideal. It is a desired place or state of affairs that people value. It is usually global in nature. A goal becomes a group goal when enough members of a group begin working toward its achievement. An example goal would be "to increase citizen involvement in the educational program of the Anywhere County Middle School."

Objectives are specific steps that need to be taken to accomplish a goal. They are end products and not means. Properly prepared, an objective will state the following four things:

(1) What will be accomplished.
(2) By whom.
(3) At what level of measurement.
(4) By when.

An example objective, based on the preceding goal, would be "to develop a resource bank of thirty community members by September 1, 1985, who can be utilized as resource persons in the Anywhere County Middle School."

The final step in the process of goal development is the preparation of action statements. Such statements are the means the group will employ for achieving a specific objective. Building on the middle school example, an action statement would be "to conduct a survey of community business people regarding the sharing of their personal knowledge and experience with a community-in-the-school program."

The key responsibility for the group leader in the development of goals, objectives and action statements, is making sure group members are part of the process. Group involvement in goal setting will increase a member's sense of commitment to the group. In turn, the individual member will have the opportunity to think or feel the following:

* I had a say in identifying our goals.

* Our goals are realistic and appropriate.

* I feel good about our group.

* I know where we are headed.

* I will know when we reach our goal.

Agenda Development. If there is one thing we all know about meeting management it has to be the agenda and its uses. We can say that with authority because practically all groups rely on an agenda for conducting business. But have we ever stopped and considered whether our agenda helps or hinders our meetings?

A STOP AND GO EXERCISE

Please critique the following agenda for style and utility. In the space provided, jot down any weaknesses, problems, or strengths you see reflected in the example.

HOMEVILLE WOMEN'S CLUB
July 10, 1985
7:30 p.m.

I. Call to Order
II. Roll Call
III. Adoption of Minutes
IV. Old Business
V. Committee Reports
VI. New Business
VII. Adjournment

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An agenda functions as a guide or road map for meetings. Properly prepared, an agenda will satisfy the following three functions:

1) Outlines the meeting's purpose.

2) Describes the sequence of events the group will use during a meeting.

3) Provides a structural outline for the recording of minutes and other reporting procedures.

The process for organizing an agenda is called agenda building. There are four basic methods of doing this; the convener approach, the team approach, at the beginning of the meeting, and at the end of the meeting. An overview of each method follows.

Convener Approach. As the name implies, the meeting convener or chairman takes responsibility for developing the agenda. In so doing, the chairman may solicit agenda items by talking to other members or by reviewing past agenda and meeting minutes. Application of this approach may also mean that the items on the agenda reflect the personal bias of the chairman only.

An advantage of the convener approach is its simplicity (only one person responsible for organizing the agenda) and the fact that it does not take much time. The primary drawback is that other group members may not get a chance to have items of interest to them placed on the agenda. Also, credit or blame for the meeting goes to one person instead of the group.

Team Approach. Several group members working with the chairman to plan the meeting agenda is the essence of the team approach. The resulting sense of "ownership" and involvement the team members attain is the primary strength of the team approach. The major drawback with this method of agenda building is that it may require a series of "meetings" to organize the "meeting."

Beginning of the Meeting. This method of agenda development involves asking participants what they want on the agenda following a call to order. This method gives everyone a chance to become involved and make a contribution. The limitation associated with this method involves the amount of time it may take to outline, as well as order, the agenda. This time demand may mean the difference between an early ending time or a late ending time.

Ending of the Meeting. This method consists of taking five to ten minutes at the end of a meeting to plan the agenda for the next meeting. The utility of the method is that it enables all group members to help design and share responsibility for the agenda while the current meeting is still fresh in their minds. The drawback associated with this method is the participants' potential fatigue from the current meeting, as well as their desire to go home.

In many ways, an agenda is the most important piece of paper at a meeting. Properly prepared it has the power to direct and harness the energy of the meeting participants. If it is incomplete or missing, however, a meeting may flounder or wander about aimlessly.

Now, let's go back to the agenda stop and go exercise you completed earlier.

That style of agenda is very common. Unfortunately, it is also very incomplete. It tells the potential meeting attendee very little. For example, the nature of the old business, new business and committee reports is unknown. The person(s) responsible for those reports was not identified. Thus, how can anyone prepare? No time frame was noted on the agenda for presentations or when the meeting will end. No meeting location was identified. In short, persons attending a meeting with this type of agenda will have a hard time getting prepared or excited.

In contrast, the agenda that follows compensates for the preceding deficiencies. Persons receiving this type of agenda will be able to prepare for the meeting. As a result, the chances of having a successful meeting will be considerably improved.

Homeville Women's Club
July 10, 1985
Homeville Library
7:30 p.m.-9:30 p.m.

7:00 p.m. - 7:25 p.m. Arrival and Refreshments

I. Call to Order
Club Chair, at 7:30 p.m.

II. Roll Call
Club Chair and Club Secretary

III. Adoption of Minutes-Club Chair

IV. Adoption of June 1 Agenda-Club Chair

V. Old Business, 7:40 p.m. - 8:10 p.m.
A) Report on Spring Garden Tour-Committee Chair-15 minutes
B) Report on Winter Fund Raiser-Committee Chair-15 minutes

VI. Committee Reports, 8:10-8:30 p.m.
A) Publicity-Committee Chair-10 minutes
B) Long-Range Planning-Com. Chair-10 minutes

VII. New Business, 8:30 p.m.-9:00 p.m.
A) Fall Fashion Show-Com. Chair-15 minutes
B) Community Needs Survey-Com. Chair-15 minutes

VIII. Club Chairman's Report, 9:00-9:10 p.m.

IX. Club Member Proposals and Announcements, 9:10-9:20 p.m.

X. Agenda Building for the September 1, 1985 Meeting, 9:20 p.m.-9:30 p.m.

XI. Adjourn, 9:30 p.m.

Meeting Debriefing. How many times have you left a meeting only to discuss its effectiveness in a hallway or in the parking lot? For many of us the answer is probably quite often. Unfortunately, the parking lot and hallway can lead to member frustration. Accordingly, the group leader should seek to critique a meeting's effectiveness or ineffectiveness at its close. This process is known as "debriefing."

There are two ways to debrief a meeting. One relies on people talking about what they liked and/or disliked about the meeting. The discussion can take place in small groups or by the group as a whole. Another debriefing technique is to ask people to complete a brief questionnaire that reviews the meeting. In each case, a group leader should allow approximately 15 minutes for the debriefing exercise. Sample questions should include the following:

* Did we accomplish our goals?
* Was the agenda clear? Did we follow it?
* Did members have opportunity to participate?
* Did we listen to one another?
* Did we make good use of our time?
* Did we end the meeting with a clear direction of where we go from here?

Sharing answers to these questions can help increase the effectiveness of group meetings, as well as build on the interpersonal relationship already present in the group.

LEADING DISCUSSIONS

The skill a chairperson displays in running a meeting can mean the difference between success and failure. Ideally, the leader should facilitate the meeting by encouraging open communication, ensuring equality of participation, and interpreting and clarifying the discussion towards the resolution of objectives or purposes identified by the group. An additional responsibility of the leader is to alert group members that they also share in the responsibility for successful or less than successful meetings. Reviewing task functions and maintenance functions is one way to accomplish this task.

Task functions are those activities which contribute to the purpose, objective, or goal of the group. Maintenance functions are those activities and actions which must be monitored in order to keep the group in good operating order. Although all group members share in this total responsibility, the group leader must be particularly conscious of the functions and their interface in a meeting environment. A summary of common task and maintenance functions follows.

TASK FUNCTIONS (functions required in selecting and carrying out a group task)

1) Initiating Activity: proposing solutions, suggesting new ideas, new definitions of the problem, new attack on the problem, or new organization of material.

2) Seeking Information: asking for clarification of suggestions, requesting additional information or facts.

3) Seeking Opinion: looking for an expression of feeling about something from the members, seeking clarification of values, suggestions, or ideas.

4) Giving Information: offering facts or generalizations, relating one's own experience to the group problem to illustrate points.

5) Giving Opinion: stating an opinion or belief concerning a suggestion or one of several suggestions, particularly concerning its value rather than its factual basis.

6) Elaborating: clarifying, giving examples or developing meanings, trying to envision how a proposal might work if adopted

7) Coordinating: showing relationship among various ideas or suggestions, trying to pull ideas and suggestions together, trying to draw together activities of various subgroups or members.

8) Summarizing: pulling together related ideas or suggestions, restating suggestions after the group has discussed them.

MAINTENANCE FUNCTIONS (functions required in strengthening and maintaining group life and activities)

1) Encouraging: being friendly, warm, responsive to others, praising others and their ideas, agreeing with and accepting contributions of others.

2) Gatekeeping: trying to make it possible for another member to make a contribution to the group by saying, "We haven't heard anything from Jan yet," or suggesting limited talking time for everyone so that all will have a chance to be heard.

3) Standard Setting: expressing standards for the group to use in choosing its content or procedures or in evaluating its decisions, reminding group to avoid decisions which conflict with group standards.

4) Following: going along with decisions of the group, thoughtfully accepting ideas of others, serving as audience during group discussion.

5) Expressing Group Feeling: summarizing what group feeling is sensed to be, describing reactions of the group to ideas or solutions.

COMBINED TASK AND MAINTENANCE FUNCTIONS

1) Evaluating: submitting group decisions or accomplishments to comparison with group standards, measuring accomplishments against goals.

2) Diagnosing: determining sources of difficulties, appropriate steps to take next, analyzing the main blocks to progress.

3) Testing for Consensus: tentatively asking for group opinions in order to find out whether the group is nearing consensus on a decision, sending up trial balloons to test group opinions.

4) Mediating: harmonizing, conciliating differences in points of view, making compromise solutions.

5) Relieving Tension: draining off negative feeling by jesting or pouring oil on troubled waters, putting a tense situation in wider context.

A group strengthens itself and improves its chance of being effective when its members become more conscious of the role functions needed at all times, as well as more sensitive to and aware of the degree to which they can help meet group needs through their group actions. This sense of "oneness," in many instances, is the quality we see in some groups but have a hard time labeling. Now you know how to get that same oneness.

To what extent do your group and organization members appreciate the role they play in meetings? Further, do they feel their performance adds to or detracts from the success of the meeting? Answers to these questions will go far in explaining a group or organization's opportunity for successful meetings. The following checklist will help group and organizational leaders as they attempt to improve the nature and quality of their meetings.

INDIVIDUAL MEMBER WORTHINESS CHECKLIST

Similar to the chairperson checklist, the list that follows will provide individual group or committee members with feedback about their actions in a group setting. Please be honest with yourself when you do the exercise.

	DEFINITELY NO 1	2	3	4	DEFINITELY YES 5
Did I try to be on time for the meeting?	___	___	___	___	___
Was I clear on the assignment?	___	___	___	___	___
Did I prepare for the discussion by reading the material carefully and critically?	___	___	___	___	___
Did I indicate my interest by listening carefully?	___	___	___	___	___
Did I make an effort to become better acquainted with other members?	___	___	___	___	___
Did I look at the person who was speaking so as to see what was being said as well as hear what was being said?	___	___	___	___	___
Did I participate in the discussion and offer worthwhile comments objectively?	___	___	___	___	___
Did I relate my comments to those of the previous speaker?	___	___	___	___	___
Did I share the discussion with others?	___	___	___	___	___
Did I cooperate in exploring the problem before suggesting possible solutions?	___	___	___	___	___
Did I make a serious effort to distinguish fact from fiction?	___	___	___	___	___
Were my comments brief and to the point?	___	___	___	___	___

	DEFINITELY NO 1	2	3	4	DEFINITELY YES 5
Were my comments based on the facts? Did I gain a new insight to clearer understanding of the other fellow's point of view?	___	___	___	___	___
Did I generate any new ideas?	___	___	___	___	___
Did I concentrate on one phase of the topic at a time and stay with the discussion, instead of jumping out way ahead?	___	___	___	___	___
Did I work to the best of my ability to help the group work on the task?	___	___	___	___	___
Did I leave the meeting with something further to think about?	___	___	___	___	___

Scoring Scale:

55-60	Excellent
45-55	Good
40-45	Fair
40-below	Poor

A GUIDE FOR MEETING MANAGEMENT

There is no foolproof way to insure that a meeting will always be productive and effective. However, good planning, member involvement, and competent leadership are steps in the right direction. The following meeting management techniques, which should be viewed as a unitary design, will also help.

Before the Meeting

* Define the purpose for the meeting.

* Develop an agenda and plan the activities for the meeting.

* Distribute the agenda in advance of the meeting.

* Arrange the meeting room such that members will feel welcomed and will want to participate.

Starting/Conducting the Meeting

* Start the meeting on time.

* Review the agenda and explain the meeting's purpose.

* Stick to the agenda and move through it in an efficient manner.

* Seek to involve everyone in the discussion.

* Keep the discussion focused by keeping notes and summarizing.

* Serve as a meeting facilitator and not meeting dominator.

End of the Meeting

* End the meeting on time.

* Recap the meeting's highlights/accomplishments.

* Review and assign any after-meeting duties.

* Debrief the meeting with the participants.

* Brainstorm about the next meeting's agenda.

* Set the date, time and place for the next meeting.

* Thank everyone for attending and participating.

After the Meeting

* Review the debriefing results.

* Prepare the meeting's minutes and distribute them.

* Compare the meeting agenda with what actually happened.

* Monitor the progress toward completion of assigned duties and tasks.

DECISION MAKING

One of the characteristics of an effective group is its ability to make decisions, both trivial and those involving weighty issues. Definitionally, decisions should be thought of as means rather than ends. They are, in most cases, an organizational response to a problem which stands between the organization or group and some desired state or goal.

Although several classes of decisions can be identified, only two types are of real importance to most groups. These are programmed decisions and nonprogrammed decisions. Programmed decisions are those decisions that are repetitive, routine, and that have a definite procedure for being handled. An example would include dressing each morning before going to work. Another would be the scheduling of a quarterly meeting for a group that meets quarterly. In each case, we know to accomplish the task.

Nonprogrammed decisions, on the other hand, occur when the situation is new or unstructured. In such cases, no procedure is readily available for handling the problem due to its complexity or nature. Examples would include the reorganization of a club or group or the institution of a new product line in an industry. The ability of any group to make effective nonprogrammed decisions will usually depend on the quality of its leadership, the confidence the group members display, and the nature of the decision itself.

REFLECT/RECALL EXERCISE

HOW DO I MAKE A DECISION?

Before continuing with your reading, take a few minutes and reflect on the way(s) YOU MAKE A DECISION. Take five minutes and outline your response.

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Individual Versus Group Decision Making. Certain decisions appear to be better made by groups, while others appear better suited for individual consideration. Generally speaking, programmed decisions are most suitable for individuals, while nonprogrammed decisions appear to be better suited for group decision making. This is because groups are superior to individuals from the standpoint of knowledge, viewpoint, perspective, and the willingness to take a risk or chance.

