A CONCEPTUAL MODEL FOR IN-SERVICE EDUCATION FOR COMMUNITY COLLEGE AND TECHNICAL INSTITUTE OCCUPATIONAL INSTRUCTORS WHO HAVE NOT PARTICIPATED IN TRADITIONAL TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMS

by

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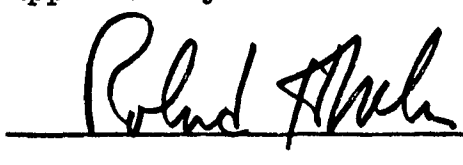
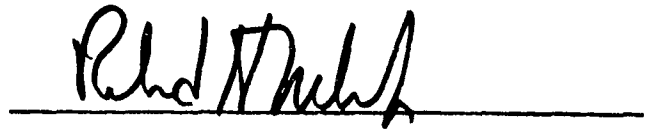
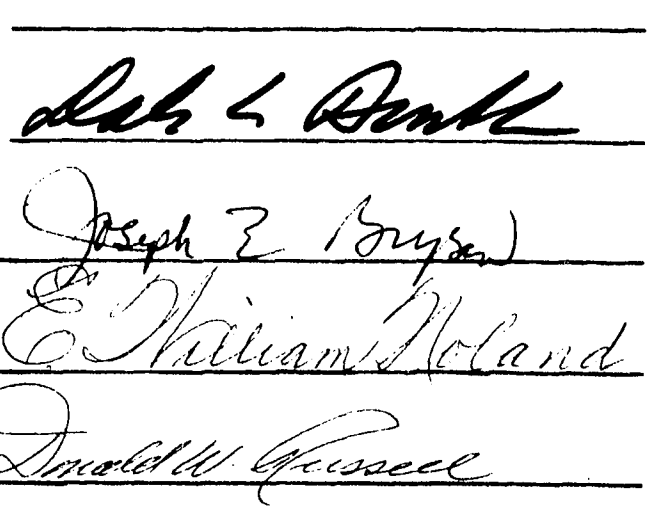


APPROVAL PAGE

This dissertation has been approved by the following committee of the Faculty of the Graduate School at The University of North Carolina at Greensboro.

Dissertation Adviser 

Committee Members 

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The primary purpose of this study was the development of an in-service education model that was appropriate for occupational instructors in the community college and technical institute who did not participate in traditional teacher education programs. Secondary purposes of this study were: (1) to identify the roles that the teacher and the leader either perform or are expected to perform and (2) to identify the similar roles performed by the teacher and the leader.

A selected review of the literature was conducted in three areas: (1) the role of the teacher; (2) the role of the leader; and (3) andragogy. Andragogy, the concept of the adult in the learning environment, was described in terms of how the adult differs from the child in the learning environment. The review provided the foundation for the in-service model by enabling the researcher to do several things. First, a list of similar roles performed by both the teacher and the leader was developed. These roles were: director of activities, public relations agent, manipulator, agent of change, motivator, subject expert, counselor, planner, decision-maker, controller, coordinator, educator/trainer, behavior model, and evaluator. This list of similar roles provided the theoretical basis for substituting the terms 'teacher' and 'leader' in occupational education under these

circumstances: (1) as director of learning, the activity goal is that of teaching, and (2) when the other similar roles of the teacher and leader are performed. Secondly, the literature provided a theoretical basis for training these instructors in leadership in such a way as to satisfy concepts of andragogy.

A model was developed for in-service education that incorporated the similar roles of the teacher/leader. Four elements were presented in the model: (1) leadership, (2) followership, (3) recognized expertise, and (4) educational practice.

Elements of leadership focused on areas that the teacher/leader should realize so that the following roles could be performed: director of activities, manipulator, agent of change, counselor, planner, decision-maker, and coordinator. The teacher/leader would be exposed to seven areas in this element: (1) styles of leadership, (2) leader behavior, (3) theories of leadership, (4) values and priorities, (5) communication skills, (6) the decision-making process, and (7) organizations.

Elements of followership dealt with areas that the teacher/leader should be familiar with so that these roles could be performed: director of activities, public relations agent, motivator, counselor, coordinator, teacher/trainer, and behavior model. Areas included in this element were: (1) andragogy, (2) personality development, and (3) motivation.

Recognized expertise was included in the model because it is one influence on the occupational instructor. Determining expertise is the responsibility of the individual institution. Although expertise was described, no attempt was made in this study to establish guidelines for the determination of expertise.

Elements of educational practice were concerned with helping the teacher/leader in the performance of these roles: director of activities, public relations agent, motivator, counselor, planner, decision-maker, educator/trainer, and evaluator. Areas included in this element were: (1) instructional strategies, (2) types of tests, and (3) supportive instructional and audio-visual materials.

Conclusions reached in this study resulted from implications found in the literature.

1. Roles are not separate and distinct, but overlapping.

2. Many roles of the teacher and leader are similar. The teacher is a leader when: (a) teaching is the activity goal, and (b) when the teacher performed the other similar roles.

3. Since the traditional teacher education program does not focus on andragogy, it is not a completely appropriate model for training community college and technical institute occupational instructors.

4. One appropriate model for training these instructors is the one presented in this study which incorporated concepts of andragogy with planned exposure to leadership training.

Implications from this study involved the investigation of this model by the following: (1) non-occupational divisions of the community college and technical institute, (2) teacher education institutions, and (3) business and industry.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

BACKGROUND

"The community junior college is one part of a sprawling complex of American institutions which offer education beyond the high school."[1] Uniquely American in origin and structure, the community junior college* was developed to fill one of the gaps present in the American system of education. "The junior college is neither a high school nor a university."[2] Curricular offerings of community colleges are designed to meet student and societal needs in a different way than either the high school or university/college.

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[1]James W. Thornton, Jr., The Community Junior College. (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1960), p. 3.

*The term, community junior college, has been used in the literature to refer to a concept in American education rather than a particular institution. The term refers to the various post-secondary institutions that have maximum program length of two years. The word 'junior' differentiates this type of institution from the senior college that generally offers programs of study that are four years in length. In this context the researcher uses the term, community college, in reference to the term, community junior college.

[2]Win Kelly and Leslie Wilbur, Teaching in the Community Junior College. (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1970), p. 3.

The origin of the junior college in this country was the establishment of Monticello College in 1835. Although the purpose of this institution was to offer the first two years of college instruction, it was a private institution. The development of private junior colleges was well under way by 1900. The results of the private junior college effort were observed by educators, and between 1900 and 1920 there was a move to establish public junior colleges.[3]

Commenting on the first public junior college in the United States, Fretwell stated the following.

> The American junior college as we know it is essentially a phenomenon of the twentieth century. Although a few small private junior colleges now in operation trace their beginnings to the last century, the establishment of the first public junior college at Joliet, Illinois, in 1901 marks the start of an era of expansion and diversification.[4]

The diversification that Fretwell referred to was evident in the control, finance, and curriculum in the community college.

The justification for establishing the public community college can be traced back to the writings of Thomas Jefferson. Believing in free public education, Jefferson felt that a democracy needed a well-educated citizenry. On this point Bogue elaborates.

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[3]Ibid., pp. 6-8.

[4]Elbert Fretwell, Jr., Founding Public Junior Colleges. (New York: Teachers College , Columbia University, 1954), p. 3.

> In exactly the same manner and for the same basic reasons that have brought universal elementary and high-school opportunities to the masses, so the community college movement, per se, stems directly from the further application of this principle.[5]

Focusing on factors that resulted in the rise of the public junior college, Carl E. Seashore identified the following factors that were rooted in the period after World War I. These factors were:

1. A higher general education level;
2. A logical step beyond the secondary level;
3. Occupational demands;
4. An increase in both leisure and unemployment;
5. Increase in wealth;
6. A broad span of knowledge;
7. Expression and defense of a democratic way of life;
8. Emphasis on adult education;
9. Educational economy;
10. A wide range of students;
11. College and high school promotional activities;
12. Rise of the general social intelligence; and
13. Over production in the college/university system.[6]

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[5]Jesse Parker Bogue, The Community College. (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1950), pp. 4-19.

[6]Carl E. Seashore, The Junior College Movement. (New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1940), pp. 3-12.

Starrak and Hughes identified the need for education beyond the high school level. This need resulted from these considerations:

1. An older age entry level into industrial employment;
2. An earlier age level in high school graduation;
3. Increase in the drop-out rate in high school and college;
4. Inadequate curricula offerings;
5. Societal demands for trained workers;
6. Reorganization of the rural society;
7. The increased complexity of society; and
8. The increase of leisure time.[7]

After World War I increased emphasis was placed on occupational education. This was clearly evidenced in federal legislation such as the Smith-Hughes Act of 1917 and the federal and state legislative measures that followed. Various educational institutions, including the public high school, made efforts to incorporate and expand occupational education programs in their curriculums.

By the late 1940's the idea of the comprehensive community college was well established. This institution was to incorporate junior college offerings in the liberal arts and professional education; occupational courses for employment;

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[7]James A. Starrak and Raymond M. Hughes, The New Junior College. (Ames, Iowa: The Iowa State College Press, 1948), pp. 4-19.

and both post-secondary and adult education studies for the general upgrading of its clientele. Although community colleges have developed at various rates, their supporters (educators, legislators, businessmen, and industrialists) set several universal standards that each community college should strive for:

1. Low tuition rates;
2. Locally based activities;
3. Community service; and
4. Quality instruction.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Academic backgrounds vary widely in occupational instructional personnel in community colleges and technical institutes. Some instructors have no formal education beyond that of high school graduation while others hold college degrees as high as the doctorate.

Many instructors who have not participated in professional teacher training are employed in occupational education in community colleges and technical institutes. Although there are those in said instructional positions that have participated in professional teacher training programs, numerous instructors are employed to teach that lack this background. These persons often come directly from business, industry, and senior institutions; some are graduates of the programs in which they teach. Contracts are generally granted because of recognized expertise in a

particular field. Since some instructors lack professional teacher training, their ability to choose instructional strategies and techniques is often impaired. In short, without professional teacher training, individual instructors often find difficulty in offering the excellent instruction that is one of the goals cited in community college philosophy.

Although some of the content present in traditional teacher education programs would be of benefit to the occupational instructor, this study focuses on two questions:

1. Is the traditional teacher education program an appropriate model for training occupational instructors for the community college and technical institute?, and
2. If it is not an appropriate model, what model would be appropriate that could be used as an in-service tool?

These two questions rise out of the fact that there are obvious differences between the public school and the community college. If these differences are significant, then it follows that the preparation of instructional personnel should follow these differences. Traditional teacher education programs are concerned with producing a teacher to work in the public school. The differences between the public school and the community college that concern the preparation of teachers for each are as follows:

Confinement: "Confinement simply means that a person must be in a certain place for a specified period of time regardless of his personal wishes about being there."[8] The focus on confinement differs widely from the public school to the community college. Compulsory education laws for the public school clearly state that students are required to attend school for a specified number of hours per day, for a specified number of weeks per year, and for a specified number of school years. These laws make attendance in the public school compulsory: in reality the clientele can be viewed as a captive audience for educators for at least sixteen years, and in some cases more.

This is not to say that all public school students dislike confinement, but merely points out the fact that there are those who do. The presence of the students who dislike confinement has implications for the learning atmosphere and for those that control the learning atmosphere, the public school teachers.

The community college is not concerned with confinement in the same manner as the public school is concerned with it. Since compulsory attendance to the community college does not exist, the clientele enroll because of their desire to do so rather than out of compliance with some compulsory attendance law.

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[8]Dale L. Brubaker and Roland H. Nelson, Jr., Creative Survival in Educational Bureaucracies. (Berkeley, California: McCutchan Publishing Corporation, 1974), p. 34.