How Groups Make Decisions. There are many ways a group can arrive at a decision. According to Johnson and Johnson, authors of Joining Together: Group Theory and Group Skills, a leader should not choose a particular decision-making technique without first considering the nature of the problem, the amount of time and resources at the group's disposal, the disposition of the group itself and the working relationships in the group. Depending upon the "mix" of the results, a group will generally use one of the following decision-making techniques whether they realize it or not:

* Decisions by lack of response

* Decisions by one person

* Decisions by averaging individual opinion

* Decisions by minority

* Decisions by majority

* Decisions by consensus

Decisions by Lack of Response. This is a common way decisions are made. It occurs so often and quickly that it is hard to see. For example, someone suggests an idea and before anyone else has even commented about it, someone else suggests another idea. If this persists until the group "hears" an idea it likes, all the ideas which were not commented on were, in a sense, decided upon by the group. Quite obviously, this kind of decision making can be very frustrating for persons who make suggestions only to have them ignored. Some group members may conclude that it is best to say nothing following such an experience.

Decisions by One. Decision making by one person can take various forms. For example, a group may defer to the leader, or someone else, for the decision because of their expert knowledge. This same method is at work when the group is asked for their opinion and then the leader decides the issue, or when the leader makes a decision without consulting the group. On the surface, this kind of decision making can be very efficient because it does not take much time. Over the long term, however, this kind of decision making can result in little group support for carrying out the decision. In addition, group members not involved in making a decision may feel little ownership for its implementation.

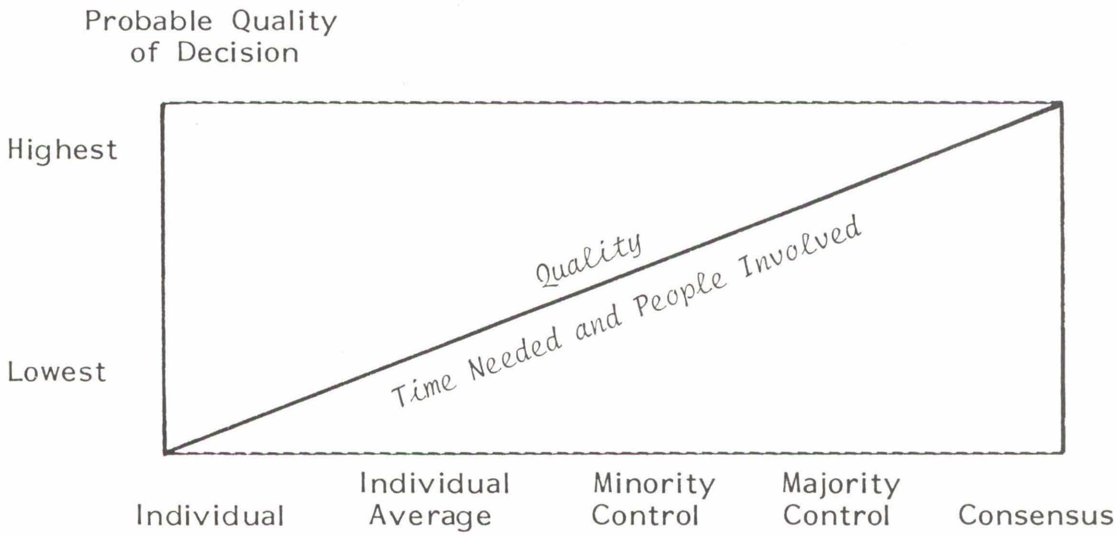
Decisions by Averaging Opinion. Decision making by averaging individual opinion occurs when the leader asks for each group member's opinion and then averages the response. This method may be the most practical to employ when face-to-face contact is not possible. Much like decision making by one person, this method precludes the opportunity for group decision. Also, much like decision making by one, no sense of ownership develops in the minds of other group members for the decision.

Decisions by a Minority. Decision making by a minority--members constituting less than 50% of the group--can be done in several ways, some legitimate and some rather illegitimate. Legitimately, a group may allow a committee or subcommittee to make a decision. Equally as common is the granting of decision-making authority to an executive committee. Illegitimate minority decision making occurs when a small group attempts to force or manipulate (railroading) the group into taking action on an issue without the benefit of a full discussion. This kind of decision making has the same difficulty as decision making by one. The silent majority may choose not to support the decision once it is announced.

Decisions by a Majority. Decision making by a majority--members constituting more than 50% of the group--is the method used by most groups. The procedure is simple. The issue is discussed only as long as it takes to get a majority of the members to decide on an alternative. The major flaw with this format is that it may result in an alienated minority (9 to 20 group members for example) who feel they lost on the issue. Commitment to the decision by the minority may only be lukewarm as a result.

Decision by Consensus. One of the most effective but time-consuming methods of group decision making is consensus. Consensus involves surveying everyone's preference. A proposal is made and everyone is surveyed to see if the decision is something they can support; not necessarily the first choice of any one participant, but something that can be supported by every member. No decision is made until all members of the group have stated that they can "live" with the decision and will work to implement it. The weakness of this decision-making procedure is that, in the short run, it takes time. The strength is that, in the long run, when a decision is made it is one that the total group supports.

It may seem self-evident, but decision making--regardless of the technique used--is the elimination of all alternatives except one. This is worth stating because we many times forget what this means. For example, if there are ten people sitting around the table when a problem comes up, the beginning of ten mental images of what to do about it can result. In the process of selecting the one option that seems the most workable, nine others are eliminated. This means that nine people end up supporting the proposed solution offered by one person. Research evidence shows that as a group moves from the individual style of decision making to the consensus style, the quality of the decision increases. This is because a steady increase in the number of group members who favor the decision, as well as its implementation, is realized. The following table notes this distinction.



WHY GROUPS HAVE TROUBLE MAKING DECISIONS

Have you ever become paralyzed (mentally) when it came time to make a group decision? Have you ever wanted to reverse a decision once it has been made? Why can individuals make personal decisions, yet become immobilized in a group setting?

YOU ANSWER THE QUESTION

Before proceeding any further, take five minutes to reflect on and compose an answer to the question of WHY GROUPS HAVE TROUBLE MAKING DECISIONS.

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There appear to be various reasons which explain why groups have trouble making decisions. Leigh Early and Pearl Rutledge, for example, have identified the following three:

* Because several people are involved, individuals assume the problem is bigger than their ability.

* Many persons do not think they have the skills needed to make a group decision.

* Groups tend to reject solutions before giving them a thorough hearing, consequently reducing the desire of individuals to contribute more solutions.

According to Robert Blake and Leland Bradford, there are five additional reasons which explain why groups have trouble making decisions. The five reasons are:

* Fear of consequences.

* Conflicting loyalties.

* Interpersonal conflicts.

* Methodological blundering.

* Inadequate leadership.

<u>Fear of Consequences</u>. Fear of consequences occurs when we begin questioning ourselves and the decision we made or must make. Wondering whether the decision will be wrong, what the other group members will think and what will happen to us personally as a result of the decision, are decision-making fears everyone experiences at some time. Open discussion and clarity regarding the decision to be made, why it is to be made, and its impact, will help mitigate such fears.

<u>Conflicting Loyalties</u>. Because people are usually members of informal groups as a result of their formal group membership, the issue of conflicting loyalties sometimes arises. For example, we sometimes find ourselves guessing what the balance of the group is thinking or how they will decide. On occasion we feel we should go along in order to get along. One way to deal with this issue is to make sure that open discussion regarding all sides of an issue is maintained. In addition, the group leader must remind and assure group members that differences of opinion contribute to the quality of the ultimate decision.

<u>Interpersonal Conflicts</u>. Interpersonal conflicts, which result from personal differences, can also hinder decision making. For example, group members may support a particular viewpoint because they like or want to please the sponsor, even though the proposal or viewpoint is not a good one. On the other hand, group members may oppose something for the opposite reasons.

A group can deal with this by recognizing the healthy aspects of different opinions and the potentially destructive hostility that comes from interpersonal conflict. The environment of the meeting must be closely monitored by the group leader to minimize the influence of interpersonal strife in decision making.

Methodological Blundering. Sometimes, according to Blake and Bradford, groups do not allow themselves all the time or information they need to make a quality decision. Deficient information gathering, inappropriate decision-making techniques, strict adherence to parliamentary procedure, as well as the lack of procedure, can all contribute to hesitancy and/or failure in decision making. Such "blunderings" can drain a group's enthusiasm and spirit. Clarity regarding the meeting's purpose, completeness of information needed for a quality decision, and a smooth, well thought out decision-making process are ways of overcoming this problem.

Leadership. The adequacy of a group's leadership is the final point made by Blake and Bradford. Unless the leader views his/her responsibility as one of guiding and suggesting, the group may suffer in the quality of its decision making as a result of leader indifference or leader dominance.

IMPROVING DECISION MAKING IN GROUPS

Prior to discussing how to improve decision making, it may be useful to reflect on what makes a good decision. Several thoughts come to mind. For example, good decisions, more times than not, get carried out. Good decisions are usually understandable. Decisions which receive input from those to be affected are usually considered good decisions. No doubt you can cite other examples from your personal experience. The important point to keep in mind is that we should not lose sight of when decision making has worked in the past. The basis for future decision making, in many ways, depends on what we have already experienced.

The first thing any group should do about improving their decision-making ability is question whether or not group decision making is the most appropriate means of solving a problem. Various writers, chief among them Gordon Lippitt, maintain that a group should be used for decision making only if certain conditions are present. A review of those conditions follows:

1) Groups should be used for decision making when they can contribute to the solution of the problem. Groups must recognize that there is a place for individual decision making in most organizational settings. Reliance on the total group to make every decision is not the most effective use of a group or its leadership. Delegating authority for certain decisions is both appropriate and useful. Burdening group members with every decision can lead to member burnout.

Ideally, a group should be used for decision making when the issue to be decided is complex or when there is a quantitative need for all points of view. If these conditions are not present, a group decision may not be the appropriate problem-solving method.

2) Group decision making can be valuable if the group members know how to work together. Effective decision making does not just happen. It is a byproduct of sharing opinions, disagreements, and controversy in an open and nonthreatening way. Until such an environment exists, decision making may suffer.

3) Groups must have appropriate decision making procedures. In other words, a group must decide how to decide. The use of strict parliamentary procedure, laxed parliamentary procedure, or something in between must be a conscious decision of the group. In like fashion, a group should decide on the style of decision making. For example, will the group rely exclusively on majority rule or will they consider a consensus method of decision making? These decisions should be made before any group tries to make a decision.

Once the referenced baseline conditions have been dealt with, a group is ready to proceed. Several points can be made which, by their nature, will help improve a group's decision-making capacity.

1) Get a clear definition of the problem. Unless the problem is understandable, effective decision making may be compromised. Accordingly, groups--primarily through their leadership--must take the time to clearly and concisely define the problem and the limits of the group's responsibility for handling it.

2) Decide on a method of attack. Once again, decide how you're going to decide. What method--voting, deferral, consensus, etc.--and what technique--total group, the leader, or a committee?

3) Generate alternatives. Thoroughly canvass a wide range of alternative courses of action. If the total group is going to be used, conduct a group brainstorm. Involve everyone in idea generation.

4) Test alternatives. Weigh what is known about the consequences that could flow from each alternative. Prioritize the alternatives.

5) Choose an alternative and build in commitment. Upon selecting an alternative or making a decision, a group should build in commitment by detailing provisions for group involvement in carrying out the decision. It

should be remembered that a group's commitment to a decision will be greater if they have a role in its implementation.

6) Evaluate the process. Effective decision making is not possible without evaluation, and evaluation must occur at two levels. The first level is an evaluation of the chosen alternative and whether or not it worked. The second level of evaluation should look at the effectiveness of the decision-making effort itself. Such self-analysis is important for improved decision making, as well as group morale.

Identifying and mobilizing the resources of a group, especially during decision making, are the keys to any group's success. The role of the group leader is critical in this process. It is important to realize that the leader can do more than anyone else to facilitate or frustrate effective group decision making. In addition to the preceding guidelines, a leader can do the following:

* Instill a definite sense of pride in membership.
* Instill a sense of self-worth in each person in the group.

QUICK CAP

* Effective decision making means a group must decide how to decide before entering into decision making.
* Decisions that are arrived at democratically appear to have a much greater chance of being supported by the total group as compared to decisions arrived at autocratically.
* Groups should be used for decision making when they can contribute to the solution of the problem at hand.
* A structured process of problem solving will help a group make better decisions.

CONFLICT AND ITS MANAGEMENT

Differences of opinion are common among people, as well as groups. This is because most people and most groups are heterogeneous by nature and not homogeneous. Despite this thinking, there seems to be a general feeling in our society that people and groups should always agree on things. What do you think?

YOU ANSWER THE QUESTION

In the first section below, outline your thoughts on why CONFLICT IN GROUPS IS BAD. In the second section, outline your thoughts on why CONFLICT CAN BE POSITIVE IN GROUPS. Please answer these questions before you proceed any further in your reading.

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NATURE AND VALUE OF CONFLICT

Conflict is a daily fact of life for everyone. Whether at home, work, or play, people's values, needs, and attitudes conflict with those of other people. Conflict is unavoidable. It is a normal condition of being alive. For example, a group will experience conflict when members disagree on what problems the group should be working on. As individuals, we experience conflict when we want to spend a Saturday afternoon sleeping, but know there is work to be done around the house. In order to resolve either example, the conflict inherent in the situations presented must be managed. If allowed to go unchecked, an ineffective group decision and a wasted Saturday afternoon will be the likely results.

Although conflict can result from a variety of sources, its nature is fairly predictable. For example, Karp has identified four major categories that produce conflict. A brief summary of each follows:

Fact. This type of conflict centers, according to Karp, on what a thing is or is not. As an example, two people viewing a painting may have two completely different explanations as to what it is.

Method. Conflict of this sort involves disagreement over procedure. This is conflict over what should be done. An obvious example would be group disagreement over which one of two problems to work on.

Objectives. The third category of conflict, according to Karp, concerns what is to be accomplished. This level of conflict will usually be of greater intensity because personal and organizational variables enter the picture.

Values. This category pertains to what is right or wrong. It is usually subjective in nature and can result in great personal and organizational stress. The ongoing debate about nuclear freeze and the need/value of an Equal Rights Amendment are two examples of this type of conflict.

Just as there are four categories of conflict, it is easy to identify four types of conflict. Essentially, conflict can be within a person (intrapersonal), between two persons (interpersonal), within a group (intragroup), or between groups (intergroup).

Intrapersonal conflict, within a group setting, can be the result of personal struggles, or it may be a reflection of the person's unsureness about the group or its actions. On the other hand, interpersonal conflict in a group setting is the result of clashing viewpoints, philosophies, and the like.