Purpose. The purpose or aims of the public school and the community college can be viewed from the standpoint of the subject matter that is offered. The public school is primarily concerned with exposing its clientele to general education. General education in this context is that subject matter that has been deemed necessary for all students so that they may become functional participants in a democratic society. Although there are courses and programs in some high schools that offer vocational or pre-employment training, one major function of the public school is that of providing general education as described here.

The community college deals with the function of general education for the upgrading of some of its clients. However, a major focus of occupational education is not that of general education, but that of vocational and technical training for either employment into a specialized field or that of upgrading those already employed in a specialized field. The occupational curriculum is technical in nature; those that enroll in occupational curriculums do so because they desire exposure to the technical curriculum.

The Source of Expertise in the Instructional Process. The recognized source of expertise in the instructional process varies from the public school to the community college. The teacher in the public school is considered an expert in creating situations that promote child growth and development. It is assumed that the teacher has the broad knowledge and understandings in his area of academic concentration.

Many community colleges view the source of expertise in somewhat a different way. It is accepted that the instructor gains employment through the demonstration of expertise in his teaching field. However, some students are often recognized as valuable sources of expertise for the learning situation. The community college student may bring a wide range of experiences and background into the learning situation. Some of these students work in the field of study and, therefore, have practical knowledges in the field that the instructor can draw upon. This fact brings to light that both the instructor and the students may have varying amounts of expertise, a situation that is generally not present in the public school (and if present, not often recognized).

Clientele. Students are sorted into classes in both the public school and the community college. This sorting of academic abilities and potentials is more rigidly controlled in the public school. For example, students in a tenth grade geometry class are sorted in such a way that their academic abilities and achievements make them more of a homogeneous group than a hetergeneous group with respect to their ability to successfully complete the course. Ages of these students are generally the same and their life experiences are similar in many respects, e.g., dependence upon parents for financial support, dependence on the school for their formal learnings, and limited perspective about their future vocational goals.

Clientele found in the community college have similarities, but varied educational and life experiences make them more heterogeneous than the students in the public school. In the first place, they are not grouped by age. Educational experiences in a class can range from high school graduation to the earned doctorate. Life experiences can include military service, married life, children, various employment backgrounds and successes, various motivations, and various aspirations.

The preceeding differences between the public school and the community college show that the learning atmosphere is influenced by many things, some of which include the nature of confinement; purpose of the institution as seen through the subject matter offered; sources of expertise in the instructional process; and the nature of the clientele.

Professional requirements in the traditional teacher education program strive to prepare the public school teacher with the necessary competencies to control the learning situation. The occupational instructor in the community college is often not prepared to control the learning environment due to the lack of such training. Even though there are parts of the traditional teacher education program that may be appropriate for the community college instructor (e.g., testing and measurement, evaluation of student progress, instructional strategies and techniques, and the use of instructional and audio-visual aids), the

same focus on the learner (pedagogy) may not be appropriate for inclusion in a training program designed for the occupational instructor. Because of the differences in the clientele from the two institutions, the occupational instructor would benefit by viewing the student in a somewhat different way than he is viewed in the public school. The occupational instructor may be in a better position to control his learning situation by planned exposure to leadership training which would focus on at least these areas: (1) leadership, (2) followership, (3) group dynamics, (4) goal assessment, and (5) the decision-making process.

The purpose of this study is the development of an in-service education program that is appropriate for occupational instructors in the community college and technical institute who have not participated in the traditional teacher education program.

NEED FOR THE STUDY

Although there are professional education requirements for community college and technical institute occupational instructors in some states, this study stems from the fact that some community college systems have no such requirements. Efforts are many in the area of improving instruction in occupational education, but some of the problems apparent in these efforts are:

1. Should instructors return to school periodically for professional teacher education courses?
2. Are there more appropriate means whereby these instructors can gain the teaching strategies necessary for occupational instruction other than by participating in the traditional teacher education program?
3. If appropriate means exist (other than participation in the traditional teacher education program), could these means be met by an in-service education program?
4. Is a leadership development focus for in-service education more appropriate than a teacher education focus?

One widely used technique employed to improve occupational instruction is in-service education. Since many institutions are involved with in-service education, this study is directed toward improving instruction by offering a model that centers on leadership training. Both the newly-employed and veteran occupational instructors should benefit from such an in-service program. This model should enable the occupational instructor to choose different teaching strategies and improve on those that he already has. This study is devoted to one often cited objective of the community college, excellent instruction.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

1. In-service Education: Programs and processes designed to improve the overall instructional program of an institution by exposing instructional personnel to new knowledge and/or varied presentations and experiences.

2. Conceptual Model: A presentation and explanation of elements that act as a standard or guide for the content that is to be included in its use as an in-service tool. The researcher uses the term "model" as the plan or guide by which the in-service education program is established.

3. Community College: An open-door, post-secondary educational institution that offers instructional programs in:

   a. general college courses that parallel those offered in senior educational institutions;
   b. occupational courses designed for training individuals in both vocational and technical fields;
   c. adult education courses designed for general upgrading of basic educational skills; and
   d. continuing education for special community needs and for updating those already employed.

4. Technical Institute: An open-door, post-secondary educational institution that offers instructional programs in:

a. occupational courses designed for training individuals in both vocational and technical fields;

b. adult education courses designed for general upgrading of basic educational skills; and

c. continuing education for special community needs and for updating those already employed.

5. Occupational Instructors: Full-time instructors in community colleges and technical institutes who are employed to instruct in vocational and technical programs.

6. Traditional Teacher Education Background: The professional training segment of a teaching degree that has as its main features exposure to content that will provide its recipients with the necessary strategies, methods/techniques, and knowledges needed for competent instruction in the public school setting. In the context of this dissertation, the term is synonymous with professional teacher training in that it is provided by schools of education and/or departments of education in colleges and universities.

7. Teacher: Full-time instructional personnel employed by a public school to instruct in a variety of academic fields.

8. Leader: A person charged with the task of helping the group which he directs to meet specific objectives.

9. Pedagogy: Often defined as the science or art of teaching or of instruction, the term as used in the context

of this study refers to the science or art of teaching children. As used in this study, pedagogy deals with the child learner or the child in the learning situation.

10. Andragogy: In contrast to pedagogy (that deals with the child in the learning situation), andragogy is concerned with the adult in the learning situation. Andragogy is based on several concepts, some of which include:

a. The adult learner is capable of directing many of his learning experiences.
b. Problem-solving should be of an immediate nature more than of a theoretical nature.
c. A valuable learning source for the adult is his own life experiences.

QUESTIONS TO BE ANSWERED

This study has as its primary objective the development of an in-service education model for those occupational instructors that do not have professional teacher training prior to employment. In the process of the development of this model, the following questions will be answered.

1. What roles does the teacher perform (or is expected to perform)?
2. What roles does the leader perform (or is expected to perform)?
3. What knowledges/competencies are necessary for the teacher to perform his roles?

4. What knowledges/competencies are necessary for the leader to perform his roles?
5. What roles are similar to both the teacher and the leader?
6. What are the implications for andragogy in the area of teaching in occupational education programs in community colleges and technical institutes?

BASIC ASSUMPTIONS

The researcher identifies the following basic assumptions and beliefs that he holds concerning this study.

1. Teacher training programs offer certain benefits to their recipients. Some of these are understandings of classroom management, instructional techniques, and the psychology of the learner.

2. Because of the nature of and the inclusion of certain content in teacher education programs, it follows that those exposed to such a background should be better prepared for instructional positions than those who have not participated in this background.

3. Many of the roles of the teacher and the leader are similar; in many cases good teaching is leading.

4. Planned exposure to leadership training can provide the occupational instructor with much of the relevant content of a traditional teacher education program.

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

Chapter II, REVIEW OF SELECTED LITERATURE, deals with certain aspects of teaching, leading, and adragogy. This review is descriptive in nature and pertinent elements of each are detailed. Teaching and leading are viewed from the standpoint of the roles that the teacher and leader perform. A major segment of this chapter is devoted to answering two questions:

1. What are the roles of the teacher?
2. What are the roles of the leader?

Also included in Chapter II is a brief description of andragogy.

Chapter III, IMPLICATIONS FROM THE LITERATURE, summarizes the roles of the teacher and the leader. A comparison of these roles is made, culminating in a list of role similarities. Andragogy is discussed as it relates to leadership. The conclusion sets the stage for the model that is presented in Chapter IV.

Chapter IV, A MODEL FOR IN-SERVICE EDUCATION FOCUSING ON LEADERSHIP TRAINING, presents the in-service model to be used by occupational instructors. Elements included in the model are derived from the list of similar roles of the teacher and the leader. Elements of the model are areas or concepts to be included in the in-service education program.

Chapter V, SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS, does the following: (1) answers the questions asked in the

study; (2) draws conclusions about the model being an appropriate tool for in-service education for occupational instructors; and (3) implies how the model may be modified and applied in other areas.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

1. This study deals only with occupational instructors. It may not have relevance to nonoccupational instruction offered in the community college and technical institute.

2. This study is not an indication of the quality of existing means employed in any current in-service education program for occupational instructors.

3. This study may not necessarily apply to any particular institution or state system since none were specifically identified.

4. Generalizations in this study may not have relevance to other post-secondary institutions.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF SELECTED LITERATURE

The primary purpose of this study was the development of a model for in-service education for occupational instructors who did not participate in the traditional teacher education background. The elements of this model were drawn from the roles that both the teacher and leader perform. This chapter investigates the roles of the teacher and the leader so that these roles can be analyzed in the next chapter. This chapter also investigates the nature of andragogy. This chapter, therefore, is organized according to three themes: (1) the teacher; (2) the leader; and (3) andragogy.

THE TEACHER

One purpose of this study was to identify what it is that the teacher* does or is expected to do. Termed generally under "role", the literature identified and implied what is expected from the teacher: roles, tasks, functions, expectations, duties, and responsibilities. Although the literature was not consistent on all roles, it was consistent on the majority of them and did provide the researcher with the basis for the development of a list of roles that the teacher either performs or is expected to perform.

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*As used in this context, the term "teacher" refers to public school teacher.

Alexander and Saylor dealt with the primary role of the teacher as that of guiding human experience and growth. Certain professional responsibilities are required from the teacher so that this role can be fulfilled. These responsibilities include:

1. Organizing pupil experiences;
2. Guiding these learning experiences; and
3. Trying to improve the educational structure.[1]

In 1956 Gordon discussed the guidance function of the teacher. Being closely related to the guidance function at the school, the teacher should know basic principles of this function. Gordon defined these principles in terms of what guidance provides:

1. Information concerning the child so that the child may be able to make appropriate decisions that relate to his future;
2. Planned experiences for the child, in which he is able to feel accepted; realize his potential and limitations; and realize where he is and who he is in relation to his environment;
3. Group experiences in which the child can learn the concepts of leadership, group membership, and the value of group participation in setting goals and solving problems of its individual members;

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[1]William M. Alexander and J. Galen Saylor, Secondary Education. (New York: Rinehart and Company, Inc., 1950), pp. 1-9.

4. Opportunities in which the child can realize his individuality; and
5. Opportunities for all children to be exposed to the above experiences.[2]

In identifying several roles of the teacher, Parrish and Waskin stressed the importance of the teacher establishing goals and being involved in planning. Several of the roles that the teacher should perform are shown by their list.

1. The teacher should be a consultant.
2. The teacher should be a confidant and an advisor.
3. The teacher should be a friend.[3]

In Maturity in High School Teaching, Inlow indicated that the high school teacher has many roles. Inlow describes these roles as:

1. The academic role in which the teacher is the academic leader for his particular class;
2. The guidance role in which the teacher works with the total development of the student, not just with the intellectual development;
3. The administrative role in which the teacher actively participates in democratic administration

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[2]Ira Gordon, Jr., The Teacher as a Guidance Worker. (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1956), pp. 3-6.

[3]Louise Parrish and Yvonne Waskin, Teacher-Pupil Planning. (New York: Harper and Brothers Publishers, 1958), pp. 124-134.

that includes, among other things, effective committee work on areas of curriculum, guidance, construction, and others (routine classroom management activities such as record keeping, making requisitions, and reports);

4. The extra-curricular role in which the teacher is an active sponsor of clubs, organizations, athletics, student government functions, and the other activities that occur outside of the classroom;
5. The membership role in which the teacher actively participates in his professional organization(s); and
6. The citizenship role in which the teacher is a functional member of his community, state, and country.[4]

According to Richey, community expectations of the teacher strongly influence the roles that the teacher will assume inside and outside the classroom. Some general expectations that the community may place on the teacher can be viewed in terms of the knowledges that the teacher possesses and by the behaviors that the teacher initiates.

1. The teacher is expected to show a certain amount of interest in his pupils.

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[4]Gail M. Inlow, Maturity in High School Teaching. (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1963), pp. 20-45.

2. The teacher is expected to be able to work with his students effectively.
3. The teacher is expected to know his subject matter in depth.
4. The teacher is expected to behave in a commendable manner.
5. The teacher is expected to live in the community in which he works.
6. The teacher is expected to associate only with desirable companions.
7. The teacher is expected to participate in community agencies.
8. The teacher is expected to encourage good relations between the school and the community.[5]

The role of the teacher can also be viewed from the responsibilities that a teacher has. According to Peters:

> The job of the teacher is a highly complex task. It involves the teacher in a variety of human relationships with pupils, colleagues, parents, and community constituents.[6]

Peters went on to say that the teacher's primary role is that of educational leader in the classroom. To be able to perform this role, the teacher must successfully fulfill several responsibilities:

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[5]Robert W. Richey, Planning for Teaching. (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1963), Third Edition), pp. 188-194.

[6]Herman J. Peters, Collins W. Burnett, and Gail F. Farwell, Introduction to Teaching. (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1963), p. 74.

1. In the area of instructional duties;
2. In the area of student guidance; and
3. In the area of administrative activities related to the classroom.[7]

In contributing a chapter in Struggle for Power in Education, Hall wrote that the role of the teacher is often disciplinary in nature. This role is seen as being undesirable to the teacher. Speaking of this custodial function of teaching, Hall points out:

> When the child no longer has a choice as to whether or not he goes to school, then the school has to accept and be responsible for even the most unruly and unpromising types of youngsters. This heightens the custodial aspect of teaching.[8]

While dealing with teacher evaluation in 1966, Lewis concentrated part of her work on what teachers thought teaching should involve. She concluded that the following duties and responsibilities should be a major part of teaching:

1. The ability to teach a particular subject in depth;
2. The ability to work with students;

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[7]Ibid., pp. 51-54.

[8]Oswald Hall, "The Social Structures of the Teaching Profession," Struggle for Power in Education., eds. Frank W. Lutz and Joseph J. Azzarelli. (New York: The Center for Applied Research in Education, Inc., 1966), p. 38.

3. The ability to work effectively with other staff members; and
4. The ability to work with parents of students.[9]

In the same year Grams published a book that dealt with the guidance function as it related to the instructional process. According to Grams, the elementary school teacher should be able to perform the following functions to facilitate learning and, at the same time, promote individual development.

1. The teacher should provide the necessary condition(s) whereby maximum learning and personal growth can result.
2. The teacher should be able to understand the learner and understand the learning process.
3. The teacher should develop and maintain learning readiness in the student.
4. The teacher should meet all student needs, including both developmental and emotional needs.[10]

In describing what the teacher does in the learning situation, Burrup utilized a role definition from a state teachers association:

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[9]Gertrude M. Lewis, The Evaluation of Teaching. (Washington, D.C.: Department of Elementary-Kindergarten-Nursery Education, National Education Association, 1966), pp. 36-41.

[10]Armin Grams, Facilitating Learning and Individual Development: Toward a Theory for Elementary Guidance. (St. Paul, Minnesota: Minnesota Department of Education, 1966), pp. 83-103.

> The California Teachers Association defined six roles of a teacher as: (1) a director of learning; (2) a counselor and guidance worker; (3) a mediator of the culture; (4) a member of the school community; (5) a liaison between the school and community; and (6) a member of the profession. These roles describe rather appropriately what the teacher does.[11]

Van Norman wrote about the ambiguity of the functions of the teacher.

> Never before have educators been so confused as to precisely what their function is or what role our society expects them to play.[12]

While describing dominant views of the teacher's role, Van Norman listed traditional views based on a survey of educational history. Some of these views are:

1. The teacher as a reservoir of knowledge;
2. The teacher as a disperser of knowledge;
3. The teacher as a director of learning; and
4. The teacher as a disseminator of asthetics.[13]

Heald and Moore viewed the primary role of the teacher as that of manipulator.

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[11]Percy B. Burrup, The Teacher and the Public School System. (New York: Harper and Row Publishers, Second Edition, 1967), p. 168.

[12]Royce W. Van Norman, Jr., "The Mission of Teaching: Ambiguity of Function and Purpose," Journal of Teacher Education, Vol. XIX (Fall, 1968), p. 344.

[13]Ibid., pp. 345-346.

> The teacher's primary task is that of environmental manipulation. This task is not only primary but also critical because the teacher has, in a sense, a captive audience.[14]

To manipulate the learning environment effectively, other roles have to be performed: (1) motivator; (2) director of tasks associated with administrative duties; and (3) director of tasks associated with planning.[15]

Harnack stressed the importance to the teacher of his decision-making role. The teacher bases his decisions on variables that he thinks about during his planning time. These variables include:

1. The needs of the learners;
2. The characteristics of the learners;
3. The interests of the learners;
4. The specific classroom objectives;
5. The objectives of the school;
6. Activities or experiences that will serve as the vehicles to meet objectives;
7. The instructional aids and/or materials to be used; and
8. The evaluative technique to be used to check progress.[16]

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[14]James E. Heald and Samuel A. Moore, II, The Teacher and Administrative Relationships in School Systems. (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1968), p. 148.

[15]Ibid., pp. 149-150.

[16]Robert S. Harnack, The Teacher: Decision-Maker and Curriculum Planner. (Scranton, Pennsylvania: International Textbook Company, 1968), pp. 88-90.

Harrison asserted that the main role of the teacher is that of mediator of the learning process. In performing this role, the teacher has to concern himself with the following responsibilities:

1. Selecting
2. Organizing
3. Guidance and Directing
4. Giving Information
5. Reinforcing
6. Evaluating
7. Remedying
8. Administering.[17]

Le Baron contributed the following as he described teaching.

> In brief, teaching is a system of actions intended to induce learning. This definition suggests that teaching may be analyzed in terms of the behaviors that contribute to learning.[18]

Utilizing an existing list of teacher functions, Le Baron goes on to quote Ward and Jung in his article.

> Direct man-machine interaction will provide a major part of the instructional function more efficiently than has ever before been possible. The teacher will have time to focus on more valuable functions such as: (a) diagnosing learner abilities and needs, (b) creating an appropriate range of learning experiences, (c) helping pupils learn how to learn, (d) personalizing learning, (e) fostering unique individual potentials,

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[17]Raymond H. Harrison, Supervisory Leadership in Education. (New York: American Book Company, 1968), p. 64.

[18]Walt Le Baron, "Technological Forces and the Teacher's Changing Role," Journal of Teacher Education, Vol. XX (Winter, 1969), p. 458.

> (f) developing higher thought processes, (g) maximizing the learners in creating knowledge, applying principles, exploring life styles, and valuing explicitly.[19]

Adams and Garrett identified several roles that a teacher should assume. Of primary importance are the roles of promoter and counselor.[20]

Holding that planning was of utmost necessity in teacher, Adams and Garrett determined basic teaching in normal planning situations. These tasks include: (1) identifying the needs of the learners; (2) identifying needs of the system; (3) identifying instructional materials; (4) identifying the objectives of the learners and the system; and (5) developing learning activities to satisfy objectives and needs.[21]

Meyer presented the teacher's role as that of being a creative agent of change. Holding that the classroom teacher is a primary vehicle for educational change and progress, Meyer stated:

> Whereas our educational heritage was once marked by tradition, our educational future must ultimately be guided by teacher experimentation and classroom change. Indeed, teacher creativity and classroom innovation must become recognized

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[19] Ibid.*, citing William T. Ward and Charles Jung, "Implications of Technology for the Preparation and Changing Roles of Educators," Planning for Effective Utilization of Technology in Education, eds. Edgar L. Morphet and David L. Jesser. (New York: Citation Press, 1969), p. 309. (*p. 460).

[20] Sam Adams and John L. Garrett, Jr., To be a Teacher: An Introduction to Education. (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1969), pp. 13-16.

[21] Ibid., pp. 143-150.

> as the usual rather than the unusual if we hope to successfully achieve our goal of massively improving the teaching-learning process in this modern era of turbulent social change.[22]

Lipson held that the teacher's primary task was that of a facilitator. The facilitator can be viewed as the manager of the instructional process. In accomplishing this task, the teacher must perform several roles.

1. The teacher must perform the role of an intellectual. This role must be seen as a model for her students. Fulfilling this role would be evident by sincere interest in learning that would include research and application by the teacher.
2. The teacher must perform the role of actor and reactor to student needs as seen by student behaviors. Fulfilling this role would be evidenced by the teacher responding to individual student needs in the instructional process.
3. The teacher must perform the role of a decision-maker. The teacher can actively seek student involvement in the decision-making process. Fulfilling this role could be viewed by the teacher identifying possible instructional materials and techniques for student consumption.

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[22]James A. Meyer, "Do Teachers Promote Change?", Journal of Secondary Education, Vol. XXXXIV (March, 1969), p. 111.

4. The teacher must perform the role of the catalyst in the learning situation. As the source of expertise, the teacher should use her expertise to induce student learning. Performing this role would include directing students to appropriate sources of reference, answering any specific questions, and advising her students on aspects of problem solving.[23]

Vacca pictured the teacher as a public servant by virtue of being a public official. Although not elected, the teacher does have the responsibility of his office to influence students in such a way as to satisfy the citizens that pay his salary. The teacher has a role of public trust. The teacher must, therefore, act as a model of good behavior to the students so the expectations of the community can be met.[24]

Directing her attention to the role of the teacher in a multi-media setting, Dible emphasized the importance of the teacher using various strategies to complement the learning environment.[25] She viewed the teacher as an integrator of knowledge. Clarifying her position on this matter, she states:

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[23]Joseph I. Lipson, "Job Description for a Teacher in a New School," Educational Technology, X (Fall, 1970), pp. 10-12.

[24]Richard S. Vacca, "Judicial Opinion and the Role of Teachers," Clearing House, XXXXV (December, 1970), pp. 241-244.

[25]Isabel W. Dible, "The Teacher in a Multi-Media Setting," Educational Leadership, XXVIII (November, 1970), pp. 123-124.

> Here, the emphasis is on learning rather than on teaching, and the leader assumes a new level of professional responsibility: that of learning director, specializing in pupil involvement and self-direction.[26]

Wiley stated that educators normally cast the teacher in the role of one or more of the following: (1) motivator, (2) confidant, (3) disciplinarian, (4) purveyor of knowledge, (5) judge, and (6) substitute parent.[27]

Although the teacher fills these roles, Wiley goes on to say that the new role should be seen:

> ....as that of a manager or manipulator of the learning environment, providing a setting and structuring a framework around which experiences suitable to the needs and capabilities of pupils may be developed.[28]

Hare compared and contrasted the roles of the teacher and the critic. The critic's role often is to illuminate aspects of an area that are often overlooked by the occasional viewer or onlooker. The teacher's primary tasks include those of instructing, influencing, and arguing. Hare concluded that the teacher may be able to perform the primary teaching tasks more effectively by taking an occasional role as the critic.[29]

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[26]Ibid., p. 127.

[27]Robert C. Wiley, "Teachers-New Role, New Image," School and Community, CVI (April, 1970), p. 29.