Intragroup conflict, generally speaking, centers around unclear goals or objectives, and poor communication among group members. Intergroup conflict, as you might imagine, pits your group against another. Again, differences in philosophy, approach, and the like are at work here.

How then is conflict of value, especially in a group? First of all, without conflict groups can become set in their ways. In so doing, they run the risk of losing their relevance to the needs and goals of their members. Conflict, through the introduction of different ideas, can stimulate new thought and keep a group alert to the various interests of its members. Conflict can also be of value to a group as a motivation device, as a technique for increasing group cohesiveness, and as a means for bringing problems out in the open for discussion and resolution. Used effectively, conflict is a resource tool that can contribute to the operating efficiency of any group.

A 60 SECOND INSIGHT

How do you react to CONFLICT personally and in a group setting? Over the next 60 seconds, record your comments in the two columns provided. Complete this exercise before continuing with the reading.

PERSONAL REACTION	GROUP REACTION
____________________	____________________
____________________	____________________
____________________	____________________
____________________	____________________
____________________	____________________
____________________	____________________

HOW WE HANDLE CONFLICT

How did you handle conflict as a child? What did you do when the teacher asked you a question and you did not have the answer? How did you react to a snub by friends or the rejection by your parents of a special request? How did you handle the conflict that developed inside you when the school bully announced you were next on the list? Whether we realize it or not, the personal strategies we developed then--aggression, withdrawal, compassion, defensiveness--are the same ones we rely on as adults, regardless of their effectiveness. The concept of socialization we introduced in Chapter One is at work here as well.

Knowing how people react to conflict is a prerequisite to handling it. Conflict-resolution strategies can be classed in three different ways: avoidance, suppression, and confrontation.

Avoidance, as the name implies, is an attempt to avoid and/or deny the existence of conflict. Persons exhibiting avoidance repress emotion. They usually refrain from becoming embroiled in the conflict because they view it as a hopeless and nonprofitable activity.

Persons who suppress conflict are basically trying to play it down. In most cases, suppression is a delaying tactic a person uses with hopes that the situation will improve. Unlike avoidance, persons who suppress conflict recognize that it exists, but they only want to deal with it on a limited basis. Minor conflict can usually be handled. Major conflict is usually ignored.

A person who reacts to conflict directly is confronting it. Confrontation can take two forms: power and negotiation. A power reaction to conflict, especially in an organization or group, is when a person or group of persons seeks their own goals/ views at all cost. A usual result is a winner and a loser.

Confronting conflict through negotiation, on the other hand, involves the use of compromise and collaboration toward a mutually satisfying resolution of the conflict for all parties involved. Persons witnessing this style of behavior seek to meet their goals as well as the goals of others. They see conflict as a natural and healthy activity.

GROUND RULES FOR CONFLICT RESOLUTION

The first rule for any leader concerned about conflict resolution is recognition of the fact that it exists. It sounds trite, but many times half the problem is admitting there is a problem. Beyond personally recognizing conflict, it is important for a leader to get the group to recognize it as well. This is important because a group conflict will necessitate a group remedy in many cases.

A second rule of conflict resolution involves getting the participants to agree in advance that they will respect the viewpoint of others and that they will talk about feeling and not act out anger. Once these two ground rules are agreed to, a leader is ready to moderate a resolution process. The following steps should be strongly considered.

1) <u>Time for Discussion</u>. Choose an optimal time for discussion. Do not insist that the conflict be resolved during a meeting; especially if the meeting environment is not conducive for the task at hand. Schedule a special meeting if need be or set aside a definite time period for the discussion.

2) <u>Insist on Listening</u>. A first step in responding to differences of opinion lies in hearing them. A leader needs to set an appropriate example by listening to and summarizing other viewpoints.

3) <u>Limit the Discussion</u>. A leader trying to resolve conflict would do well to restrict the discussion to the present. Little will be gained if the resolution process includes rehashing the past. All parties should agree to this.

4) <u>Reflect</u>. Once a statement or viewpoint has been aired, make sure the group understands it before moving on to something else. Frequently, differences of opinion are "perceived" rather than real. Research shows that 85% of all conflict is the result of miscommunication.

Accordingly, make sure each party is communicating with each other in addition to talking to each other.

5) Combat Solution-Mindedness. People have a tendency to focus on solutions prematurely. A key responsibility for the leader during conflict resolution is making sure that the energies of the group are focused on the problem(s) to be solved. Only after the "real" problem has been clearly defined can a cooperative search for solutions begin.

6) Brainstorm Solutions. Encourage the group to brainstorm possible and acceptable solutions for the problem. As leader, focus the attention and energies of the competing groups on defeating the problem rather than each other.

7) Implement the Solution. The successful resolution of an issue or problem is complete only after the solution is integrated into the group's operational mode. Leaders must take steps which will result in this happening. Failure to do so may result in problems of a magnitude even greater.

QUICK CAP

* Conflict is real and it is always present in groups.

* Conflict is the essence of decision making because disagreement is the best way to generate solutions for problems.

* Conflict, depending on how it is handled, can have either a positive or negative effect on groups.

* How people react to conflict is a clue to leaders in how to treat conflict.

CHAPTER SUMMARY

The abilities a group or organization leader brings to the challenges of meeting management, decision making, and conflict resolution are essential talents which will go far in determining the group or organization's eventual success. It has been our intention in this chapter to outline the skills and abilities leaders can call on in this vitally important area.

CHAPTER TWO

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EXERCISE ONE

The following exercise should be completed before you begin Chapter Three. Please record your answers on one of the answer sheets you received with the correspondence course. Please use a number two pencil to record your answers.

Please print your name in the upper left corner of the answer sheet. Directly under your name, please record your social security number or your Virginia driver's license number. Next, blacken in the corresponding circles under each digit. Please be sure to blacken the appropriate numeral such that it cannot be seen.

Once you complete the exercise, place your answer sheet in one of the two envelopes provided and mail it to Virginia Tech. DO NOT BEND OR FOLD your answer sheet when you complete this task. Your exercise will be computer scored and it will be returned to you.

1) The best agenda is an agenda prepared by the group leader a few minutes before a meeting begins. TRUE or FALSE?

    1 - True
    2 - False

2) A Cavalier style of leadership would never be used by a responsible leader. TRUE or FALSE?

    1 - True
    2 - False

3) Success, in organizational terms, means satisfying the goals of the organization only. TRUE or FALSE?

    1 - True
    2 - False

4) Which of the following organizational properties must be present for an organization to exist?

    1 - Values
    2 - Goals
    3 - Structure
    4 - All of the above

5) Autocratic leaders would agree that people are self-motivated. TRUE or FALSE?

    1 - True
    2 - False

6) Meeting conflict can always be avoided if competent leadership is present. TRUE or FALSE?

1 - True
2 - False

7) All meetings take time, all cost something, and all have an atmosphere or climate. TRUE or FALSE?

1 - True
2 - False

8) Leadership, like a foreign language, can be learned. TRUE or FALSE?

1 - True
2 - False

9) Because goals are an ideal, they can be stated in a vague or esoteric way. TRUE or FALSE?

1 - True
2 - False

10) Which of the following elements IS NOT representative of the contingency style of leadership?

1 - Belief that there is no one best leadership style
2 - Flexibility to respond to different situations
3 - Role of followers is not a critical concern in determining a leadership pattern
4 - Theory Y

11) Confronting conflict through negotiation guarantees that a suitable solution will always be found. TRUE or FALSE?

1 - True
2 - False

12) Which of the following must be present for an organization to exist?

1 - People
2 - A pattern of relationships
3 - Common goals
4 - Hierarchy of authority
5 - All of the above

13) Meeting debriefing is best if it's done by the group leader alone. TRUE or FALSE?

1 - True
2 - False

14) Organizations are only conceptualizations; they develop an identity and character when people are added. TRUE or FALSE?

1 - True
2 - False

15) Properly prepared, an objective will do which of the following?

1 - Answer the What Question
2 - Answer the When Question
3 - Answer the By Whom Question
4 - All of the above

16) Leadership, in reality, is really a form of management. TRUE or FALSE?

1 - True
2 - False

17) All organizations are goal directed by nature. TRUE or FALSE?

1 - True
2 - False

18) From a leadership perspective, power refers to the personal and positional attributes a person uses to influence others. TRUE or FALSE?

1 - True
2 - False

19) Which of the following IS NOT a group MAINTENANCE FUNCTION?

1 - Initiating
2 - Gatekeeping
3 - Encouraging

20) Decision making by consensus involves which of the following?

1 - Time
2 - Surveying of all opinions
3 - Competent leadership
4 - All of the above

NOTES

Chapter Three

Leadership and Membership

LEADERSHIP AND MEMBERSHIP

The quality of any organization, its true inner strength, lies in its membership. No organization is possible without people. Nor can any organization hope to prosper if its members are uncoordinated and disparate in both spirit and practice. A sense of purpose must be present, as must a leadership capacity.

The aim of Chapter Three is to review and comment on the role motivation, communication, and team building play in an organization. In each instance, organization members will have special needs in each of these functional areas. The degree to which the leadership of a group or organization can recognize and attend to such needs has significant implications for the leader, the followers, and the organization.

MOTIVATION

How many times have we said or heard "our people are lazy" or "our folks are not interested in doing the work that's needed." If we are honest, we can probably answer in the affirmative for either question. Human beings, it seems, have long pondered the issue of motivation and how it works.

A 60 SECOND INSIGHT

In the blanks that follow, list the meanings or words that come to mind when you think of the term MOTIVATION. Remember, allow yourself only 60 seconds for this exercise.

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THE NATURE AND PROCESS OF MOTIVATION

The term motivation comes from the Latin word "movere," which means to move. Throughout history, humankind has searched for the one sure way to motivate people. Most of the schemes, plans, and theories have gone down to defeat because they were erroneously predicated on how the organization thought its people would or should act. In short, most organizations and many researchers failed to view people as rational beings capable of personal goal formulation and goal-directed behavior. Fortunately, that view has all but disappeared. As Edward Lawler notes in his book, Motivation in Work Organizations, the vast majority of human behavior is goal directed and people try to achieve their goals in the ways they think best. Accordingly, we should view human behavior in the following way:

* All people have conscious goals.
* Most behavior is consciously goal directed.
* People can and do react to the outcomes they obtain as a result of their behavior.

The preceding can be represented as a process involving four variables: energizing of desire, formulation of a specific behavior, a goal, and a result. Schematically, the process would appear as follows:

THE HUMAN BEHAVIOR CYCLE DESIGN

Need, Desire (Motive) → Behavior or Activity → Goal

↑ ← Result or Change ← ↓

The design presented is a closed circuit. This is because the action taken by a person to achieve an outcome will usually have a result which impacts, positively or negatively, the original need or desire. For example, an empty stomach produces a hungry feeling. This stimulates a desire (motive) to eat. Eating (behavior) fills the stomach, causing a cessation of the hunger pang (goal met), which, in turn, eliminates (results) the behavior of searching for food.

YOU ANSWER THE QUESTION

How do you motivate another person? What techniques or procedures do you use? Take a few minutes and reflect on these questions before recording your answer in the first block. In the second block, jot down those techniques that motivate you. Take some time to reflect on this issue before you record your answer in the second block.

HOW YOU MOTIVATE ______________________________

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WHAT MOTIVATES YOU ____________________________

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To what extent do your answers involve internal factors and issues, as opposed to external factors? Hopefully, a great deal because motivation is something that lies inside a person, rarely outside. The man or woman who is successful at motivating another person is actually tapping motivations or needs that already exist in the person. It is a case of discovering and activating them, rather than producing them. This goes back to the behavior cycle noted earlier, as well as the fact that people are goal directed. This reality will become clearer following a brief review of relevant motivation theory.

MOTIVATION THEORIES

The traditional theory of motivation evolved from the work of Frederick Taylor. Known as scientific management, Taylor designed a system whereby the worker was compensated according to productivity. The hallmark of "Taylorism" was the assumption that money was the prime motivator in people. A secondary motivator was thought to be working conditions.

Scientific management, first articulated in the early 1900s, held court until the early thirties. In fact, its demise was precipitated by a study in Chicago which was hoping to add further support for the notion of Taylorism involving working conditions.

Beginning in 1927, Elton Mayo conducted a series of experiments at the Hawthorne plant of Western Electric outside Chicago. His goal was to determine the effects factory lighting had on production. A funny thing happened. As the lighting was increased, production went up. Correspondingly, as lighting was decreased, production continued to climb! Mayo and his associates, unknowingly, had stumbled onto something which was to forever change the concept of motivation.

The action of Mayo in singling out particular work groups for observation is what led to the increased work performance. What Mayo had discovered was the fact that social forces had the same or greater impact on production as did working conditions. This conclusion has been immortalized in the term "Hawthorne Effect."

REFLECT/RECALL EXERCISE

YOUR MOTIVATIONAL EXPERIENCE

Take a few minutes and think about Taylorism and the Hawthorne Effect. Have you seen either style? Do you use either? Record your personal experiences with both styles. Maybe this would be a good topic to discuss with other group leaders or members.

TAYLORISM ______________________________

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HAWTHORNE EFFECT ______________________________

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In 1954, Abraham Maslow published his hierarchy of needs theory. The essence of Maslow's theory is that humankind's goals are really needs. And because people are goal-oriented beings, they feel a need to reach their goals. Maslow categorized and ranked human needs in a conceptual hierarchy, beginning with the most primitive and urgent human needs and ranging upward to the apex of the hierarchy he labeled self-actualization. Maslow described the needs as follows:

1) Physiological: The need for food, drink, shelter, and relief from pain.

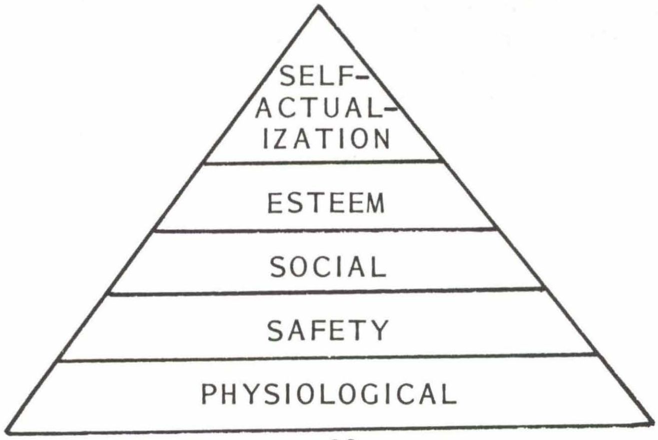
2) Safety: The need for freedom from threat, i.e., the security from threatening events and/or surroundings.

3) Social: The need for friendship, affiliation, interaction, and love.

4) Esteem: The need for self-esteem, and esteem from others.

5) Self-actualization: The need to fulfill oneself by maximizing the use of abilities, skills, and potential.

Schematically, the Maslow hierarchy appears as follows:



Maslow's theory is built on the premise that people are wanting creatures. The hierarchy underscores the fundamental point that until one need is fulfilled, a person's behavior is not motivated by the next higher level need. By the same token, according to Maslow, once a need is satisfied it no longer motivates. The maxim "a satisfied need is no longer a motivator of behavior" is the essence of the Maslow contribution.

Five years after Maslow's work was introduced, another giant step was taken in the area of motivation. Research was published by Frederick Herzberg that identified factors which led to a person's feeling of happiness or unhappiness on the job. In doing so, Herzberg labeled job dissatisfiers as maintenance factors because they serve as preventatives to job dissatisfaction, and job satisfiers as motivation factors because they were related to superior performance. The interesting thing about Herzberg's work is that it was based on actual interviews with workers on the job. The maintenance factors and motivation factors identified by Herzberg are as follows:

Maintenance and Motivation Factors

Maintenance Factors	Motivation Factors
Company policy & administration	Achievement
Supervision	Recognition for accomplishment
Interpersonal relationships	The work itself
Salary	Responsibility
Working conditions	Advancement
Security, status	Growth

Herzberg's conclusion was that the maintenance factors in themselves do not motivate people, but their absence can be a source of demotivation. This is because they meet one's need to avoid unpleasantness, they relate to how one is treated on the job, and they are external to the job. Conversely, the motivation factors are motivators because they meet a person's need for growth. They relate to how a person feels about accomplishing a task and their feeling of self-worth on the job. In this regard, the Herzberg model complements Maslow's hierarchy of needs, as the following chart details:

A COMPARISON OF MASLOW'S NEED HIERARCHY THEORY WITH HERZBERG'S MOTIVATION-MAINTENANCE THEORY

Maslow's Need Hierarchy Theory		Herzberg's Motivation-Maintenance Theory
Self-actualization	*Motivational*	Work itself Achievement Possibility of growth
Esteem or ego	*Motivational*	Advancement Recognition Status
Social	*Maintenance*	Interpersonal relations Superior Subordinates Peers Supervision
Safety	*Maintenance*	Company policy and administration Job security Working conditions
Physiological	*Maintenance*	Salary Personal life

The strength of Herzberg's theory lies in the prescription that humankind will be motivated only if maintenance and motivational factors are provided. An additional strength of the Herzberg model is the growing realization that persons in non-paying capacities--such as volunteers, community, associational, and professional groups--derive their satisfaction from the motivational factors of recognition, sense of accomplishment, and the nature of the work or service performed.

A final motivational theory worthy of note is Douglas McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y. McGregor built his theory around people and assumptions regarding their behavior. Theory X assumes people are lazy and indifferent, while Theory Y paints a picture of enthusiasm, ambition, and desire. Theory X and Theory Y can be summarized as follows:

ASSUMPTIONS ABOUT PEOPLE

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, 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 among people.

6) Under the conditions of modern industrial life, the intellectual potentialities of the average human being are only partially utilized.

From a motivational standpoint, Theory X and Theory Y relate directly to Maslow and Herzberg. Theory X assumes that lower order needs are dominant in motivating people. Theory Y assumes that higher order needs are dominant in motivating people. Assuming the lower needs of most people are regularly satisfied, McGregor's Theory Y would be more appropriate as a motivational device.

MOTIVATION AND THE ORGANIZATION LEADER

The motivation theories presented, though broad in scope, reveal certain similarities. Chief among them is the idea that motivation is internal to all of us as people. It is something, by and large, that we do to ourselves. External factors do play a role in determining our course of action. But those factors, in many cases, are secondary in importance when compared to those forces in us that push for achievement, recognition, involvement, and the like. The truly important point with motivation is that it is a process that can be monitored and adjusted. Also, many of the same elements that are now being used in the workplace to motivate people can be used successfully to motivate persons in a voluntary situation.

The motivation theories provide substantial insight about the processes that interact to produce behavior. However, little has been said about the skills and approaches organization leaders must use to cause group members to generate the forces of motivation they possess. Unfortunately, no magic formula exists. Motives, generally speaking, cannot be seen; a leader must infer from what an individual group member does or says in determining how best to motivate the individual as well as the total group. Several guidelines, some of which have been touched on in other parts of this course, can be noted. The key point associated with these points are that they apply to the leader and not to organization members. This is consistent with what has been noted earlier; namely, that motivation begins in the individual. Thus, the leader must actively believe and practice the following motivation guidelines if he/she expects their followers to react positively.

1) Provide a Reason to Participate. People must perceive a reason for becoming involved. Individuals will participate in different activities and groups only to the extent that their personal needs and interests are appealed to and met. Important here are the motivators of acceptance, accomplishment and self-realization.

2) Give Recognition. To be appreciated, to feel important and needed is a prime motivator in all of us. Encouragement and recognition are essential to stimulating and maintaining active involvement in a group or organization. Accordingly, a leader must be comfortable in giving compliments when deserved.

3) Clearly Define and Communicate Your Goals. You motivate people by selling ideas, programs and results-not membership. A group with a set of goals which are clearly understood and mutually accepted by its membership has an achieving force that is almost irresistible.

Many groups, however, lack a clear sense of direction and as a result they wander in their efforts with limited and sporadic accomplishment. A leader must also realize that people are more inclined to do the leg work if they have been involved in the planning. Thus, the group should be involved in setting organizational goals.

4) Conduct Meetings that Stimulate. Nothing is more discouraging than a poorly organized, rambling, unproductive meeting. Yet most of our meetings are exactly that. Productive meetings, as noted in Chapter Two, require more than a boisterous leader and parliamentary procedure.

5) Value Others through Communication. It is through communication that people are motivated. The way we express ourselves can either turn people on or it can turn them off. It can either gain their support or discourage participation.

6) Listen. People want to be listened to. They are motivated to achieve when they feel their ideas and suggestions are listened to and respected. A leading cause of apathy in many groups is the fact that peoples' ideas and comments are not really listened to by group leaders or their fellow members.

7) Reduce Risks of Participation. There are various hazards involved in group participation--criticism for ideas, feeling insecure, being imposed upon by others, taking responsibility for decisions made, and the like. People must be reassured about such concerns. In turn, the leader must endeavor to build member self-confidence, as well as match group members with group tasks according to member interests and talent.

In closing this section, the following points made by J. Donald Philips, President of Michigan's Hillsdale College, seem timely as well as appropriate. Please read this as a statement regarding the basic needs of people in groups.

If you want my loyalty, interest, and best efforts as a group member, remember that . . .

* I need a SENSE OF BELONGING:

A feeling that no one objects to my presence
A feeling that I am sincerely welcome
A feeling that I am honestly needed for my total self, not just for my hands, my money, etc.

* I need to have a SHARE IN PLANNING THE GROUP GOALS. (This need will be satisfied only when I feel that my ideas have had a fair hearing.)

* I need to feel that the GOALS ARE WITHIN REACH and that they make sense to ME.

* I need to feel that what the group is doing is WORTH-WHILE -- that it contributes to human welfare, that its value extends beyond the group.

* I need to share in MAKING THE RULES OF THE GROUP -- the rules by which together we shall live and work toward our goals.

* I need to know in some clear detail just WHAT IS EXPECTED of me so that I can work confidently.

* I need to have RESPONSIBILITIES THAT CHALLENGE, that are within range of my abilities, and that contribute toward reaching our goals.

* I need to SEE that PROGRESS is being made toward the goal WE have set.

* I need to be KEPT INFORMED. What I'm not up on, I may be down on. (Keeping me informed is one way to give me status as an individual.)

* I need to have CONFIDENCE AND TRUST in our leader--confidence based upon assurance of consistent fair treatment, or recognition when it's due, and trust that loyalty will bring increased security.

In brief, it really does not matter how much sense a person's part in an organization makes to the organization's leadership. What matters is the relationship a person has with the total organization and its goals and purposes. If a good fit results, a person will be motivated.

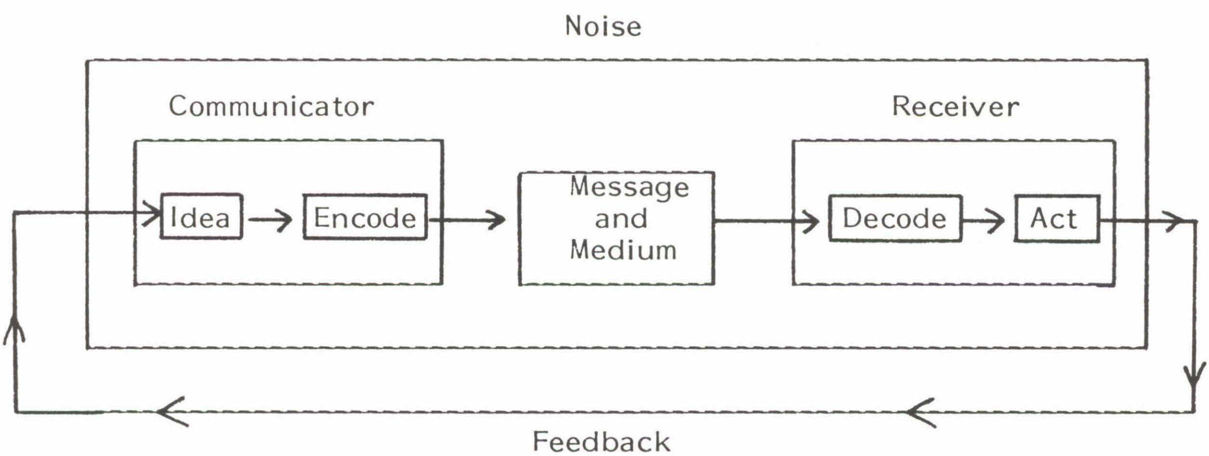
COMMUNICATION

Humankind uses symbols--words, gestures, pictures--to transmit messages--information, ideas, emotions--to others. Communication is possible when people give similar meanings to the symbols. Without shared symbols with similar meaning, people cannot communicate with one another. Thus, communication is central to all human social behavior. As a result, communication is one of the essential elements of leadership, for without it leadership is not possible.

THE COMMUNICATION PROCESS

Communication is the process of transmitting information, through the use of symbols or messages, between people. The three elements commonly involved include a sender, a message, and a receiver. This process can be represented as follows

Several models of communication have evolved which seek to explain the foregoing process in greater detail. Although variations can be found, the work of Claude Shannon and Warren Weaver (1948) and Wilbur Schramm (1953) still serves as the base for most communication models. The basic elements include a communicator, an idea, encoding, a message, a medium, decoding, a receiver, action, feedback, and noise. The model can be represented as follows:



ELEMENTS OF THE PROCESS

Communicator. From an organizational standpoint, the communicator is a person who wants to communicate something to someone.

Idea. The reason for communication. All communication processes begin with some idea, fact, or meaning the communicator wishes to send. Some communicators attempting to communicate a feeling or meaning have great difficulty encoding and sending the message.

Encoding. The encoding process translates the communicator's idea(s) into a series of symbols-either verbal or non-verbal-which can be used by a communicator to express a message.

Message. The message is the result of the encoding process. It is what the communicator hopes to communicate to the receiver.

Medium. The medium is the carrier of the message. Organizations provide information to members in a number of different ways, including face-to-face, telephone, group meetings, memos, policy statements, and the like.

Decoding. When the recipient receives the message, it is interpreted or decoded. The closer the decoded message is to the intent desired by the communicator, the more effective is the communication.

Receiver. The intended recipient of the communication.

Action. Once the message is decoded, action of some kind is taken on part of the receiver. Actions may range from storing the information, applying it in some capacity or simply ignoring the message.

Feedback. Since the receiver's understanding or action may not be what the sender meant by the message, there always exists a need for feedback. Feedback may be verbal, nonverbal, or both. Feedback enables the sender to conclude whether or not the communication has been achieved. Accordingly, feedback is an essential and necessary element in a two-way communication process.

Noise. Noise is anything that interferes with the communication process. Time pressures, different word meanings, and status differences between persons can all cause noise.

The elements of the communication process should not be viewed as separate and distinct acts. Rather, they are a series of actions which must be performed if effective communication is to result.

TYPES OF ORGANIZATIONAL COMMUNICATION

Communication normally moves in one of three directions in most organizations. These directions include downward, upward and horizontal communication. A brief overview of each flow follows.

Downward Communication. Downward communication follows an organization's chain of command. Typically, communication will originate with the leader of an organization and it will be transmitted to the appropriate lower levels of the hierarchy. Directives, memos, policy statements, procedures, job instructions, are representative of downward communication. Face-to-face meetings, telephones, organization handbooks, and newsletters, are the media used most often in downward communication.

Upward Communication. Upward communication flows from lower to higher organizational positions. The basic function of upward communication is to obtain information about the performance and activities characteristic of the lower levels of an organization. In other words, upward communication functions as both a feedback mechanism, but also as a means to determine organizational and/or member needs. Media for upward communication include face-to-face meetings, written reports, and telephone usage. Media can also include surveys of the organization membership.

Horizontal Communication. This lateral flow of communication serves as a coordination device in an organization. For example, when community club presidents within a particular district communicate with one another regarding club or district matters, horizontal communication is being practiced. Horizontal communication holds particular promise for physically large and diverse organizations.

WHY COMMUNICATION FAILS

A fundamental problem in communications is that meaning and understanding are frequently hard to convey. Words, either written or spoken, can be a faulty way for trying to move an idea, fact or perception, from the mind of one person to that of another. This is because meanings are not in words; meanings are in people. In many instances the message sent is not the one that was actually intended (sender error). In other words, the message sent was not the one actually received (receiver error). Several reasons can be noted for this occurrence. A brief review of the more common reasons follows.

Selective Listening. Instead of hearing what the communicator has said completely, we sometimes hear only what we want to hear. People have a tendency to block out or distort information that conflicts with their own ideas or beliefs.

Frame of Reference. Because individuals have different backgrounds and different experiences, serious variations in the encoding and decoding processes can result. Thus, while the communicator is actually speaking the same language as the receiver, the message conflicts with the way the receiver views the situation. For example, a new community service club president may conclude that an additional service project is needed in the community. A service club member may view such a project as another excuse for raising dues or asking club members to do more work because that happened the last time a new service project was proposed. Accordingly it is important to consider the receiver's frame of reference or experience when preparing messages.

Source Credibility. Source credibility is the level of trust and confidence a receiver has in the words and actions of the communicator. In turn, the level of credibility assigned to the communicator directly impacts on how a receiver reacts to the words and actions of the communicator. Much like selective listening and frame of reference, source credibility can be influenced by our previous experiences with the communicator. Source credibility will commonly appear as a communication barrier when inconsistencies appear in the communication.

Semantics. Words do not necessarily mean the same thing to all people. Thus, the words or symbols chosen to present a message may not be interpreted by the receiver as the sender would hope. It is important to understand that meaning is in the mind of the receiver and not in words or symbols.