[28]Ibid.

[29]William Hare, "The Roles of Teacher and Critic," Journal of General Education, XXIX (April, 1970), pp. 41-48.

Ferguson published an article dealing with the image of teaching. Concerning himself with professional aspects of teaching, Ferguson emphasized merits of teachers working at school during the summer months. The main thrust of his position was his insistence on the need for planning, an important function of teachers.[30]

Lindvall and Bolvin discussed the role of the teacher in individually prescribed instruction. Although the basic role in such a learning system is controlling it so it will function properly, specific aspects that the teacher must be responsible for are:

1. The evaluation and diagnosis of the needs and the progress of each student.
2. The development of individual study plans or prescriptions.
3. The development of immediate and long-range plans for the total class, which take individual needs and plans into account.
4. The planning and the organization of the classroom and the class period to create an effective learning environment.
5. The development, in cooperation with other members of the professional staff, of plans for any necessary large group instruction.

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[30]Wayne S. Ferguson, "The Myth of the Teaching 'Profession' ", American School Board Journal, MCVIII (July, 1970), pp. 25-26.

6. The supervision of the work of para-professionals such as technicians and teacher aids.
7. The study and evaluation of the system so as to improve its operation in the classroom.[31]

Emphasizing the role of the teacher as that of a motivator in the learning process, Brian Frieder added to a list of roles developed by Drs. Homme and Tosti of the Westinghouse Learning Corporation. This list by Homme and Tosti identifies roles of the teacher by using the term, PRIME. By adding O and D, Frieder increased the term and explained it.

O - formulation of objectives of learning activities
D - diagnosis of learner's instructional needs
PR- prescription of instructional activities for the learner
I - instruction of the learner
M - motivation of the learner
E - evaluation of the learner's degree of achievement of objectives.[32]

McCloskey stressed the importance of the public relations role of the teacher. Because of the daily contacts that the teacher has with pupils, McCloskey feels that this is a unique opportunity for the teacher to help the total school system in creating public understanding within the community. An important aspect in being

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[31]C. M. Lindvall and John O. Bolvin, "The Role of the Teacher in Individually Prescribed Instruction," Educational Technology, X (February, 1970), p. 37.

[32]Brian Frieder, "Motivator: Least Developed of Teacher Roles," Educational Technology, X (February, 1970), p. 28.

a good public relations agent is the teacher understanding the need for public relations.[33]

In his study to determine the status of student involvement in program development in Florida high schools, Burchell stressed the importance of planning in the school setting. He found that student involvement in planning increased during the 1969-70 school year as a result of the nationwide student unrest movement. Student involvement in the planning function was highest in the area of identifying new student activities, and lowest in the area of curriculum development. It was concluded from case studies that school personnel agreed with the concept of student involvement, but in practice a large percentage of these personnel were unsympathetic to student involvement.[34]

Burchell claimed that all of the participants in his study agreed that more student involvement was needed in the planning function. As a result of his investigation, he described the environment and effects of student involvement.

> Principals, teachers, and students reported that in schools where a high level of student involvement was present, increased interest, motivation, and depth of study on the part of the students resulted.[35]

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[33]Gordon McCloskey, Education and Public Understanding. (New York: Harper and Row Publishers, 1970, Second Edition), pp. 314-316.

[34]Warren G. Bruchell, "Student Involvement in Program Development in Florida Senior High Schools" (unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Florida, 1970).

[35]Ibid.

The teacher's role of motivator and director of learning was implied by Haught in her doctoral study. Her study was concerned with the pattern of thinking that students had in both teacher-led large group discussions and student-led small group discussions of literature. Her study supported many conclusions in the area of thought patterns in the discussion of English literature.

1. Student-led small group discussion initiated more verbal involvement than teacher-led large group discussions.
2. A greater amount of personal identification with truths in literature, situations, and characters was present in the small group discussions.
3. Freedom of expression was greater in the student-led small group discussions.
4. Convergent thinking was the focus of the teacher-led discussions.
5. Evaluation was the focus of the student-led discussions.
6. In the small groups, there was 10% less pure recall (memory) and 9% less divergent thinking.
7. The teacher's pattern of thinking was usually adopted by the students.
8. Teacher-led discussions had 20% less routine talk than the small group discussions.

9. When grouped according to ability, average and above average ability students were able to sustain discussion longer than students of lower ability.[36]

In performing the role of counselor or guidance worker, the teacher can affect the self-esteem of the student in some cases. The major purpose of Albert's study was to determine if the self-esteem of elementary students could be improved through teacher-pupil conferences because of the teacher's significance to the student at the elementary age level. The subjects of the study were students from grades four through six in a selected school district. Based on a post-test, there was no change in self-esteem in the study. There was, however, a small amount of change in the fifth grade in student self-esteem as a result of teacher-pupil conferences.[37]

As the director of learning, the behavior style of the teacher may affect pupil achievement. Hastings conducted a study in selected schools to investigate the relationship between direct and indirect behavior styles of

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[36]Evelyn Hunt Haught, "Students' Patterns of Thinking in Teacher-Led Large Group Discussions and Student-Led Small Group Discussions of Literature," (unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, 1970).

[37]Raymond Patrick Albert, "Self-Esteem of the Elementary School Child as Affected by Teacher-Pupil Conferences," (unpublished doctoral dissertation, Northern Illinois University, 1970).

fourth grade teachers on pupil achievement in the inquiry skills in science. Even though the mean scores of direct and indirect teachers were not significantly different, several of the findings in Hasting's study related to the behavior style of the teacher as he acts as the director of learning.

1. Under the area of "interaction analysis" it was determined that direct teachers did not ask as many questions or accept as many ideas from students as did the indirect teachers. Direct teachers gave more criticism and more directions than indirect teachers.
2. Under the area of achievement of students it was found that classes taught by indirect teachers did not achieve significantly different from the classes taught by direct teachers. Girls did make greater gains in achievement than did boys regardless of the behavioral style of the teacher.[38]

The teacher's role of planner and integrator was pointed out by Glovetski. In determining behavior styles of teachers that high school students preferred, he used Getzel's theory and the Episode Situation Instrument, so that

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[38]Hiram Irving Hastings, Jr., "A Study of the Relationship Between Teacher-Pupil Verbal Interaction and Pupil Achievement in Elementary School Science," (unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Oregon, 1970).

student-teacher and student-administrator relationships in the school setting could be investigated. Two conclusions of the study strongly related to the interaction between the pupil and the teacher.

1. Students had a direct interest in the policy decisions made by the teachers and administrators. Students felt that those decisions must be based on the goals of the organization and a concern for the individual.
2. Since students, teachers, and parents had different preferences, ways must be identified so that conflict situations may be reduced. Possibly conflict situations may be reduced by scheduling pupils and teachers together that have similar behavior norm patterns.[39]

Nottingham described student involvement in several California high schools. His purpose was twofold: (1) to determine the actual amount of student involvement in both governance and curriculum development and (2) to determine the desirability of student involvement in both governance and curriculum development. His conclusions strongly imply one of the teacher's basic roles, planning.

1. Administrators, teachers, and students agreed that it was desirable to have student involvement in both governance and curriculum development.

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[39]Ronald John Glovetski, "A Study of Teacher-Pupil Interaction Utilizing Role Perception Conceptualizations of Getzel's Social Process Model," (unpublished doctoral dissertation, Illinois State University, 1971).

2. Administrators, teachers, and students did not agree on the actual amount of student involvement that was present in the two areas.
3. Better communication between administrators, teachers, and students would have functional consequences on student involvement.
4. The literature linked the amount of students' involvement and the potential for student unrest.
5. Although student involvement in faculty meetings was identified as being desirable, in practice it was infrequent.
6. Student feedback in the areas of teacher effectiveness and course content was not formally practiced in the schools sampled.
7. Grade restrictions limited participation by some students in school governance.[40]

Focusing on elementary students in selected schools, Tychsen compared the effects of an individualized instructional technique, student-paced instruction, with a traditional instructional technique, teacher-paced instruction, to determine the effects that each technique would have on student attitude toward mathematics and on student achievement.

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[40]Marvin Aubrey Nottingham, "Student Involvement in Governance and Curriculum Development in Selected California High Schools," (unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Southern California, 1971).

Students using self-pacing received no formal instruction, whereas the teacher-paced students were exposed to formal instructional techniques. The self-paced students were allowed to proceed at their own rate. Tychsen concluded that student-paced instruction was as effective as teacher-paced instruction regarding mathematical achievement and attitude toward math. Tychsen's study showed that the teacher can perform the role of learning director by using various instructional techniques.[41]

According to Yingling, the literature and data from his study supported the fact that educators accept the concept of student involvement in curriculum development in theory, but not in practice. The value of student involvement in curriculum development can be assessed if:

1. The goals and purposes of student involvement in curriculum development are identified;
2. Boards of education realize that student involvement is not total student control of the school; and
3. The staff, the students, and the community are reflected in the curriculum.[42]

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[41]Alfred Balmer Tychsen, "An Experimental Comparison of Teacher-Paced Instruction and Student-Paced Instruction in the Teaching of Mathematics in the Public Elementary Schools in Greenwich, Connecticut," (unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Connecticut, 1971).

[42]Walter Stanford Yingling, Jr., "A Study of Student Involvement in Curriculum Development in Selected High Schools," (unpublished doctoral dissertation, Kent State University, 1971).

Hill cast the teacher in the role of change agent. Teachers should investigate and practice the manipulation of people other than students. Elaborating on the need of teachers to act as change agents, Hill stated:

> Nearly all literature discussing change in the public schools assumes a vertical, authoritarian organization with both the intent and execution of change coming from the administration. Teachers are cast, not only in a passive role, but frequently in the role of active obstructionists.[43]

In May of the same year Craig dealt with the role of planning that every teacher must assume. Pointing out that teachers need to do their homework in the same manner that students do, Craig criticized the teachers that do not plan. Planning is essential to teaching.[44]

The teacher serves in the roles of director of learning and as disciplinarian as he controls the classroom structure. In a study that investigated how teachers felt about classroom control, Archambault found that the literature revealed two things about classroom control: (1) autocratic and closed procedures were in common practice in American schools and (2) more open and democratic classroom procedures were needed. His study revealed that many teachers supported both open and closed classroom procedures and attitudes depending on

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[43]Charles H. Hill, "Teachers as Change Agents," Clearing House, XXXXV (March, 1971), p. 424.

[44]David Craig, "Students Aren't the Only People Who Don't Do Their Homework," School and Community, CVII (May, 1971), p. 33.

the situation at hand. Several comments were made on both types of teachers.

1. Teachers that were open in their attitudes on the control of the classroom viewed themselves as: promoters of individual education, facilitators of learning, acceptors of student needs and interests, and sharers of decisions that affect the classroom.
2. Teachers that were closed in their attitudes on the control of the classroom viewed themselves as: transmitters of norms, disciplinarians, standard setters, and learning directors.

A key point in this study was the influence that the individual student should have on his own education.[45]

The teacher has a major responsibility to act as an integrator of student needs in the learning situation. In his study dealing with interests of adolescent students and instructional decision, Bartoo discussed the importance of designing the curriculum around the needs and interests of the learners. In concluding his study, Bartoo had this to say about student choice and attending to the interests of students:

> The equivalence between student choice and attending to student interests is questionable. The teachers' unwillingness to intervene in the

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[45]Phillip Noel Archambault, "The Identification of Teacher Attitude Patterns Regarding Classroom Control," (unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Arizona, 1972).

> situations where students were involved in making decisions regarding identifying interests, selecting objectives, and selecting individual activities resulted in lost opportunities for rich learning experiences. Teachers need in-service help in building competencies in working with individual learners in these types of situations.[46]

The teacher can often affect student learning as learning director by the vehicles that he employs. Dawson was concerned with instructional preferences that certain students made after having been exposed to individualized instruction. After three years of individualized junior high science instruction, selected tenth graders were interviewed to determine whether they preferred individualized instruction or group-centered science instruction. Most of the students interviewed stated that they preferred the individualized technique of instruction. The environment created by individualized instruction satisfied the students' need for autonomy in making decisions about the pace of their instruction.[47]

A great amount of research has been conducted that deals with the concept of humanizing education. Using the terms confluent education and humanistic education as synonyms, Hubbard dealt with the theory and practice of confluent education. In confluent education, the teacher has

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[46]Eugene Chester Bartoo, "Instructional Decisions Related to the Interests of Emerging Adolescents," (unpublished doctoral dissertation, State University of New York at Buffalo, 1972).

[47]Allan Dean Dawson, "The Instructional Preferences of Students Who Enroll in a Conventional Biology Course After Taking an Individualized Junior High School Science Course (ISCS)," (unpublished doctoral dissertation, Florida State University, 1972).

the responsibility of structuring learning experiences that actively integrate the cognitive and affective segments of the student. The teacher performs his role of facilitator by identifying student needs and by reacting to students in an authentic manner. Basic to performing the role of facilitator is understanding the theory behind confluent education. Hubbard identified several theoretical foundations of confluent education.

1. Confluent education stems directly from humanistic psychology which assumes that students strive toward healthy psychological growth.
2. Confluent education is dedicated to satisfying several goals: (a) to aid pupils in being open to their own experiences; (b) to make learning meaningful and significant to pupils; and (c) to aid pupils in their growth toward self-actualization.
3. Confluent education requires that both the cognitive and affective domains of the pupils are reached. The affective domain is reached when pupils are open to their feelings and can express their feelings. As pupils learn to regulate their feelings, they facilitate their own learning.[48]

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[48]Russell Sturgis Hubbard, Jr., "Confluent Education: Theory and Practice," (unpublished doctoral dissertation, Claremont Graduate School, 1972).

A primary role of the teacher is that of environmental manipulator. In her study dealing with open classroom environments, Taylor centered her investigation on two areas: (1) the description of open classroom environments and (2) the role of the teacher in creating and keeping this type of classroom environment. The open classroom environment was characterized by more teacher-student and student-student interaction than was present in more closed environments. Teachers in such an environment should manipulate the environment so that both the cognitive and affective domains of the pupils will be involved in the instructional process. To be effective in an open classroom environment, the teacher must be receptive to student needs and aware of informal teaching techniques.[49]

Student needs can be integrated into organizational needs by the teacher. Barnes hypothesized that cognitive achievement was related to the satisfaction of personal needs in students. In his study involving ninth grade students in a midwestern junior high school, Barnes measured four needs of students: (1) membership, (2) security, (3) participation, and (4) recognition. It was found that participation and recognition were satisfied in school environments, but membership and security needs were not satisfied. The satisfaction of needs and academic achievement were related in this study. Since all personal needs are

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[49]Ann Baldwin Taylor, "A Study of Open Classroom Environments in Early Childhood Education and Implications for Teacher Education," (unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Pittsburgh, 1972).

not satisfied in schools, Barnes asserted that educators should plan curricular experiences that would satisfy student needs.[50]

The type and amount of interaction that the teacher directs toward students often determines the teacher's effectiveness as a motivator. While dealing with student-teacher interaction, Frizzi discussed the behavior of effective teachers. Teachers that were effective in their interaction with students: (1) initiated more encouragement toward students; (2) generally used less criticism; (3) were inclined to give lectures less; (4) were inclined to give less directives; (5) accepted student ideas and attended to student needs; and (6) permitted a greater amount of unsolicited talk by students. Ineffective teachers used more direct behavior in motivating and controlling students.[51]

Student achievement has been linked with many factors, one of which is the relationship that the student has with the teacher. The quality of the relationship between the student and the teacher through verbal interaction was the concern of Ryan in his recent study. Students that viewed

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[50]Joel Thomas Barnes, "Satisfaction of Needs Dispositions of Selected Classifications of Students as Related to Cognitive Achievement," (unpublished doctoral dissertation, Purdue University, 1972).

[51]Richard John Frizzi, "A Comparative Analysis of Student-Teacher Interaction During Episodes of Classroom Reading Instruction," (unpublished doctoral dissertation, Hofstra University, 1972).

teachers as having strong student-teacher interpersonal relationships stated that these teachers based classroom verbal interaction on student ideas, whereas teachers having weak student-teacher interpersonal relationships did not base classroom verbal interaction on student ideas.[52]

Many studies have been conducted to determine academic achievement of students that conduct their own learning. One such study, conducted by Reel, investigated if selected fifth and sixth graders could achieve as well by self-direction in an open classroom as students that were not self-directive. She found that there was no significant difference in academic achievement between self-paced and teacher-paced groups. Reel concluded that the ability of the self-paced students to achieve as well as the traditional group may not have been a result of the two types of instruction, but it may have been the result of the self-paced group realizing that they were in an atmosphere that was free from the fear of being wrong.[53]

Greene identified several roles that the teacher should perform: planner, motivator, facilitator, and integrator. These roles are implied as is the fact that the learner is central in the learning process. Activities must be arranged to meet student needs and desires. Instruction

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[52]Joseph Francis Ryan, "The Association of Teacher-Student Interpersonal Relationship and Classroom Verbal Interaction," (unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Missouri-Columbia, 1972).

[53]Jane Ellen Reel, "Some Effects of Self-Directed Learning in an Open Elementary Classroom," (unpublished doctoral dissertation, United States International University, 1973).

is only effective when it is meaningful to the student involved. Greene was also concerned with the learning situation as it provided the individual with the opportunity to release creativity. He went on to say that the following segments of teacher education should be reevaluated: instructional strategies, curriculum interpretation and development, and behaviors that the teacher should exhibit. Greene further stated that:

> The facilitating teacher must be an integrated and aware individual, capable of helping students toward integration and awareness through an understanding of relationship, if maximum personal growth is to result.[54]

In performing the role of manipulator and facilitator of learning, the teacher can design activities that encourage students to evaluate and change their behavior. Garner focused on the effectiveness of student self-appraisal in the research study that he conducted with intermediate grade children. He concluded that:

1. Intermediate grade children are capable for self-appraisal of their behavior and can direct their behavior change in a positive direction.
2. Self-appraisal activities can promote change in self-concept in intermediate grade students.[55]

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[54]David Milton Greene, Jr., "The Role of Relationship and Awareness in Personal Group Education," (unpublished doctoral dissertation, Claremont Graduate School, 1973).

[55]Girolama Thomasina Garner, "Student Self Appraisal: A Technique to Modify Student Behavior," (unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Arizona, 1973).

The teacher has many roles in a nongraded situation. Patterson investigated these roles of the teacher; along with this investigation was a description of what the learner does in the high school nongraded situation. By using philosophical orientations, psychological orientations, and principles of nongrading, he described the learner and teacher in a nongraded high school.

1. The learner is viewed as an individual in the learning situation because of his unique combination of interests, needs, and abilities. He should be free to choose his program of study from alternative programs that are available to him, and be motivated in such a way so that his maximum learning potential will be developed. The learner learns best when the relationship between his personal needs and the subject matter is established. By possessing the final control in his learning process, the learner needs a successful background in learning to help him succeed in future learning situations. He has the freedom in the learning situation to be flexible as long as he does not infringe upon the freedom of others.
2. The teacher performs these roles in the nongraded high school situation: facilitator of the learning process, learning counselor, integrator

> of individual differences, decision-maker, and diagnostician. The teacher should assist students in choosing programs of study and be competent in a variety of teaching strategies.[56]

The teacher has the responsibility of creating the learning environment in such a way as to assure that student self-concepts, among other things, is achieved. In her study to investigate the relationship between academic self-concepts and classroom environment, House based her research on a previous study conducted by Walberg and Brookover. By involving ninth graders in selected Nebraska and Kansas junior and senior high schools of various sizes, House concluded that her findings supported the hypothesis that self-concepts of academic ability is a result of the perceptions that students have concerning the classroom environment.[57]

As the manipulator of the learning environment, the teacher can exert varying amounts of influence on the students. This influence can be either direct or indirect. Concerning himself with the relationship between indirect teacher influence and student achievement, Gardner developed

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[56]Jerry Lee Patterson, "The Nongraded High School: A Conceptual Model," (unpublished doctoral dissertation, Ohio University, 1973).

[57]Peggy A. House, "The Learning Environment as a Predictor of the Academic Self-Concepts of Ninth Grade Mathematics Students," (unpublished doctoral dissertation, Kansas State University, 1973).

his research around selected ninth grade students in the public schools of Acadia Parish in Louisiana. Academic areas included in the study were: science, social studies, arithmetic, reading, and language arts. Students that received a greater amount of indirect teacher influence scored significantly higher on post-tests than did students that received a less amount of indirect teacher influence in all of the academic areas except one, science.[58]

Part of the decision-making process that the teacher is involved in as a decision-maker is sharing the process with students. Perk dealt with the decision-making process as it related to students being able to decide on the instructional sequence of subjects in an individualized instructional situation. The results of the study concluded that student choice in sequence and instructional method selection was as viable for the learning situation as permitting the teacher to make the total selection without student involvement.[59]

THE LEADER

One major purpose of this study was to identify what roles the leader performs or is expected to perform. In

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[58]James Wise Gardner, "A Study of the Effect of Pupil-Teacher Interaction on Student Achievement," (unpublished doctoral dissertation, McNeese State University, 1973).

[59]Ronald Alan Perk, "Individualizing Instruction: The Effects of Student Choice of Sequence and Method of Instruction on the Performance of Specific Tasks," (unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Maryland, 1973).

order to identify roles of the leader, it was beneficial to identify the concept of leadership under acts of leadership, the process of leadership, and leadership situations. Selected literature on the concept of leadership preceeds literature on the roles of the leader.

Leadership may be viewed in terms of the influence that one has over others. According to Seeman and Morris, a leadership act results when one can influence others to act in a common direction. This description of leadership brings several things into focus: (1) the leader has to possess influence over others and (2) other persons, the followers, have to exist in a positional relationship to the leader in such a way so that they can be influenced.[60]

The influence that the leader has over others is a form of power. One other type of power, domination, can also be exercised to make others act in a common direction. The basic difference between domination and leadership is that while both influence others in a common direction, only the latter does so with voluntary compliance from the followers.[61]

One factor found in the process of leadership, then, is the leader. According to Selznick, a responsible leader:

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[60]M. Seeman and R. T. Morris, A Status Factor Approach to Leadership. (Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University Research Foundation, 1950), p. 1.

[61]C. Gibb, "Leadership," Handbook of Social Psychology, eds. G. Lindzey and E. Aronson. (Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, 1969), pp. 205-282.

1. Is able to harmonize his followers' energies and capacities;
2. Is able to gain the trust of his followers;
3. Is aware of his own abilities; and
4. Realizes and understands the abilities that are offered by his followers.[62]

When acting in a leadership role, the leader is often regarded as the force that is responsible for the success and effectiveness of the group, the followers. According to Katz and Kahn, the behavior of the leader is an important dimension of organizational success. Leadership is important to the organization because the organizational design does not define every situation and because the human element is present in organizations. The effectiveness of the organization and its members often rests on the initiative that is taken by the organizational leaders.[63]

Another factor involved in the process of leadership is the "others" that are led. "Others" can be defined as the followers, the group, and/or the group of followers. Proshansky and Seidenberg described a group in terms of what the group does for its individual members and for itself. Two or more persons in interaction constitute a group. These persons have some common values and beliefs. The relationship

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[62]P. Selznick, Leadership in Administration. (New York: Harper and Row, Inc., 1957), pp. 142-152.