Value Judgements. The tendency to place a value on the message prior to receiving the entire communication is what is meant by value judgement. Such judgements may be based on our previous experience with the communicator, our knowledge of the message, or both. The mood or attitude, as well as timing of the message may also cause the receiver to make a value judgment, be it positive or negative. Generally speaking, an incomplete message will result in incomplete information.

Technical Jargon. Most organizations employ special words or phrases that have a particular meaning for their organization. Reliance on such jargon may prove useful within the organization; however, jargon can result in a communication breakdown when new organization members or outsiders are considered.

Time Pressures. This communication barrier can work two ways. First, the communicator may find that there is not enough time to contact all affected parties, thus someone is left out of the line of communication who should be included. The second way time pressures communication is when a strict and highly formal communication process must be followed regardless of the message's priority or impact.

Communication Overload. A potential communications barrier is the sheer volume of messages being sent to persons in an organization. If people feel they cannot absorb all of the messages, they may resort to screening. This means certain messages may never be decoded. Depending upon the extent of screening present, an organization may experience a tremendous amount of communication malfunction.

The reasons for communication failure are varied; however, as the preceding information shows, they are either within individuals or within organizations. This is an important point because attempts to improve communication must by necessity focus on changing people in an organization and/or the organizational structure.

IMPROVING COMMUNICATION

Organizational management literature is fairly uniform in its claim that a "barrier free" communication process is impossible. Too many human variables are involved for the process to be error free. Nevertheless, two salient points can be made regarding communication improvement according to Leonard Sayles and George Strauss. First, communicators must continually improve the message they are sending. Second, communicators must continually improve their own understanding of what others are trying to communicate to them. In short, they must strive not only to be understood, but also to understand. The following suggestions will help communicators as they attempt to accomplish these two tasks.

Follow Up. Common courtesy, as well as interest, are the essential elements at work here. The basic intent here is determining whether or not the message was received. Assuming this to be the case, follow up allows the message sender to inquire as to how the receiver decoded or interpreted the message.

Regulating Information Flow. When and where possible, an organization should attempt to regulate the preparation and sending of messages. As was previously noted, the large quantity of messages can result in the arbitrary screening of messages; some of which may be important.

Sensitivity. The goal here is being receiver-oriented rather than communicator-oriented. Too often the senders of messages focus their attention on the message itself. This practice is not bad; however, it needs to be expanded whereby the senders figuratively place themselves in the receiver's shoes for the purpose of anticipating how the message will likely be decoded or interpreted. It is important that the potential gap between the experiences and background of the communicator and receiver be recognized and taken into consideration.

Repetition. Repetition or redundancy, is an accepted principle of learning. Thus, the introduction of repetition into the communication process will help the receiver understand the message. Repeating the message and using more than one channel of communication (pictures and written messages as well as verbal and nonverbal cues) are common repetition techniques.

Timing. Because messages abound from a variety of sources in most organizations, it is critical for communicators to understand that a message is more likely to be heard when it is not competing with other messages. Accordingly, more effective communication can be made possible by "timing" messages.

Use Simple Language. Complex vocabulary may sound and look impressive, but it may also mean nothing to the person it is aimed at. It was noted earlier that communication is an attempt to transmit information. Communication will not be effective unless the information transmitted can be understood by the receiver. Messages must be encoded in words and symbols that are meaningful to the receiver.

QUICK CAP

Good communication is possible! The following "commandments of good communication" are offered by the American Management Association.

* Seek to clarify your ideas before communicating.

* Examine the true purpose of each communication.

* Consider the total physical and human setting.

* If appropriate, consult with others when planning communications.

* Be aware of the overtones as well as the basic content of the message.

* Take the opportunity to convey something of help or value to the intended receiver.

* Follow up the communication.

* Communicate for tomorrow as well as today.

* Be sure that actions support communications.

* Last, but by no means least, seek not only to be understood, but to understand.

LISTENING AND COMMUNICATION

A study conducted by Dr. Paul Rankin of Ohio State University found that communication time is devoted nine percent to writing, 16% to reading, 30% to speaking, and 45% to listening. Yet, how many people have formal education in listening?

Studies have revealed listening efficiency as measured by retention of the transmitted information to be approximately 25%. Given that a person can think four times as fast as he/she can talk, why is listening efficiency so low and how can it be improved? Good listening skills do not come naturally to most people, but they can be developed. Effective listening can be taught. Ralph Nichols has listed three mental manipulations that should be present in any listening training:

1) Anticipate the speaker's next point. If the listener guesses correctly, learning is reinforced. If the listener guesses wrong, learning still takes place. Either way the listener benefits.

2) Identify supporting elements. Learn to sort out the facts from the emotions.

3) Make mental summaries. Whenever the speaker pauses or breaks, make mental summaries of what has been covered.

Additional good listening tips can be identified. Keith Davis, a management consultant, has developed ten commandments for good listening. A summary of the commandments follows.

TEN COMMANDMENTS FOR GOOD LISTENING

1) STOP TALKING! You cannot listen if you are talking. Polonius (in Hamlet): Give every man thine ear, but few they voice.

2) PUT THE TALKER AT EASE. Help the person feel that it is O.K. to talk. This is often called a "permissive environment."

3) SHOW PEOPLE THAT YOU WANT TO LISTEN. Look and act interested. Do not read while they talk. Listen to understand rather than to reply.

4) REMOVE DISTRACTIONS. Don't doodle, tap, or shuffle papers. Will it be quieter if you shut the door or go elsewhere?

5) EMPATHIZE WITH PEOPLE. Try to put yourself in their place so that you can share their point of view.

6) BE PATIENT. Allow plenty of time. Do not interrupt. Don't start for the door or walk away, or do other things.

7) HOLD YOUR TEMPER. An angry person gets the wrong meaning from words.

8) GO EASY ON ARGUMENT AND CRITICISM. This puts people on the defensive. They may "clam up" or get angry. Do not argue: even if you win, you lose.

9) ASK QUESTIONS. This encourages people and shows you are listening. It helps to develop points further.

10) STOP TALKING! This is first and last, because all other commandments depend on it. You cannot do good listening while you are talking.

In sum, the process of communication is essential for organizational well-being and maintenance. No organization can expect to accomplish its goals, report its activities, or seek information without the assistance of a communication process. In turn, no organization can expect to know the needs of its membership, their preferences and desires, their accomplishments or shortcomings, without a communication process. The very essence of organizational existence is dependent upon communication. As such, leaders must be especially cognizant of the central role communication plays in an organizational setting.

TEAM BUILDING

In large organizations--schools, churches, businesses, government--many decisions are made and implemented by small groups or teams. Most of their decision making, problem solving, policy making, and planning transpires in small groups. The effectiveness of an organization cannot be discussed, therefore, without also examining the effectiveness of its subgroups, for the quality of their work has a direct bearing on the effectiveness of the organization as a whole.

All organizations accomplish their work through a number of teams of different kinds. And to function effectively, they must make sure that their work teams are productive. A work team of competent and cooperating people who have the same general goals and who have resources on which to draw is the principal resource an organization has. Thus, it is vital that organizations strive to improve the effectiveness of their teams.

DEFINING TEAM BUILDING

Team building is actually a form of management. The goal of team building is to create a climate that enables group members to achieve their individual goals while simultaneously accomplishing the goals of the team and/or the organization. Team building focuses in two substantive areas:

Task Accomplishment. This area includes defining the objectives of the team, analyzing the way work is performed, determining the skills needed to achieve the objectives, and specifying resources.

Team Processes. This area is concerned with how the team works. How meetings are run, how information is processed, how conflict is resolved, and how groups members interact with one another are representative of team processes.

ASSESSING THE NEED FOR TEAM BUILDING

William Dyer, in his book Team Building: Issues and Alternatives, discusses several symptoms that might signal the need for team building. These might include:

1) Inability of the team or group to meet stated objectives.

2) Lack of, or low, commitment to objectives.

3) Confusion about responsibilities or unclear relationships between team or group members.

4) Limited risk-taking, lack of initiative or innovation.

5) Low team or group morale.

6) Hostility and/or conflict among team or group members.

7) Limited or strained communications.

8) Decisions misunderstood.

9) Ineffective team, group. or organizational meetings.

10) High dependency or negative reactions to the team, group. or organizational leader.

DOING TEAM BUILDING

Team building is a process which is put into motion by allowing members of a team or group to step back from their work and spend time together exploring the question "How might we improve our effectiveness as a team or group?" As you might imagine, team building can take many forms and it can vary in scope and intensity. Some of the issues amenable to team building are the following:

1) How the team or group makes decisions.

2) How disagreements between team or group members are handled.

3) The quality of team or group meetings.

4) How team or group projects are decided upon and implemented.

5) How the team or group leader functions.

Team building sessions are essentially task-oriented and work-oriented. They are not sensitivity group sessions. Further, they should not be thought of as a one-shot, once-and-for-all activity. Team building is best when it continues over time. In fact, team building should be incorporated into a team or group's normal work processes.

Several instruments are available which a team or group can use in team building. A scale developed by William Dyer and a scale developed by Frank Burns and Robert Gragg are included for your review.

TEAM DEVELOPMENT SCALE*

1. To what extent do I feel a real part of the team?

1	2	3	4	5
Completely a part all the time	A part most of the time	On the edge, sometimes in, sometimes out	Generally outside, except for one or two short periods	On the outside, not really a part of the team

2. To what extent do I feel "under wraps," that is, have private thoughts, unspoken reservations, or unexpressed feelings and opinions that I have not felt comfortable bringing out into the open?

1	2	3	4	5
Almost completely under wraps	Under wraps many times	Slightly more free and expressive than under wraps	Quite free and expressive much of the time	Almost completely free and expressive

3. How effective are we, in our team, in getting out and using the ideas, opinions, and information of all team members in making decisions?

1	2	3	4	5
We don't really encourage everyone to share their ideas, opinions, and information with the team in making decisions	Only the ideas, opinions, and information of a few members are known and used in making decisions	Sometimes we hear the views of most members before making decisions and sometimes we disregard most members	A few are sometimes hesitant about sharing their opinions, but we generally have good participation in making decisions	Everyone feels his or her ideas, opinions, and information are given a fair hearing before decisions are made

4. To what extent are the goals the team is working toward understood and to what extent do they have meaning for you?

1	2	3	4	5
I feel extremely good about goals of our team	I feel fairly good, but some things are not too clear or meaningful	A few things we are doing are clear and meaningful	Much of the activity is not clear or meaningful to me	I really do not understand or feel involved in the goals of the team

5. How well does the team work at its tasks?

1	2	3	4	5
Coasts, loafs, makes no progress	Makes a little progress, most members loaf	Progress is slow, spurts of effective work	Above average in progress and pace of work	Works well, achieves definite progress

6. Our planning and the way we operate as a team are largely influenced by:

1	2	3	4	5
Only one or two team members	A clique	Shifts from one person or clique to another	Shared by most of the members, some left out	Shared by all members of the team

7. What is the level of responsibility for work in our team?

1	2	3	4	5
Each person assumes personal responsibility for getting done	A majority of the members assume responsibility for getting work done	About half assume responsibility, about half do not	Only a few assume responsibility for getting work done	Nobody (except perhaps one) really assumes responsibility for getting work done

8. How do people relate to the team leader, chairman, or "boss?"

1	2	3	4	5
The leader dominates the team and people are often fearful or passive	The leader tends to control the team, although people generally agree with the leader's direction	There is some give and take between the leader and the team members	Team members relate easily to the leader and usually are able to influence leader decisions	Team members respect the leader, but they work together as a unified team with everyone participating and no one dominant

*Adapted from a scale developed by William Dyer, author of Team Building: Issues and Alternatives, Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, Reading, Massachusetts, 1977.

WORK-GROUP-EFFECTIVENESS INVENTORY
Frank Burns and Robert L. Gragg

Work Group: ________________

Date: ______________________

Circle one number for each statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I have been speaking frankly here about the things that have been uppermost in my mind.	1	2	3	4	5
2. The other members of the team have been speaking frankly about the things that have been uppermost in their minds.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I have been careful to speak directly and to the point.	1	2	3	4	5
4. The other members of this team have been speaking directly and to the point.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I have been listening carefully to the other members of this team and I have been paying special attention to those who have expressed strong agreement or disagreement.	1	2	3	4	5
6. The other members of this team have been listening carefully to me and to each other and they have been paying special attention to strongly expressed views.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I have been asking for and receiving constructive feedback regarding my influence on the team.	1	2	3	4	5

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
8. I have been providing constructive feedback to those who have requested it--to help them keep track of their influence on me and the other team members.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Decisions regarding our team's operating procedures and organization have been flexible and they have been changed rapidly whenever more useful structures or procedures have been discovered.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Everyone on the team has been helping the team keep track of its effectiveness.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Members of this team have been listening carefully to each other and we have been paying special attention to strongly expressed values.	1	2	3	4	5
12. We have been speaking frankly to each other about the things that have been uppermost in our minds.	1	2	3	4	5
13. We have been speaking directly and to the point.	1	2	3	4	5
14. We have been helping our team keep track of its own effectiveness.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Our team's internal organization and procedures have been adjusted when necessary to keep pace with changing conditions or new requirements.	1	2	3	4	5
16. All members of this team understand the team's goals.	1	2	3	4	5
17. Each member of our team understands how he or she can contribute to the team's effectiveness in reaching its goals.	1	2	3	4	5

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
18. Each of us is aware of the potential contributions of each of the other team members.	1	2	3	4	5
19. We recognize each other's problems and help each other to make a maximum contribution.	1	2	3	4	5
20. As a team, we pay attention to our own decision-making and problem-solving processes.	1	2	3	4	5

CREATING A CLIMATE FOR TEAM BUILDING

Team building, with its benefit of increased organizational commitment on the part of individual members, results in many positive benefits. For example, a team approach for doing things will:

1) Instill a desire in team members to produce their best efforts.

2) Tap the latent abilities of the individual as well as the group.

3) Fortify the social needs of the individual as he or she accomplishes organizational objectives.

Several steps should be considered by leaders in the process of creating a climate for team building. Chief among them are the following.

1) Making sure all group members participate in setting meaningful team goals.

2) Making sure each individual can see how he or she personally is contributing to the team and its goals.

3) Making sure that team members understand that they need to work together to accomplish their team goals.

4) Providing feedback to the team on a regular basis.

5) Making sure organizational successes and rewards (as well as setbacks) are shared by the team and not by individuals.

6) Deferring responsibility, authority, and accountability for team actions to the team.

7) Demonstrating how the work and accomplishments of one team complements and supports the work of other teams and/or contributes to the achievement of the organization's goals or purposes.

8) Allow leadership and enthusiasm to grow in the team setting.