[63]D. Katz and R. Kahn, The Social Psychology of Organizations. (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1966), pp. 300-302.

between individual group members exists in such a way that the behavior of an individual member exerts certain consequences on the other members. Individual and combined behaviors that result in functional consequences for the group facilitate group goal accomplishment.[64]

Leaders and followers are motivated to play their particular roles for various reasons. Hemphill asserted that one chooses to act in a leadership role because of his desire to lead. The leader expects predetermined returns from his act(s) of leadership. One such return is the satisfaction of his personal needs. Some personal needs may be satisfied by:

1. The group succeeding in goal accomplishment;
2. Receiving a high degree of satisfaction by goal accomplishment;
3. Being personally accepted by group members; and
4. Viewing goal accomplishment as a result of his leadership ability.[65]

Others have postulated the reason why people are motivated to lead. Cartwright and Zander stated that power and achievement needs may be satisfied by the leader when

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[64]H. Proshansky and B. Seidenberg, Basic Studies in Social Psychology. (New York: Holt, Rhinehart, and Winston, 1965), p. 377.

[65]J. K. Hemphill, "Why People Attempt to Lead," Leadership and Interpersonal Behavior. Petrullo and B. M. Bass, eds. (New York: Holt, Rhinehart, and Winston, 1961), pp. 201-215.

his influence over a group results in goal accomplishment.[66]

The follower is motivated to follow because of his particular needs. Gibb stated that followers often profit from the process of leadership. This follower-leader relationship serves to satisfy various personal needs of the follower(s).[67]

Termed generally under "role", the literature identified what is expected from the leader under various terms: roles, functions, expectations, tasks, duties, and responsibilities. Since leadership literature was not confined to any one particular area (e.g., industrial leadership), the researcher reviewed appropriate literature where the term "leader" was either used specifically or implied. The literature often used the following terms to be the same as leader : manager, administrator, and executive.

Projecting some of the ideas of Mary Parker Follett, Metcalf and Urwick stated that the administrator serves the role of integrator. The administrator becomes an integrator by identifying the interests and needs of three separate classes: (1) the consumer, (2) the investor, and (3) the worker.[68]

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[66]D. Cartwright and A. Zander, Group Dynamics (Second Edition). (New York: Row and Peterson, 1960), pp. 487-510.

[67]Gibb, op. cit.

[68]Henry C. Metcalf and L. Urwick, Dynamic Administration. (New York: Harper and Brothers Publishers, 1940), pp. 92-93.

Although the primary role of the administrator was that of being an integrator, the authors presented other functions of the chief executive. Some of these functions were:

1. Summarizer or clarifier of organizational purposes;
2. Catalyst in the organization that "makes" a situation happen instead of waiting to "meet" a situation when it happened;
3. Decision-maker for future needs based on logical conclusions; and
4. Educator and trainer.[69]

Frank stressed the importance of the interaction between the leader and individual group members. Since the efforts of the group depend largely on the motivation of the individual members, the leader has a certain role to play in this motivation. The leader must constantly help each individual feel self-worth and personal dignity. Failure of the leader to do this may result in dysfunctional consequences for the group.[70]

Malcolm and Hulda Knowles discussed several points in their book, How to Develop Better Leaders. Relying on research, they felt that leadership should focus on the group

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[69]Ibid., pp. 260-269.

[70]Lawrence K. Frank, How to Be a Modern Leader. (New York: Association Press, 1954), p. 47.

as a dynamic organism. Holding that leadership needs differ at different stages of group development, they saw the new role of the leader not as one of planner, thinker, and organizer for the group, but as trainer and coordinator. By helping the group direct itself, the leader does the following:

1. Establishes a good working environment;
2. Helps organize the group;
3. Helps the group establish its own procedures of operation;
4. Makes decision-making and its resultant responsibility rest with the entire group; and
5. Provides guidance in such a way that the group can learn from experience.[71]

According to Ross and Hendry the leader has a function that relates specifically to the relationship between individual group members. The leader is responsible for establishing an atmosphere that enables the group members to coordinate their efforts for goal achievement, regardless of their individual differences. They also stressed that the leader should help individual members be congenial and pleasant toward each other. Other functions that the leader is responsible for follow.

1. The leader should help the group achieve goals.

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[71]Malcolm and Hulda Knowles, How to Develop Better Leaders. (New York: Association Press, 1955), pp. 10-14.

2. The leader should be able to analyze the group so that goals are achieved.
3. The leader should facilitate communication between group members.
4. The leader should help the group establish its structure.
5. The leader should make sure that the philosophy of the group is implemented.
6. The leader should take the initiative to help the group process whenever he feels that it is necessary.[72]

Reflecting on the nature of leadership, Barnard stated that leadership is:

> ....the quality of the behavior of the individuals whereby they guide people or their activities or work in organized effort.[73]

Asserting that management and administration are important parts of leadership, Barnard divided the work of the leader into four areas: (1) establishment of objectives, (2) manipulation of resources, (3) coordinating and guiding organizational activity, and (4) stimulating this coordinated effort.[74]

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[72]Murray G. Ross and Charles E. Hendry, New Understandings of Leadership. (New York: Association Press, 1957), pp. 64-87.

[73]Chester I. Barnard, Organization and Management. (Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1962), p. 8.

[74]Ibid., pp. 85-91.

David Brown used the terms, manager and administrative leader, interchangeably.

> The term management...is the process by which organizational goals are set and achieved. The manager is an administrative leader occupying any of a variety of supervisory positions within the organization.[75]

According to Brown the manager has the following functions:

1. Development of objectives;
2. Development of purposes;
3. Setting appropriate frames of reference;
4. Forecasting;
5. Planning;
6. Arrangement of necessary financing;
7. Organizing;
8. Recruitment of personnel;
9. Development of personnel;
10. Coordination;
11. Informing;
12. Guiding;
13. Leading;
14. Auditing performance;
15. Evaluation and testing;

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[75]David Brown, Understanding the Management Function. (Washington, D.C.: Leadership Resources, Inc.,),p. 7.

16. Integrating;

17. Adjusting; and

18. Public relations.[76]

Concerning themselves with the leader and group effectiveness, Lippit and Seashore described two distinct functions that the leader was responsible for. The first function falls under the general area of task responsibilities. Task responsibilities are designed to help the group identify and solve problems. Specific leadership duties under this area include:

1. Initiating.

2. Information or opinion seeking.

3. Information or opinion giving.

4. Clarifying or elaborating.

5. Summarizing.

6. Consensus testing.[77]

The second function falls under maintenance responsibilities. Maintenance responsibilities are concerned with group cohesion so that the goal(s) may be reached. Leadership responsibilities in this area are:

1. Encouraging.

2. Expressing group feelings.

3. Harmonizing.

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[76]Ibid., p. 16.

[77]Gordon L. Lippitt and Edith Seashore, The Leader and Group Effectiveness. (New York: Association Press, 1966, Second Printing), p. 47.

4. Compromising.

5. Gate-keeping.

6. Setting Standards.[78]

In a monograph on leader self-development, Knowles disclosed that the leader should be able to do a number of things. Included in this list are: (1) organizational and group diagnosis; (2) identifying appropriate vehicles for goal attainment by planning; (3) using flexibility in leadership style to meet changing situations; (4) evaluating and learning from experiences; and (5) developing leadership abilities in organizational and/or group members.[79]

Schmidt asserted that one important role of the leader is that of decision-making with group involvement. By using a range of power behavior, the leader can choose the amount of freedom that he delegates to the group for their involvement in the decision-making process.[80]

In his book, A Theory of Leadership Effectiveness, Fiedler divided the functions of the leader into three general areas:

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[78] Ibid., p. 49.

[79] Malcolm S. Knowles, The Leader Looks at Self-Development. (Washington, D.C.: Leadership Resources, Inc., 1966), p. 6.

[80] Warren H. Schmidt, The Leader Looks at Styles of Leadership. (Washington, D.C.: Leadership Resources, Inc., 1966), pp. 2-3.

> ....(1) the leader as the coach and trainer of the group members or as the advisor and consultant; (2) the leader as the quasi-therapeutic, anxiety-reducing agent who gives emotional support and tension relief to his members; and finally (3) the leader as the supervisor, evaluator, or spokesman of the group.[81]

Drucker made a distinction between the executive and the manager. According to Drucker, the executive can influence degrees of authority over the direction of organizational performance, whereas the manager is simply a foreman or overseer of operations. One role that the executive performs is that of judge; this is based on the position of the executive in the decision-making process. Disclosing that the executive is the only one in the organization that makes important decisions, Drucker stressed the importance of making a sound decision based on a logical sequence of steps.[82]

Ritchie, in her survey of managerial attitudes, satisfactions, and decision-making, found that the manager's behavior has certain effects on subordinates' satisfaction. Subordinate satisfaction was found to be affected more by superior attitude than by participation in the decision-making process. She further found that the type of subordinate participation was more important than the amount of participation; employees seem to be more concerned with

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[81]Fred E. Fiedler, A Theory of Leadership Effectiveness. (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1967), p. 20.

[82]Peter F. Drucker, The Effective Executive. (New York: Harper and Row Publishers, 1967, Second Edition), p. 113.

having their recommendations enacted than they are with making recommendations frequently with no resultant action(s).[83]

In his review of social science research findings in the area of organizations and leadership, Wamsley interrelated information from the behavioral sciences and from school, military, public, church, hospital, and business administration. Wamsley asserted that certain themes were persistent in his review that have influenced administrative behavior in organizational settings. Some of the themes are:

1. That the leader needs to be aware that a satisfactory integration of individual and organizational goals can benefit both the individual members of the organization and the organization;
2. That the leader needs to be aware that individuals can perform at their maximum if the influence and utilization of power by their groups are realized the power of the group was found to be more influential on the individual than the power that results from the superior-subordinate relationship;
3. That the leader's primary role can be viewed in terms of group maintenance and the process of facilitating the interaction within the group; and

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[83]J. Bonnie Ritchie, "Managerial Attitudes and Leadership Behavior," (unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of California at Berkeley, 1968).

4. That the organization should strive to satisfy individual needs while it is accomplishing organizational tasks.[84]

Harrison identified several roles that the leader must assume.

1. The leader must be a communication source.
2. The leader must be a public relations agent.
3. The leader must be an organizer.
4. The leader must be a manipulator.
5. The leader must be a diagnostician.[85]

A leader may not be effective with all groups if he uses the same leadership style in all situations: he often finds that he has to alter his style of leadership to suit the situation. This idea was borne out by Wright in his study to determine if different leadership styles, leader-centered and group-centered, would have significant effects on: (1) the procedure of the group, (2) satisfaction of group members with a group product, and (3) social-emotional satisfaction of group members. After his experimental study was completed, Wright came to the conclusion that the

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[84]Raymond Duane Wamsley, "A Study of Research Findings from the Social Sciences Related to Organizations and Leadership," (unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Kansas, 1968).

[85]Raymond H. Harrison, Supervisory Leadership in Education. (New York: American Book Company, 1968), pp. 95-99.

leader, in his role of director of activities could have similar effects on group, procedure, satisfaction with the group product, and social-emotional satisfaction of group members when he varied his leadership style.[86]

The leader often has to function as an integrator of organizational goals and of informal group goals. Informal groups, group relationships not sanctioned by the formal organizational structure, can often have varying effects on the organization. Formal leaders need to be aware of informal groups so that they may become and remain functional segments of the organization. Focusing on the relationships between informal organizational groups and formal leader effectiveness, Hollingsworth wrote the following:

> ....that a majority of "excellent" leaders did perceive themselves as having some control over the informal organization but not necessarily a high degree of control. This was not the case for less effective leaders, the majority of whom perceived themselves as having no control over the informal organization. The excellent leader apparently does not perceive himself as relinquishing all control over this sector of the group, whereas the less effective leader may.[87]

The educational leader is cast in the role of manipulator in many situations. The influence that he

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[86]David William Wright, "A Comparative Study of Two Leadership Styles in Goal-Bound Group Discussions;" (unpublished doctoral dissertation, Wayne State University, 1969).

[87]Abner Thomas Hollingsworth, "Relationships Between the Informal Organization and the Effectiveness of Formal Leaders," (unpublished doctoral dissertation, Michigan State University, 1969).

exerts can have an effect on the morale of his followers. The leader's influence can also have an effect on other areas in the superior-subordinate relationship: job satisfaction and subordinate attitude toward the superior. If the leader is able to exert the type of influence that motivates his followers, then their attitude toward him will be favorable.[88]

Two concepts that constantly recur in the literature are initiating structure and consideration by the leader. Leadership behavior that stresses efficiency, organization, control, direction, and task achievement is viewed as initiating structure. Consideration is leadership behavior that is characterized by being sensitive to the opinions, ideas, feelings, and needs of the followers. In an experimental study to determine the effects of initiating structure and consideration on the educational growth of selected college students, Jabs designed and conducted his study whereby students were exposed to initiating structure, leader-centered behavior, and to consideration, group-centered behavior. Jabs concluded that for his study the initiating structure was superior leader behavior in terms of teaching course content. However, he concluded that consideration was superior in facilitating personality growth of the students. The two terms, initiating structure and consideration, point out two

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[88]Robert Grant Bradford, "Organizational Influence on Academic Leadership," (unpublished doctoral dissertation, Arizona State University, 1969).

of the leader's basic roles: director of organizational activities and integrator of individual needs.[89]

Weber and Peters, focusing on administrative decision-making, insisted that the manager is in a unique position because he can guide others and be guided by others. As a decision-maker, the manager approves and disapproves actions as they may relate to organizational goals. Weber and Peters asserted that the manager has both the responsibility and right either to accept or reject directives from his superior as a normal part of his decision-making process.[90]

One on-going role of a leader is that of public relations. Political leaders are especially concerned with fulfilling this role in both the election process and in their legislative activities. This concept was supported by Young in his study of presidential leadership and the civil rights legislation during the period 1963-1964. The study centered around the legislative efforts of Presidents Kennedy and Johnson. To gain support for civil rights legislation, both participated in the legislative process as public relations agents to gain support for civil rights

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[89]Max Lewis Jabs, "An Experimental Study of the Comparative Effects of Initiating Structure and Consideration Leadership on the Educational Growth of College Students," (unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Connecticut, 1969).

[90]C. Edward Weber and Gerald Peters, Management Action: Models of Administrative Decisions. (Scranton, Pennsylvania: International Textbook Company, 1969), p. 1.

proposals. In this function, certain public relations activities were prevalent: (1) presidential press conferences, (2) public addresses, (3) television and radio broadcasts, (4) Congressional addresses, and (5) personal conferences with influential publics.[91]

The leader is often responsible for organizational change. In many cases, change and adaptability of the organization is essential to its survival. The role of administrative leadership in organizational change was the primary concern of a study made by Dicle. He asserted that the ability of the organization to affect change is attributed largely to the leader's ability as a change agent. The effectiveness of the leader as a change agent can be linked to:

> ....the degree of congruence between leaders' perceived personality characteristics, management's philosophies, interpersonal competence, and those aspects which affect the entire organization.[92]

Dicle further asserted that the following conditions would render the leader ineffective as a change agent in the organizational setting: (1) incongruence between the leader's philosophy and the philosophy of management and

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[91]Roy Earl Young, "Presidential Leadership and Civil Rights Legislation, 1963-1964," (unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Texas at Austin, 1969).

[92]Ulku Dicle, "Action Research and Administrative Leadership," (unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Southern California, 1969).

(2) low interpersonal competence on the part of the leader. If the leader views change in the same manner that management does, then his ability to be an effective agent of change is increased.[93]

While focusing on the followers in the organization, Townsend advocated that the actions of leaders should be directed toward actions that benefit the followers. According to Townsend, all administrators are not leaders; the administrator becomes a leader when his followers continually perform in a superior manner.[94]

In discussing objectives, Townsend wrote that one important function of the leader was to make sure that the organization did not stray from objectives; Townsend stressed the importance of the leader making sure that objectives were understood by everyone in the organization. By concentrating only on objectives, the organization would be able to meet them.[95]

The role of the leader as that of integrator is readily seen in McKanna's study on informal student leaders. Although the study focused on the characteristics and attitudes of student leaders, the study gives major implications to the administrators, educational leaders, and their role as integrators. Understanding informal student

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[93] Ibid.

[94] Robert Townsend, Up the Organization. (Greenwich, Connecticut: Fawcett Publications, Inc., 1970), pp. 80-81.

[95] Ibid., pp. 111-112.

leaders' values and needs can aid the school leader in running a more comfortable operation. Informal student leaders often disrupt the normal functioning of the school. In McKanna's opinion, the energies of the disruptive student leaders could be put to better use in the school operation. The school administrator must have the insight to understand student needs and to motivate these students into more prosperous pursuits than school disruption. The administrator's tasks in dealing with informal student organization are: integration, motivation, and manipulation.[96]

In a case study of educational leadership in 1970, Bechtol analyzed the behaviors of educational leaders during a period of changeover of a graded school system to a nongraded system. The most important function of the educational leader in this case study was that of planner. During and after the implementation of the change, Bechtol stated that educational leaders at all levels (superintendent, director of project, and principals) were effective in making the changeover. This was due, according to Bechtol, to good planning.[97]

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[96]Robert Anthony McKanna, "Characteristics and Attitudes of High School Informal Student Leaders," (unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Missouri at Columbia, 1970).

[97]William M. Bechtol, "An Analysis of Educational Leadership in Developing a Nongraded School System: Case Study", (unpublished doctoral dissertation, Miami University, 1970).

Although organizations designate leaders, there is much evidence that informal leaders exist within the organization. These informal leaders gain their leadership by various means. In his doctoral study, Peterson identified three types of opinion leaders that are present in organizations:

1. Task opinion leaders that are responsible for influencing others in the completion of certain organizational tasks;
2. Organizational scuttlebut opinion leaders being in a position to influence others because of their access to important and/or confidential information; and
3. Personal guidance opinion leaders that influence others by giving advice in various areas.[98]

Heilman conducted a study that focused on the tasks of selected vocational education leaders. Although the subjects of the study were few in number, the study was comprehensive in that vocational education leaders were drawn from various high school and post-secondary institutions in twenty-eight states. According to Heilman, the vocational education leader is responsible for a variety of tasks: (1) researching, (2) supervising, (3) personnel development,

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[98]Brent Dan Peterson, "Differences Between Managers and Subordinates in Their Perceptions of Three Kinds of Opinion Leaders," (unpublished doctoral dissertation, Ohio University, 1970).

(4) planning, (5) promoting, (6) policy formulation, (7) counseling, and (8) budgeting.[99]

The leader performs the role of integrator and public relations agent at all levels of management: top, middle, and lower. In establishing certain leadership behaviors of managers in four occupations (general education, vocational education, industry, and the military), Moullette conducted an experiment that involved an equal proportion of the three levels of management and an equal number from each of the four occupations. Finding differences in the behaviors of the four occupations, the researcher stressed the importance of the behavior of all leaders in communications and human relations.[100]

Katz cited two major roles that the administrator assumes:

> ...an administrator is one who (a) directs the activities of other persons and (b) undertakes the responsibility of achieving certain objectives through these efforts.[101]

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[99]Casmer Franklin Heilman, "A Task Analysis of Selected Leaders in Vocational Education," (unpublished doctoral dissertation, Oregon State University, 1970).

[100]John Brinkley Moullette, "Selected Leadership Dimensions of Management Personnel in Vocational Education, General Education, Industry, and the Military," (unpublished doctoral dissertation, Rutgers University, The State University of New Jersey, 1970).

[101]Robert L. Katz, "Skills of an Effective Administrator," Developing Executive Leaders, eds. Edward C. Bursk and Timothy B. Blodgett. (Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1971), p. 56.

Katz further presented the following ideas as being necessary to successful administration.

1. The successful administrator must have the appropriate technical skill(s) necessary in occupying his position of responsibility.
2. The successful administrator must have human skills so that he may coordinate the efforts of the people that work for him.
3. The successful administrator must have the conceptual skill necessary to diagnose situations and be able to make decisions that will affect organizational growth.[102]

The implied roles of the administrator could be summarized from the Katz article as: (1) director of operations; (2) coordinator; (3) organizer and planner; and (4) decision-maker.

According to Knowles and Saxberg, the leader acts as a balancing point for the needs of the organization and the needs of the individuals in the organization. To maintain this balance, the leader has to perform several roles.

1. The leader has to be a catalyst. In this capacity he acts as the one in the organization that actively seeks and initiates both

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[102] Ibid., pp. 56-58.

communication and cooperation from members of the organization.

2. The leader has to be a change agent. In this role, the leader is obligated to make organizational changes based on the needs of both the organization and its members.[103]

Fendrock wrote about the manager's role as change agent. Using manager and leader as synonyms, he points out that social change is constant. He emphasized the importance of the business leader taking the role of initiator to keep his organization abreast with social change.[104]

Fendrock supported the notion that the manager should be a diplomat. In organizational disagreements, the manager should help search for solutions that are agreeable to both sides. He asserted that the manager's experience and insight are valuable aids in serving in this diplomatic role.[105]

Stogdill summarized his findings of various functions of the leader after an extensive literature review on leadership as:

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[103]Henry P. Knowles and Borje O. Saxberg, Personality and Leadership Behavior. (Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, 1971), p. 137.

[104]John J. Fendrock, Managing in Times of Radical Change. (New York: American Management Association, Inc., 1971), pp. 20-40.

[105]Ibid., p. 114.

> The traditional writers on management and administration maintain that the primary functions of leadership are planning, organizing, and controlling. Others maintain that coordination should be regarded as a major function....leaders do in fact perform these functions.[106]

Being unable to differentiate between the manager and the leader, Rice concluded that both the manager and the leader were involved with similar functions. First, both make decisions for their followers, whether or not follower coordination is obtained. Second, both are concerned with meeting organizational goals. Third, both are concerned with meeting these goals with motivated followers. Finally, both have to remain flexible so they may successfully make organizational changes at appropriate times.[107]

The principal of an elementary school is a leader when his behaviors are viewed as having a direct effect on the learning process. One behavior that the principal can assume to affect the learning process is that of manipulation. In his role as a manipulator of the learning environment, the principal can establish an atmosphere that encourages

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[106]Ralph M. Stogdill, Leadership: A Survey of Literature II. Characteristics, Attitudes, and Behavior Patterns. A Report. (Greensboro, North Carolina: Center for Creative Leadership, 1968), p. 163.

[107]A. K. Rice, Learning for Leadership. (London: Tavistock Publications, 1971, Second Printing), p. 20.

student motivation, use of materials, and desire to learn.[108]

Business leaders have the primary function of meeting some organizational task. However, their effectiveness in obtaining follower support has been linked to their sensitivity to the needs of their followers. Launey explored the behavior of business leaders in selected department stores to determine which behaviors were assumed by both effective and less effective store managers. He found that the most effective store managers were oriented more toward task accomplishment than toward being sensitive and considerate to others. Less effective managers placed more emphasis on sensitivity and consideration than on task accomplishment. Launey did not, however, describe the relative emphasis placed on the two behaviors. It was apparent from the study that when these two behaviors, task initiation and consideration, are practiced by managers, that the leader must perform at least two roles: director of activities and integrator.[109]

Miner analyzed management functions by the following writers: (1) Gross, (2) Massie, (3) Newman, Summer, and Warren, (4) Dale and Michelon, (5) Koontz and O'Donnel, (6) Johnson, Kast, and Rosenzweig, (7) Longnecker, (8) Voich

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[108]Louis De Angelis, "A Study of the Relationship Between the Executive Professional Leadership of the Elementary School Principal and School Learning Atmosphere," (unpublished doctoral dissertation, Boston University School of Education, 1971).