A leader's attitude is basic to the success of team building in a group setting. Building a team effort requires that leaders consciously set for themselves the goal of building a team approach for organizational achievement. This kind of climate is needed for team building to prosper.

CHAPTER SUMMARY

The ability of a group or organization leader to recognize and satisfy member needs is a tremendous talent. In many instances, the leaders we hold in high regard have been very successful in matching member needs with the group or organization needs. Thus, the picture used to introduce Chapter Three is a bit of misnomer. A competent leader of an organization or group will always try to avoid matching, packaging, or "stuffing" his or her members arbitrarily. Instead, a competent and compassionate leader will take the time to discuss (communication) with the member his or her particular wants, needs, and desires (motivation). Once this information is known, a leader committed to getting something done will work to create a climate (team building) that harmonizes member needs with those of the organization.

CHAPTER THREE

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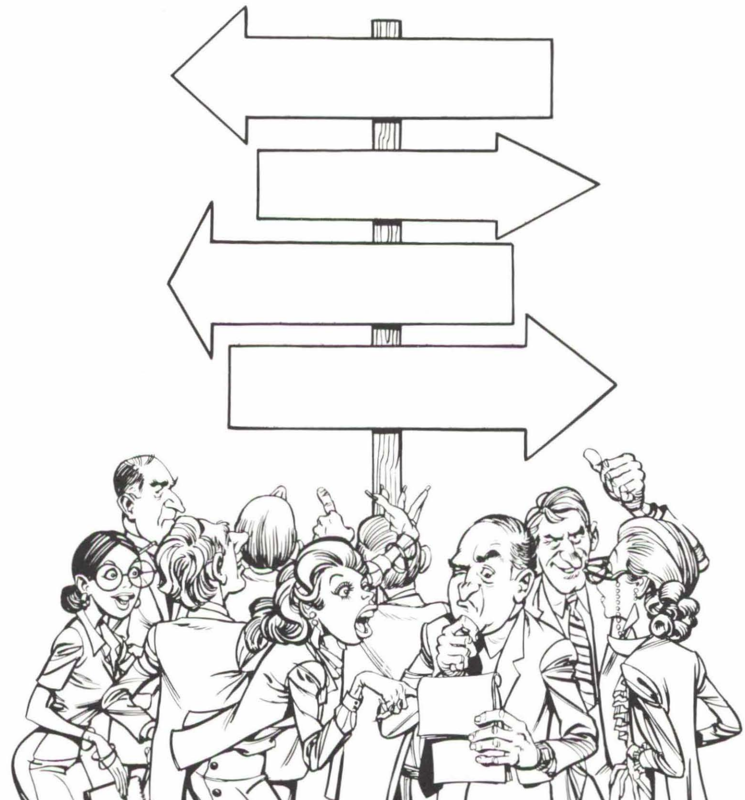
Chapter Four



Applying Leadership in the Community

APPLYING LEADERSHIP IN THE COMMUNITY

If an organization is to become effective and influential in the community, its members must strive to understand the nature of the community in which they live, work, and play. This challenge is quite large because each community is different, its set of problems and opportunities vary, and change is a variable that is constant in most communities.

The focus of this chapter will be on the concept of community and the role organizations play in the community. In addition, the reader will be introduced to techniques which will result in the identification of community power actors and enable organizations to isolate community problems and needs. Lastly, the concept of change and its interface with community will be presented.

CONCEPT OF COMMUNITY

Community is a concept indigenous to discussions involving complex social systems. However, the concept, much like the term leadership, is viewed differently. For example, George Hillery, a sociologist, inventoried 94 different definitions for the term community. One may be correct to assume, as did two Georgia sociologists, that there are almost as many definitions for community as there are sociologists attempting to deal with the concept.

Although variability is a trademark relative to definitions for community, several themes do emerge. Commonality is found with respect to the following "community" properties:

- a grouping of people.
- a locality.
- degree(s) of autonomy.
- an interchange of activities (work, live, play).
- a social organization to direct and monitor the exchange of activities (economic and political systems).

Definitionally, a community can be viewed as a complex social system that involves an area or place where a group of people work, live, play, have their being, and interact with others. Two views of community result from this conceptualization. The first is the idea of a community as a social system. This view portrays the community as a defined social structure that is sustained through the interdependent interaction of its parts. Such "parts" include the following:

- Common body of sentiments, beliefs, and values.

- Common ends or objectives.

- Value of the individual.

- Guiding rules of behavior.

- Individual social rank or status.

- Authority of influence.

- Rewards or punishment for various types of behavior.

- Territoriality or loyalty to a given geographical locale.

A second view of community that emerges from the definition given is the idea of community as a functional system. Much like the social system view of community which has the individual as the centerpiece, the functional view of community contends that the interchange of activities and services distinguishes the term community. The activities operant in this "functional" view are as follows:

- Government and law.

- Economic systems (business and industry).

- Transportation.

- Education.

- Religion.

- Health and welfare.

- Culture and recreation.

- Community appearance.

- Man-made environment.

Analysis of the community as a social system of individuals and groups and as a functional system of activities, reveals a concept that is not all that neat and clean. More precisely, competition and conflict predominate as community realities in the world. This is because people change, communities change, and values, beliefs, and traditions change. In sum, the concept of community is the end product of the relationship between the various social systems (groups) and organizations (functional) within a locality.

HOW THINGS GET DONE IN THE COMMUNITY

A basic question arises from the preceding discussion that deserves some attention. Namely, how do communities work? According to the literature, two types of relationships can be identified to explain how communities work. The first type is referred to as exchange relationships in which individuals, groups, and organizations exchange specialized goods and services. Typical of this type of relationship is the merchant-customer or professional-client relationship. It is hypothesized that individuals tend to gain or lose potential community power by the nature and extent of exchange relationships.

Th second type of community relationship is labeled coordinative. This relationship seeks to manage two or more groups or organizations which have different interests. A Chamber of Commerce is a good example of a coordinative relationship because the interests of several groups are represented. In turn, community power or influence is believed to be exercised through such relationships.

The upshot of these relationships, according to documented research efforts, is that community power and influence appears to be gained through exchange relationships, but exercised through coordinative relationships. That is to say, a person may gain great personal power or knowledge in exchange relationships, but unless a person becomes actively engaged in the key coordinative groups or organizations in the community, he or she is not likely to be in a position to exercise influence on community affairs or events. Thus, a key to understanding how a community works lies in the knowledge of how relationships work in the community.

ROLE OF ORGANIZATIONS IN THE COMMUNITY

In every community there is a corps of community leaders either elected, appointed, or self-chosen. In turn, in every community, there are patterns or forms of community organization. As we have noted, the interface between a community's leadership corps and its pattern of organizations is how a community works. Accordingly, the leadership of an organization bears a heavy responsibility for making sure the organization, if it chooses, is in a position to influence community affairs. Predominant among these responsibilities are the following items:

- Helping organization members discover, identify, and define community needs that can be met by their organization.

- Helping organization members understand the significance of the identified needs.

- Helping organization members rank the needs according to a priority scale.

- Helping organization members understand the range of solutions available.

- Allowing organization members to participate in the selection of a program focus to deal with the issue, its implementation, as well as evaluation.

An additional resource need most organizations have is knowledge about their community. Many organizations, as well as most people, would be hard-pressed to identify their community's resource base. Accordingly, a major prerequisite for an organization intent upon influencing community affairs is knowledge about their community. Such information can be profiled according to the following guide:

1) Community Facts and Figures. (Population, history, etc.)

2) Government Structure. (Form of government, administrative and elected posts, tax system, tax rates, expenditures.)

3) Employment. (Public and private sector job information, numbers of industries, plants, businesses.)

4) Public Services. (Inventory of public services available through the local government-police, fire, social services, health, planning, etc.)

5) Educational Services. (Public and private elementary, secondary, college, university. Business school and continuing education opportunities in the community.)

6) Health Care. (Hospitals, care facilities, clinics, doctor and dentist availability.)

7) Religious Resources.

8) Recreational Opportunities. (Public and private resources.)

9) Media. (Newspapers, radio and television stations.)

10) Libraries. (Public, college, and business.)

11) Cultural Resources. (Music, dance, museums, etc.)

12) Community Clubs and Organizations. (Information on membership, current leadership, and programs offered.)

An additional resource need of many organizations intent on becoming involved in the community is knowing how to access human resources; most especially key community leaders or decision makers. Such actors are thought to have the necessary social power to affect the outcome of community decisions, and thus their support, or lack of opposition, is deemed important. Four different methods exist for getting this job done. A review of each method, noting advantages and disadvantages, follows.

POSITIONAL METHOD

The oldest method used to identify community power actors is the positional method. The individuals who occupy key formal authority positions in the major social, economic, political, governmental, cultural, and religious institutions and in related formal voluntary associations are considered the community power actors.

<u>Assumptions</u>. The first major assumption is that the power to affect community decisions rests in the important positions of formal organizations in the community. The second major assumption is that those holding positions of authority actually make key decisions, while those who do not occupy such positions do not make key decisions. It is also assumed that positional power actors often have control over important resources sometimes needed for community action programs.

PROCEDURE

Step 1: Determine relevant positions.
Step 2: Collect incumbents names.
Step 3: Review and update lists yearly.

<u>Types of Power Actors Identified</u>. The positional method identifies the visible leaders in the community who are involved in both public and private organizations. Examples of public positions are:

A) Elected government leaders--mayor, city council members, judges, legislators, etc.

B) Appointed political officers and higher civil servants--heads of departments and agencies, appointed board members, chairpersons of political parties.

Examples of private and voluntary positions are:

A) Corporation executives and directors--heads of the major corporations, business and financial institutions,

B) Officeholders in service-oriented voluntary associations--presidents of chambers of commerce, parent-teacher associations, service clubs, hospital auxiliaries, industrial development corporations,

C) Formal office holders in member-oriented organizations--presidents of sports associations, church organizations, fraternal orders, labor unions.

ADVANTAGES

* The major advantage to the positional method is that these community power actors are visible, thus easily identified.

* The second major advantage is that there is little cost involved in developing a list of community power actors by using the positional method.

LIMITATIONS

* The first limitation is the difficulty of determining which positions hold power and which ones do not hold power to affect various community decisions.

* Second, some positional power actors do not exercise their potential.

* Third, the positional method generally tends to identify power actors who are in formal positions and who function in community affairs on the basis of authority.

REPUTATIONAL METHOD

In the 1950's, the reputational method developed as an approach to identifying community power actors. This procedure involves selecting knowledgeable community citizens who provide a list of power actors and then ranking them according to their reputation for social power in community affairs.

Assumptions. The reputational method is based on the notion that power is present and involved in all social relationships. It is assumed that power to affect community decisions both influences and is a consequence of reputation. Reputation is an indicator of a power actor's potential to affect community issues and of the resources that a power actor controls. These reputations are an index of the distribution of influence in the community.

Another assumption is that knowledgeables know power actors by their reputations. Power is intangible and, therefore, measured indirectly by knowledgeables' opinions and estimations of the amount of influence that community power actors possess. The final major assumption is that community power actors cannot be identified by just observing who holds offices or participates in public meetings, board meetings, etc. Some power actors are more concealed and operate behind the scenes to affect community actions and decisions.

PROCEDURE

Identifying the community power actors through the use of the reputational method involves interviewing knowledgeables within the community. Knowledgeables are persons who are perceived to be well-informed concerning the power structure and decision-making in the community. They are individuals who can identify those actors who have the power to affect a number of community issues. Steps to be followed include:

Step 1: Determine list of knowledgeables.
Step 2: Develop interview questions.
Step 3: Interview knowledgeables.
Step 4: Decide criteria to be in power actor pool.
Step 5: Repeat process regularly.

Types of Power Actors Identified. The reputational method tends to identify general power actors who are "behind the scenes" as well as power actors who are visible to the general public. "Behind the scenes" power actors are persons who may not participate in the public forum but may play major roles in formulating policies and decisions and exerting influence through informal processes. Generally, this approach identifies the economic dominants (executives of major corporations, businessmen, bankers, financial leaders), elected officials who are reputed to be power holders, professionals (lawyers, doctors, dentists), and political leaders.

ADVANTAGES

* This method identifies a wide scope of community power actors. Those who operate "behind the scenes" are identified as well as persons who hold formal positions and/or who are visible.

* Another advantage of the reputational method is that one can determine the reputed community power actors for a number of community issue areas if these issue areas are built into the questionnaire design used.

* Another advantage is the relative ease with which the reputational method may be used to identify power actors. Interviews can be conducted with a reasonable number of community knowledgeables. In addition, the reputational method is relatively easy to repeat at certain intervals.

LIMITATIONS

* The question often arises about whether the knowledgeables selected are in fact knowledgeable about community affairs. This limitation can be reduced to some extent by (1) selecting knowledgeables from as many institutional sectors of the community as possible (that is, from government, health, recreation, politics, education, etc.) and (2) checking for reliability as previously discussed.

* Another limitation of the reputational method is that the reputed community power actors may or may not actually exercise power to affect community decisions.

* Finally, some claim this method tends to identify an "elitist" structure of generalized social status but fails to recognize the specialization by issue areas in community affairs. Thus, it fails to identify the specialized power holders; for example, the school superintendent who participates only in school issues or the recreational power holder who only participates in recreational issues facing the community.

Some of these limitations may be minimized by development and refinement of the research design and questionnaire construction or by combining the reputational method with other methods in identifying community power actors.

DECISION-MAKING METHOD

In response to the reputational method, Dahl (1961) developed the decision-making method (also called event analysis). This method involves tracing the history of a collective decision concerning at least one issue area. Power actors are those identified as actually participating in the concrete decision and whose suggestions and demands are incorporated in the final outcome.

Assumptions. The basic assumption underlying this method is that social power to affect decisions is made through participation in decision-making processes. This participation is an index of the distribution of power. Actual participation in decisions is established as the criterion for identifying the community power actors.

PROCEDURES

Step 1: Select representative decisions.
Step 2: Include relevant decision areas.
Step 3: Trace decision-making process.
Step 4: Determine leaders in decision.
Step 5: Review new community decisions of interest.

Types of Power Actors Identified. The community power actors identified by this method are those who are or were active or instrumental in the resolution of community issues or problems. If several community decisions are studied, one can establish whether the community power actors are: (1) general power actors, that is, those who participate as decision makers on several community issues, or (2) specialized power actors, that is, those who appear as decision makers on only one major community decision. Because this method studies actual behavior rather than reputed power, the persons identified are visible leaders.

ADVANTAGES

* The decision-making method enables the user to determine the actual possession and use of resources, not just the reputation for having and using them.

* If the actual behavior of community power actors who participate in several issue areas is determined, one can identify general power actors by the actual overlap of power from one issue to another.

* Through analyzing several issue areas, the specialized community power actors who affect only one issue area can be traced and their actual role determined.

* By tracing a number of community decisions from the initiation through the execution and final stages of the decision, the roles of the participants can be determined at each stage of the issue.

LIMITATIONS

* Studying a number of representative community decisions is rather time consuming and costly. If one is to determine whether one power structure affects the decisions in all major issues before the community or whether several power structures, each varying from one major issue to the next, are in operation, then several issues must be studied.

* Since the decision-making method assumes that actual behavior is a measure of leadership, it fails to determine whether some community power actors operated "behind the scenes" to affect the decisions.

* The decision-making method also ignores power actors who may be able to keep latent issues from emerging into open controversy.

SOCIAL PARTICIPATION METHOD

The social participation method (also called social activity method) involves the listing of participants in voluntary associations in the community. Power actors are those who are holding formal positions in voluntary associations and those who are participating in their activities. They are the community members with the highest degree of social participation in voluntary associations.

Assumptions. In the social participation method, the major assumption is that power to affect community decisions is acquired through participation and holding offices in the community's voluntary associations. Those who are active in community decisions and affairs are also assumed to be community members who actively participate as members, officers, or committee members and in other formal activities in voluntary associations.

PROCEDURES

The social participation method involves determining which members of the community have the highest social participation in voluntary associations. The following steps should be followed:

Step 1: Select key voluntary associations.
Step 2: Obtain list of association participants.
Step 3: Compare and determine overlaps.
Step 4: List power actors with most participation.
Step 5: Update regularly.

Types of Power Actors Identified. This method identifies visible participants in various activities of voluntary associations. If a number of voluntary associations are studied, one can determine the overlap of memberships among the various voluntary associations. This approach tends to identify persons who become highly involved in action phases of voluntary associations.

ADVANTAGES

* The major advantage of this method is that it identifies power actors who are active in community affairs.

* Research studies of community leadership have found that key community power actors had been active in voluntary associations often prior to becoming key community power actors. The social participation method may, therefore, be used to identify younger members of the community who aspire to becoming key power actors.

* Also, an advantage of the social participation method is that it identifies community members who are likely to participate in the action phases of community issues.

LIMITATIONS

* First, this procedure is time consuming and costly.

* This method also identifies only the active power actors in community affairs and not the power actors who operate behind the scenes.

* The question comes up as to whether indexes based on membership and offices in voluntary associations are necessarily indicative of involvement on projects in the voluntary association.

* Also, there is the question of the extent to which the persons identified through the social participation method are in fact the decision makers on key community issues.

* Finally, the study of social participation in the voluntary associations fails to identify the specific issues in which the high-score participators are likely to be decision makers or active participants.

SUMMARY OF THE FOUR IDENTIFICATION METHODS

METHOD	ASSUMPTIONS	LEADER IDENTIFIED	ADVANTAGES	LIMITATIONS
POSITIONAL	Power rests in important positions of formal organizations.	Higher civil servants, corporation executives, elected and appointed formal office holders, voluntary association officers.	Leaders are visible. Less costly. Good cross-section of leaders.	Positional leaders may not exercise their potential. Fails to identify informal leaders Difficult to determine which positions do or do not have power.
REPUTATIONAL	Power is reflected in reputation.	General leaders that are concealed as well as those visible to the public.	Identifies visible and concealed leaders. Determines leaders in several areas. Relatively easy.	Determining who is or is not knowledgeable. Reputed power may not be exercised power. Fails to identify specialized power holders.
DECISION	Power is acquired through participation in decision-making processes.	Instrumental leaders in the resolution of community issues.	Determines actual behavior rather than reputation. Identifies roles of power actors.	Time consuming and costly. Fails to identify leaders who are "behind the scenes."
SOCIAL PARTICIPATION	Power is acquired through participation in activities and offices in voluntary associations	Visible participants in activities of voluntary associations.	Identifies active community leaders and those likely to be active in action programs.	Time consuming and costly. Fails to identify concealed leaders or specific area of participation.

THE CONCEPT OF CHANGE

As our contemporary situation so amply illustrates, change is ever present. Magazines, newspapers, and the popular press abound with information regarding change. Nowhere is this reality more dramatic than in Alvin Toffler's book, Future Shock, when he discusses lifetimes. Toffler maintains there have been about 800 lifetimes (assuming the actuarial length of a lifetime) since the beginning of man's history. For the first 794 of those lifetimes, virtually nothing changed in the way people lived their daily lives. For the most part, man lived and died in the community where he was born, toiling endlessly to keep himself alive day to day.

Change began to occur during the 795th lifetime when man created the printing press. The effect of this first, raw step in mass communications was explosive. Technological victory after technological victory followed and, by the 798th lifetime, the industrial society was firmly in place. What we are left with, according to Toffler, is the reality that it has only been during the last two lifetimes that anyone, anywhere used an electric motor or rode in an automobile. Not to be outdone, the innovations of the 800th lifetime, our current time, is what has been staggering, thanks to automation and the computer. The net result is that the rate of change is now quite dramatic. So much so that Carl Rogers, the dean of American humanistic psychologists, has said that the greatest problem facing mankind today is the rate of change and the inability of people to adapt to rapid change.

REACTIONS TO CHANGE

Reactions to change are influenced by several factors; however, resistance and acceptance are the eventual reactions to change. Several reasons predominate for this reality. Some of the more prevalent are noted below.

Resist. The literature indicates that people often resist change when:

1) custom or tradition is involved and routine actions are threatened;

2) the change appears to be illogical; for example, requiring greater cost than the apparent benefits;

3) the change is interpreted as someone else's goal and the risks are not clear;

4) the change agent's motives are unclear;

5) there is fear of the unknown; or

6) the change threatens one's position.

Acceptance. Research and experience contend that change is more likely to be accepted when:

1) it appears to be logical;

2) people are involved in deciding what the change should be;

3) security needs of people are recognized and protected;

4) the implications of change are clean and specific;

5) those affected by change approve of the consequences; and

6) the risks of change are minimized to the greatest extent possible.

The following summarizes the basic principles leaders should consider when change is anticipated.

MOTIVATION OF INDIVIDUAL MEMBERS

1) The need for change must be seen as "real."

2) The proposed change should complement traditional programs.

3) Immediate and lasting benefits should be emphasized.

4) Risk must be understood in terms of benefits.

INDIVIDUAL DECISION MAKING AND MOTIVATION

5) Persons go through the decision-making process at different speeds.

6) The time necessary to make a decision varies according to the type of change being proposed.

7) Different kinds of communicative influence are appropriate for each stage of decision making.

8) Different kinds of communicative influence are appropriate for different types of change.

GROUP PROCESSES AND MOTIVATION

9) Members or leaders can influence other members to the extent that all are committed to the organization.

10) The greater the prestige of a member of the organization, the greater his ability to motivate other members.

11) All people in the organization, who will be affected by a change, should share information about it.

12) Members and sub-groups within the organization should develop jointly the belief in the need for change.

13) Change in any one part of the organization will likely affect other parts, causing strain.

LEADERSHIP FOR CHANGE

Persons who occupy positions of leadership in a community have a major responsibility for diagnosing and determining the need for community change. They also share in the responsibility for guiding and modifying change once it is initiated. Several attributes are shared by change agents at the community level. Some of the leading attributes are as follows:

- An intuitive sense regarding group members' readiness for change.

- The willingness to involve others in the design, implementation and evaluation of change.

- The willingness to explain proposed change in advance.

- The willingness to alter the "planned" change subject to new or different input.

- The willingness and ability to take risk as a leader.

DETERMINING COMMUNITY NEEDS

As the preceding component on change noted, all communities are in a continual state of change. The end result is that a community's character or mood will always be making shifts as a result of the interplay of social, cultural, and economic change.

An effective means to monitor such change is the application of a community needs assessment. Properly conducted, needs assessments can provide a picture of public opinion about community problems, respondent opinion about possible solutions to problems, as well as respondent opinion concerning community goals and priorities. Leaders of community groups and organizations should be familiar with needs assessment techniques because of their predictive and explanatory capability. A review of needs assessment concerns follows.

SELECTING A NEEDS ASSESSMENT TECHNIQUE

The quality of information about a community is only as good as the technique or combination of techniques used. A single technique may be too narrow in the information it provides; using too many methods may be costly in terms of time and dollars. The following guidelines should be helpful in choosing one or a combination of several needs assessment techniques.

Stating the Problem. The key here is narrowing the focus. If the problem is not well defined, the study may become unmanageable. The following points should be considered:

- What do we want or need to know?
- Why do we want to know it?
- How will the information be used?
- Where can we find the information we need to answer our questions?
- How can we obtain this information?
- What useful information sources already exist at local, regional, state or federal levels?
- How can the data we obtain be organized, analyzed and presented?

Planning a Strategy. The key here is trying to determine how much it will cost in time, dollars and other resources to obtain the needed information. Prior to beginning a needs assessment, the following factors should be considered:

Time. Regardless of the technique used, time is a central factor from the standpoint of conducting the assessment itself, as well as deciding when to conduct the assessment.

Money. Will the needs assessment involve any costs? Is money available for the effort?

Other Resources. Implementing a needs assessment invariably will involve human resources. During advance planning, it is important to estimate the availability of human resources for planning, compiling, analyzing and presenting the needs assessment information.

Other Considerations. As with most endeavors, a needs assessment project will need leadership. Accordingly someone or some group of persons must assume the responsibility for actually doing the needs assessment.

Finally, when deciding what type of assessment technique to use, it is best to match the technique with the audience or population it will be describing.

NEEDS ASSESSMENT TECHNIQUES

Information about your community can be gathered either by reviewing existing information or by generating new information. For example, a needs assessment can be made or inferred by reviewing existing data sources such as census and other statistical data. Windshield surveys (riding around the community) is another means to generate information and impressions regarding community needs. Content analysis, the review of newspapers, community documents and records, is another way to generate information. The very popular book, Megatrends, is an example of content analysis.

The need to go beyond existing information in order to assess the needs and concerns of a community, will usually involve a set of different needs assessment techniques. A review of the more common techniques follows:

THE SURVEY

The survey technique is unique in that it is the only needs assessment method - other than talking to every citizen - that has the potential of representing all people in the community. Traditionally, information is gathered through the use of a carefully developed instrument administered to individuals identified via a sampling procedure. The four most common surveying techniques are personal (face to face) interviews, telephone interviews, mailed questionnaires, and questionnaires which are dropped off and picked up later.

The four types of surveys can often be compared in terms of: (1) the cost of implementation; (2) the time needed for completion; (3) the rate of refusal; and (4) the extent and type of training the survey team will need.

ADVANTAGES OF THE SURVEY

1) May well be the best approach for identifying the attitudes of a broad range of individuals.

2) Can be inexpensive - especially if volunteers are available to conduct the survey.

3) Can be used to record behaviors as well as opinions, attitudes, knowledge, beliefs, and attributes.

4) Respondents usually appreciate the involvement the survey technique provides.

DISADVANTAGES OF THE SURVEY

1) To assure statistical meaning, random samples must be carefully selected.

2) Results may not be valid if the survey is incorrectly designed.

3) The survey technique can be the most costly of all approaches.

4) Individuals may be hesitant to answer questions or they may answer them in a way they think will please the authors of the survey.

5) Most any survey is a "one shot" affair. Information and attitudes noted from a survey represent peoples' views at one point in time.

THE KEY INFORMANT APPROACH

The key informant method is based on obtaining information from those community residents who, because of their professional training and/or affiliation with particular organizations, agencies, or associations, are in a prime position to know what the needs facing the community are likely to be.

The key informant approach requires that a schedule or questionnaire be developed and administered to community residents identified as "key informants." The data derived from these schedules can then be used to determine the needs facing the community. Persons considered "key informants" usually include the following:

- Elected Officials (mayor, councilpersons, etc.)

- Key persons in institutional areas of the community (church, business, etc.)

- Agency administrators

- Organizational Leaders (Chamber of Commerce, service clubs, etc.)

- Professionals in specific service areas (doctor, lawyer, school faculty, etc.)

<u>How to Implement the Key Informant Approach</u>

1) Compile a list of key informants by name.

2) Decide how you want to obtain information for the persons identified - via questionnaires or interviews.

3) Prepare the questionnaire.

4) Conduct the session.

5) Organize and interpret the data.

Preparing the Questionnaire. The survey instrument should consist of at least four types of questions:

1) Background information on the respondent.

2) Perceptions (attitudes) concerning the well-being of the public relative to the specific issue(s) being researched.

3) Perceptions (attitudes) concerning what is currently being done about meeting the needs.

4) Ideas as to what should be done about meeting needs that are not currently being met.

Interpreting the Data. Since the data were obtained for specific reasons, the data should be organized for analysis in the same manner. That is, the responses of the key informants should be organized in terms of what they think the important needs are, what is currently being done (if anything) to meet the needs, and what (if anything) should or could be done to meet needs not currently being addressed.

ADVANTAGES OF THE KEY INFORMANT APPROACH

1) Offers one of the easiest and least expensive ways to systematically assess needs.

2) Provides depth of information concerning stated problems or needs.

3) Permits continual clarification of ideas and information.

4) Permits input from many different individuals.

5) Can be implemented by community volunteers, thereby building citizen involvement and awareness.

DISADVANTAGES OF THE KEY INFORMANT APPROACH

1) The information obtained from key informants can represent the perspectives and biases of the organizations, agencies and associations with which the informants are associated.

2) Jealousies and resentment on the part of other community members whose opinions are not solicited may develop.

3) Time required to train persons who will be conducting the interviews.

4) Some of the weaknesses associated with the Survey Approach also apply to the Key Informant Approach with respect to people being asked to complete questionnaires or respond to interviews.

NOMINAL GROUP PROCESS

The nominal group process is a structured problem-solving or idea-generating strategy in which individuals' ideas are gathered and combined in a face-to-face nonthreatening group situation. The process assures balanced input from all participants and takes advantage of each person's knowledge and experience. In a needs assessment, nominal group process is useful for generating and clarifying ideas, reaching consensus, prioritizing, and making decisions on proposed alternative actions.

The nominal group process can be varied. One derivative is the group brainstorm. In the brainstorm, each person is asked to either write or verbalize their opinions concerning the topic at hand. Round-robin feedback from each person then follows, with each person's concerns being listed on a flip chart in full view. Next, each idea is discussed for clarification. Lastly, priorities are ordered by individual balloting (color coded with point value suggested), followed by a group discussion of the process and the end product.

ADVANTAGES OF THE NOMINAL GROUP PROCESS

1) Generate many ideas in a short period of time; allows for a full range of individual thoughts and concerns.

2) Motivates all participants to get involved because they sense they are personally affected.

3) Gives all participants an equal opportunity to express opinions and ideas.

4) Stimulates creative thinking and effective dialogue.

5) Allows for clarification of ideas and issues.

6) Provides a process whereby identified problems and concerns can be prioritized and discussed.

DISADVANTAGES OF THE NOMINAL GROUP PROCESS

1) Requires a skilled leader/facilitator.

2) May be extremely difficult to implement with large audiences unless advance preparation has taken place to train group facilitators and divide participants into groups of six to ten members.

3) Assertive personalities may dominate unless leadership skills are exercised.

4) May not be a sufficient source of data in itself; may require follow-up surveys, observations or documentary analysis.

COMMUNITY FORUM

A community forum is based on one or more public meetings with citizens. This approach is flexible and it works well with specialized groups such as a neighborhood or persons of a particular age.

ADVANTAGES OF THE COMMUNITY FORUM

1) Relatively easy to arrange and inexpensive to conduct.

2) Provides citizens an opportunity to actively participate in the process.

3) Participants in the forum may be able to offer assistance once the needs assessment is completed.

DISADVANTAGES OF THE COMMUNITY FORUM

1) The burden of getting participation falls squarely on the sponsoring organization.

2) The success or failure of a forum may depend a great deal on the discussion skills of the leader.

3) Participants may use the forum to publicize gripes or take shots at the sponsoring organization(s).

4) A forum may generate more questions than answers.

GETTING THINGS DONE: A FINAL WORD

The collective experience of organizational life clearly details that most community action is the result of thorough planning and hard work. As a rule, things do not just happen. Usually a series of steps are carefully designed and followed which result in an activity or project being successfully implemented or completed. Persons who occupy leadership positions in organizations must recognize this reality. The following eight-step community improvement process is a time-honored procedure. Care in building consensus on the first four steps will pay off in accomplishment of the last four.

1) Identify the problem or issue clearly.

2) Secure and assess information regarding the nature of the issue.

3) Set goals for dealing with the issue.

4) Develop a plan of action.

5) Organize resources to implement the plan.

6) Initiate the plan of action.

7) Monitor the action taken.

8) Evaluate the action taken.

Reliance upon a structured planning process will enable a community organization to effectively capitalize on the initiatives it sets for itself. In turn, organization members will feel a sense of accomplishment, as well as a greater commitment to the organization because their time is being well spent and their talents challenged.

CHAPTER SUMMARY

The community, it must be recognized, is a complex and ever-changing entity. Successfully knowing when and how to influence a community demands knowledge, tenacity, good timing, and considerable leadership competence. Volunteer groups, community clubs, and associational organizations are in an excellent position to both monitor and influence community events and happenings in a positive way. The presence of competent leadership at the group or organizational level will make that job easier.

CHAPTER FOUR

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EXERCISE TWO

Please record your answers on the remaining answer sheet you received with the correspondence course. Please use a number two pencil to record your answers.

Please print your name in the upper left corner of the answer sheet. Directly under your name, please record your social security number or your Virginia driver's license number. Next, blacken in the corresponding circles under each digit. Please be sure to blacken the appropriate numeral such that it cannot be seen.

Once you complete the exercise, place your answer sheet in one of the two envelopes provided and mail it to Virginia Tech. DO NOT BEND OR FOLD your answer sheet when you complete this task. Your exercise will be computer scored and it will be returned to you.

1) Maslow's theory of motivation is predicated on the idea that people are wanting people. TRUE OR FALSE?

   1 - True
   2 - False

2) A community's social system is determined by its social structure. TRUE or FALSE?

   1 - True
   2 - False

3) The types of community leaders identified by the positional method would include which of the following?

   1 - Elected government officials
   2 - Business leaders
   3 - Community club leaders
   4 - All of the above

4) Most human behavior is goal directed. TRUE or FALSE?

   1 - True
   2 - False

5) Change is a difficult thing for many people to accept. TRUE or FALSE?

   1 - True
   2 - Fale

6) When choosing a needs assessment technique, which of the following factors should influence your choice?

1 - Time
2 - Cost
3 - Human resources
4 - All of the above

6) Frederick Herzberg concluded that maintenance factors, if absent, could become a source of demotivation. TRUE or FALSE?

1 - True
2 - False

8) Providing feedback to the group is one of the steps a leader can take to encourage team building. TRUE or FALSE?

1 - True
2 - False

9) Communications can fail for many reasons, however, the reasons for failure can always be traced to an individual or an organization. TRUE or FALSE?

1 - True
2 - False

10) Which of the following characteristics is essential for a community to exist?

1 - People
2 - Locality
3 - Interchange of activities
4 - All of the above

11) A survey is the only needs assessment technique that has the potential of representing all people in the community. TRUE or FALSE?

1 - True
2 - False

12) Which of the following would signal the need for team building?

1 - Lack of commitment to objectives
2 - Low group morale
3 - Decisions misunderstood
4 - All of the above

13) Which of the following is out of step with "Taylorism?"

1 - People are motivated by money
2 - Theory Y
3 - People need close supervision
4 - All of the above

14) The social participation method of identifying community leaders assumes a person's power to affect community decisions is acquired through memberships in community groups. TRUE or FALSE?

1 - True
2 - False

15) A key to understanding motivation is understanding people. TRUE or FALSE?

1 - True
2 - False

APPENDIX

The following exercises are intended for your use with fellow group, club, or organizational members. The exercises are but a few of the hundreds that have appeared over the years in the "Group Facilitators Handbook," annually published by University Associates Publishers and Consultants. These annuals can be found in most colleges and university libraries. They may also be found in large public libraries.

The exercises appearing in this section were reproduced from A Handbook of Structured Experiences for Human Relations Training, Volume IV, J. William Pfeiffer and John E. Jones, Editors, La Jolla, California: University Associates Publishers, 1973.

BALL GAME:

CONTROLLING AND INFLUENCING COMMUNICATION

Goals:

1) To explore the dynamics of assuming leadership in a group.

2) To increase awareness of the power held by the member of a group who is speaking at any given time.

3) To diagnose communication patterns in a group.

Group Size:

Six to twelve participants. Several groups may be directed simultaneously.

Time Required:

Approximately 30 minutes

Materials Utilized:

A ball or other convenient object for each group.

Process:

1) The facilitator explains that in the following discussion session, the manner in which the participants will interact will be limited. He tells them that posession of the ball (or other object) that he is holding will determine who may speak. He further explains that the participants with the ball must keep it until someone signals nonverbally that they wish to have it. The individual holding the ball may refuse to give it to a member who requests it.

2) If process observers are used, they are selected and briefed.

3) The facilitator announces a topic for the group to discuss, based upon the goals and experiences of the group. It is important to insure that significant interaction will be generated. (Examples: silent members, expressing negative feedback, barriers to doing one's job.)

4) The facilitator hands the ball to a participant, indicating that the discussion period is to begin.

5) After 15 minutes have passed, the facilitator indicates that the discussion is over.

6) The group processes the experience in terms of the power phenomena that emerge in reference to the holder of the ball, frustrations involved in attempting to gain or hold this power, and the patterns of communication that emerge during the experience.

7) If process observers have been used, the facilitator asks them to provide feedback for the group.

JOE DOODLEBUG:

GROUP PROBLEM SOLVING

Goals:

1) To explore the effect of participants' response sets in a group problem-solving activity.

2) To observe leadership behavior in a problem-solving situation.

Group Size:

Unlimited number of groups of six (five members and an observer). Left-over members can work as process observers.

Time Required:

Approximately 45 minutes.

Materials Utilized:

1) Joe Doodlebug Rule Cards (a set of five for each group).

2) Joe Doodlebug Briefing Sheets.

3) Problem-Solving Process Observation Forms.

Physical Setting:

Groups are seated in circles far enough apart so as not to influence each other.

Process:

1) The facilitator distributes Joe Doodlebug Briefing Sheets to members of each group. Observers are given copies of the Problem-Solving Process Observation Form.

2) After participants have had time to read the backgroud information, the facilitator distributes Joe Doodlebug Rule Cards. Within each group, each member gets a different rule card.

3) Groups are instructed to begin solving the problem in accordance with the rules. When there is substantial agreement within a group that the solution has been reached, the process observer prepares a report.

4) Once all groups are done, the facilitator solicits brief reports from each on the process that they developed to solve the problem. Then he asks for the solution from each group.

5) Groups members are asked to give each other feedback, with the observer's help, on what behaviors each displayed that influenced the group.

6) The facilitator presents a lecture on the concept of shared leadership, stressing the responsibility of the individual member for both task attainment and group maintenance.

7) Solution: At the moment Joe's master placed the food down, Joe had already jumped once to the east. He therefore has to jump sideways three times more to the east, and once sideways back to the west, landing on top of the food. He can eat now.

Hints:

The hints are given as needed and as follows:

--Joe does not have to face the food in order to each it (the facing belief).

--Joe can jump sideways and backwards as well as forwards (the direction belief).

--Joe was moving east when the food was presented (the movement belief).

JOE DOODLEBUG RULE CARDS

Each of the following five rules should be typed on 3" x 5" card. These sets are to be distributed to groups, the cards to be given out randomly within each group of five members.

Joe can jump in only four different directions: north, south, east, and west. He cannot jump diagonally (northeast, northwest, southeast, southwest).

Once Joe starts in any direction, he must jump <u>four times</u> in that same direction before he can change his direction.

Joe can only jump. He <u>cannot</u> crawl, fly, or walk.

Joe can jump very large distances or very small distances, but <u>not less</u> than one inch per jump.

Joe <u>cannot</u> turn around.

JOE DOODLEBUG BRIEFING SHEET

The Situation:

Joe Doodlebug is a strange sort of imaginary but that can and cannot do certain things. He has been jumping all over the place getting some exercise when his master places a pile of food three feet directly west of him. As soon as he sees all this food, he stops in his tracks, facing north. He notes that the pile of food is a little larger than he.

After all this exercise, Joe is very hungry and wants to get the food as quickly as he can. He examines the situation and then says, "Darn it, I'll have to jump four times to get the food."

The Problem:

Joe is a smart bug, and he is dead right in his conclusion. Why do you suppose Joe Doodlebug has to take four jumps, no more and no less, to reach the food?

PROBLEM-SOLVING PROCESS

OBSERVATION FORM

Make notes in the blank spaces provided. Record who did what.

Organization:	How did the group get started?
	How did they begin sharing their resources?
	What procedures did they develop to solve the problem?
Data Flow:	How did the group get out all the information?
	What data were accepted? Rejected?
	How was the information collated or compiled?
Data Processing:	How did the group stay on track?
	What decision rules emerged?
	What visual aids were employed?
	How was consensus achieved and tested?
Critiquing:	How did the group discuss its own functioning?
	What climate emerged in the meeting?

TOOTHPICKS:

AN ANALYSIS OF HELPING BEHAVIORS

Goals:

1) To identify differing approaches to assisting others in a task.

2) To explore the effects of the various helping approaches on task accomplishment and interpersonal relations.

Group Size:

Ten to twenty participants.

Time Required:

Approximately one hour.

Materials Utilized:

1) Twenty-four toothpicks.

2) Second puzzle to be held in reserve.

3) Six instruction cards.

4) Pencils for all observers.

5) Stopwatch or watch with a sweep second hand.

Physical Setting:

Room large enough for all observers to see the problem solvers at work. One table in the center of the room.

Process:

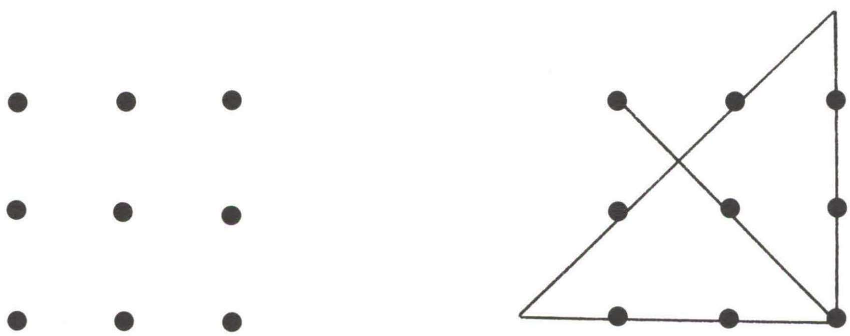
1) The facilitator prepares two puzzles in advance, holding one in reserve in case the first is solved before six trials have been made. Illustrated below is the toothpick puzzle. (Any puzzle which appears difficult enough to last through six trials will be satisfactory.)

Problem: Take away eight toothpicks so that there are only two squares left.

Solution:

Problem: Connect all nine dots with four straight lines.

Solution:



2) The facilitator divides the group into three units for purposes of this experience, according to the number of participants involved. The problem solvers should include from one to three participants. The helpers must be exactly six, and the remaining individuals become observers.

3) The problem solvers are seated at the table, and the helpers leave the room. He then asks the observers to station themselves around the room in such a fashion that they will be able to observe all the action at the table.

4) The facilitator explains that a puzzle is to be solved and that the observers will be noticing and recording the behaviors of the helpers and the problem solvers as they work on the puzzle together. He states that the helpers will be allowed into the room one at a time and that each of the six will have one and one-half minutes to assist the problem solvers.

5) The facilitator then joins the six helpers outside of the room. He briefs the helpers by explaining that they will each have one and one-half minutes to help solve a puzzle which the problem solvers will be working on at the table. He assigns each a number from one to six, which will be the order in which they will enter the room. He explains that, after each is finished, he will join the observers. He then gives each a card which describes the assisting style which must be used when they are helping with the puzzle. He asks them to keep the information on the card confidential as they wait for their turn to come. (The facilitator may wish to assign specific styles to particular helpers.)

6) The facilitator returns to the room, places the puzzle on the table, and asks the problem solvers to wait to begin until the first helper joins them.

7) The facilitator ushers in the helpers one at a time and allows each exactly one and one-half minutes to assist the problem solvers.

8) After the sixth trial, the facilitator asks the group to process the experience. The problem solvers report the effects of the various assisting styles on task accomplishment. The observers report how they saw the effects of the various assisting styles on task accomplishment and give descriptions of what they perceived the various styles to be illustrating. The problem solvers add their perceptions of the differences in the styles.

9) The bases of power illustrated by the styles of assistance include: referent, expert, reward, coercive, legitimate, and charismatic. The facilitator asks the group to relate these theories to the experience they have just had and generalize the information to these "bases of power" as they affect their experiences within the group.

The following instructions should be written or typed on 3" x 5" cards or slips of paper.

REFERENT	As you try to help solve the puzzle, show empathy, warmth, familiarity, and liking for the other(s).
EXPERT	As you try to help solve the puzzle, act like an expert.
REWARD	As you try to help solve the puzzle, offer encouragement and some reward for successful solution. Promise something good.
COERCIVE	As you try to help solve the puzzle, urge work at the problem through threats if it is not completed in time.
LEGITIMATE	As you try to help solve the puzzle, make it clear that you are responsible to your supervisor for the other(s)'s effective work. If this is not immediately clear, keep reminding them.
CHARISMATIC	As you try to help solve the puzzle, become "personality plus," and hope your enthusiasm and confidence can catch hold.

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