[109]George Volney Launey, III, "Some Perceived Leadership Attributes of Managers in Selected Department Stores," (unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Arkansas, 1971).

and Wren, and (9) Greenwood. By taking the functions that each writer formulated, Miner combined this list to include the following management functions: activating, administering, commanding, controlling, coordinating, communicating, decision-making, directing (including leading and motivating), evaluating, formulating purpose(s), innovating, investigating, planning, organizing, representing, securing efforts, and staffing.[110]

Miner concluded that some of these functions overlapped and that definitions of these functions were not universally accepted.[111]

A question asked often concerning organizations is, How can the organization improve its work quality and become more efficient? Among the many answers that have been formulated for this question, a popular one is that organizational leadership can improve the quality of work and improve the efficiency of the organization. Organizational leadership was the concern of Hobgood in his study concerning leadership in a selected county cooperative extension service. Leader behavior in this study affected employee satisfaction and improved employee performance. To obtain these results, the leader performed two major roles: (1) integrator as seen by his actions directed toward resolving conflicts and being sensitive to employee needs,

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[110]John B. Miner, Management Theory. (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1971), pp. 66-72.

[111]Ibid., p. 73.

and (2) decision-maker, as evidenced by the active recruitment and participation of followers in the decision-making process.[112]

In establishing a climate for change the leader performs certain related functions that aid in establishing such a climate. In a study conducted by Kirkpatrick, several roles were implied by the administrator's behavior in implementing organizational change.

1. The leader must perform the role of change agent as he attempts to initiate change. His attempt to initiate change is effective if his followers view his behavior as he does.
2. The leader must be a manipulator of the climate in which he wishes to make changes. His actions must be viewed by his followers so that the climate for change will be enhanced and understood.
3. The leader must set objectives. Followers must view the objectives as incorporating particular needs of those within the system as well as satisfying organizational needs.

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[112]Thomas Newton Hobgood, Jr., "An Inquiry into Administrative Leadership in the Cooperative Extension Service," (unpublished doctoral dissertation, Florida State University, 1971).

4. The leader must be an evaluator so that organizational change may be checked and analyzed so that maximum change will result.[113]

Egerton and Brown stressed that the chief executive should always be actively involved in organizational planning. The chief executive can be viewed as both an educator and evangelist in planning. Egerton and Brown wrote that this role:

> ....is characterized by such phrases as "creating a climate," "serving as a catalytic agent," "acting as the devil's advocate," "cultivating the proper attitude," "stimulating and encouraging unfettered thinking," "working tirelessly to have managers understand what planning is,"....[114]

The leader's effectiveness in performing these many roles is dependent on the style of leadership that he chooses. In his doctoral study on leadership style and adaptability, Warrick asserted that there is a need for situational leadership to be studied and conceptualized. He surveyed leadership literature in an attempt to determine which style of leadership had the best consequences regarding follower satisfaction and performance. He disagrees with the concept that democratic leaders are the only effective leaders.

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[113]Donald Lee Kirkpatrick, "A Study of the Leadership Process Involved in the Implementation of Organizational Change in Four Selected School Systems," (unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Michigan, 1971).

[114]Henry C. Egerton and James K. Brown, Planning and the Executive. (New York: The Conference Board, Inc., 1972), pp. 19-20.

The styles of leadership that Warrick included in his study were: democratic leaders, directive leaders, human relations leaders, and laissez faire leaders. His conclusions were:

1. Democratic leaders effected employee satisfaction to a more positive degree than did directive, human relations, or laissez faire leaders.
2. Leaders high in leadership adaptability had higher employee satisfaction than leaders with low leadership adaptability.
3. The concept of the democratic leader (or the hero-villain approach to leadership) should be evaluated in terms of the effect that a particular style of leadership has on employee satisfaction and performance. In short, no one particular style of leadership seems to be able to be appropriate for every type of situation. Leadership training should concentrate on situational leadership more than on a particular style for every situation.[115]

As a change agent, the elementary principal is involved in many activities that are designed to promote change. Some of these activities were determined in a

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[115]Donald Dean Warrick, "The Effect of Leadership Style and Adaptability on Employee Performance and Satisfaction," (unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Southern California, 1972).

study by Ingram in which he identified activities that effective principals participate in to induce change. Some of these activities were:

1. Actively seeking ideas of change and leadership;
2. Using study committees of staff members;
3. Offering workshops and conferences for teachers;
4. Identifying influential community publics and leaders;
5. Attended conferences and workshops away from the local school setting;
6. Integration of conflicting roles; and
7. Participation in public relations.[116]

One primary role that an educational leader has to fulfill is that of decision-maker. Costanzo asserted that the quality of decisions may rest on various factors, one of which is the amount of participation that the leader seeks in making the decision. Often followers are not satisfied with their nonparticipation in a decision if the decision may have effects upon them. In his study regarding the areas where the principal's followers liked to be included in the decision-making process, Costanzo identified some of these areas: (1) selection of teaching staff;

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[116]Ruben Lavelle Ingram, Jr., "The Leadership of Selected Public Elementary School Principals in Making Changes from Self-Contained Classroom Activities," (unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Southern California, 1972).

(2) in-service education program design; (3) formulation of regulations and rules; (4) curriculum improvement; (5) budget and program evaluation; (6) selection of para-professionals and vice-principals; and (7) introducing new teaching strategies. Costanzo indicated that there was a relationship between involvement in the decision-making process of the followers and the decision's effective implementation.[117]

A number of roles of the leader were identified in a study conducted by Brown. He identified the effective administrative behaviors of selected department chairmen in eight selected dental schools. While some of the roles may be distinct, the majority overlap and are interrelated to other roles listed.

1. The chairman should develop goals for the curriculum in his role of formulator of objectives.
2. The chairman performs the role of coordinator when he gains cooperative action from the teaching and service functions.
3. The chairman is an initiator as he induces others to experiment with new learning programs.
4. As a public relations agent, the chairman actively seeks understanding of his operation

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[117]Matthew William Costanzo, "Perceptions of the Roles and Functions of Philadelphia Public High School Principals as Expressed by the Principals and Other Members of the School Community," (unpublished doctoral dissertation, Columbia University, 1972).

by others which includes, among other functions, an orientation program for new faculty members and students.

5. The chairman is an integrator in that he settles disputes between faculty, patients, and students.
6. As a model of behavior the chairman conducts himself in such a way that his actions act as a standard for others to follow.[118]

Several roles of the educational leader were implied by Cole. In a study to determine how students, teachers, and administrators viewed the students' role in educational decision making, he asserted that teachers and administrators should determine the extent of the student's role in decision-making. His study involved randomly selected students, teachers, and administrators in Wisconsin high schools. He found that:

1. Students, teachers, and administrators felt that the amount of student involvement in educational decision-making should be increased over its present level.
2. The students in the study had only limited opportunity to participate in educational decision-making.

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[118]Mary Dunn Brown, "The Identification of Effective Administrative Behaviors of Dental School Department Chairmen," (unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Pittsburgh, 1972).

3. No relationship was found in the study between the amount of student unrest and the amount of student involvement in educational decision-making.
4. The school size had no effect on the perceptions that students, teachers, and administrators held in regard to student involvement in educational decision-making.
5. The traditional form of student involvement, the student council, was not an effective manner in which students could resolve their problems in school.[119]

Cole's study pointed out at least two roles that educational leaders should perform: decision-maker and integrator of needs. Cole concluded his study by pointing out that student involvement is best viewed as sharing of power, not relinquishing school control.[120]

Unionism in local government has been on the increase, a fact which has had a significant impact on the public leader's decision-making role. Public employees are constantly challenging their superior's right to make every decision that concerns their welfare. In a study conducted

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[119]James Edward Cole, "A Study of Student, Teacher, and Principal Perceptions of the High School Student's Role in Educational Decision-Making," (unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Wisconsin, 1972).

[120]Ibid.

in several municipalities in Wisconsin, Donnelly asserted that participation of public employees was a variable that should be considered in the decision-making process.[121]

As a decision-maker, the leader has to focus on variables that have an effect on the decision. The decision should be operational. One variable that has received little attention in the decision-making process is the beliefs held by the decision-maker. The values of the decision-maker affect the decision. According to Rowe, it is important that the decision-maker realize his own values and beliefs when he is involved in the decision-making process.[122]

Organizational factors have effects on successful group and project performance. In a study concerned with certain organizational factors and group effectiveness, Amspoker directed some of his attention to the role of the leader in influencing organizational factors. Part of manipulation of organizational factors can be directly related to the ability of the leader to communicate organizational goals effectively to the group. Amspoker suggested

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[121]John Thomas Donnelly, "An Analysis of Union Involvement in Managerial Decision-Making in Selected Municipalities in the State of Wisconsin," (unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Iowa, 1973).

[122]William David Rowe, "Decision-Making with Uncertain Utility Functions," (unpublished doctoral dissertation, The American University, 1973).

that groups could achieve organizational tasks better if they knew exactly what was required to accomplish the tasks.[123]

ANDRAGOGY

One way to describe the term andragogy is to identify what it is not. According to Knowles andragogy is in direct contrast to the term pedagogy. Pedagogy is often defined as the art or science of teaching, but the original meaning of pedagogy, taken from its Greek root words, means leading children or teaching children.

Knowles pointed out that the body of knowledge concerning what is known about learning has evolved from research studies involving children and animals. Also, most of the knowledge that is known about teaching came directly from teaching children that were bound to compulsory school attendance.

Andragogy, on the other hand, stems from the Greek root, man. Andragogy has been used in Europe and Canada for a number of years to mean the art or science of teaching adult, not children, learners. Knowles continued to define and distinguish between pedagogy and andragogy by

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[123]Robert Dwight Amspoker, "Organizational Factors Related to Operations Research Project Group Effectiveness," (unpublished doctoral dissertation, Kent State University, 1973).

stating that: (1) pedagogy is the art/science of teaching children, and (2) andragogy is the art/science of teaching adults or adult learners.[124]

When used in education, andragogy is often used as a synonym to adult education. Houle stated in 1972 that andragogy "...is taken to indicate the practice of adult education, the theory of adult education, or both."[125]

A second way of describing the term andragogy is to identify its synonym, adult education. Morgan, Holmes, and Bundy claimed that adult education is a learning situation designed for adults rather than children. The purposes or objectives of adult education can be viewed as:

> Citizenship, moral and spiritual values, health, safety, personal culture, leisure-time activities, economic efficiency, vocational training, guidance, homemaking, and the tools and techniques of learning.[126]

In his book describing the community college student, Koos stated that a substantial proportion of community college students are adults. They are enrolled in full-time, part-time,

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[124]Knowles, Malcolm S., The Modern Practice of Adult Education: Andragogy Versus Pedagogy. (New York: Association Press, 1971), Second Printing), pp. 37-39.

[125]Houle, Cyril O., The Design of Education. (San Francisco: Jossey-Boss, Inc., Publishers, 1972), p. 242.

[126]Barton Morgan, Gleen E. Holmes, and Clarence Bundy, Methods in Adult Education. (Danville, Illinois: The Interstate Printers and Publishers, Inc., 1960), p. 13.

and evening programs. Although the adult student enrolls in a community college course for many reasons, almost half enroll from economic motivations. They enroll in single courses or in courses leading to a degree.[127]

Basic to the philosophical setting of andragogy is the difference between adults and children, and, thus, the difference in the way that each should be taught. Dealing with the area of learning, Miller stated that there are important differences between the child and adult that should concern the educator. Of utmost importance is the realization that the two differ in backgrounds, experiences, and aspirations. Miller asserted that the adult is not willing to accept learning unless he can place it in perspective with his own experiences and needs. The child, on the other hand, believes almost anything in the learning situation up to a certain age or grade level.[128]

Kidd wrote on some differences between the child and adult learner. He determined that the answer given to the child and adult were viewed in an entirely different manner. The child often looks for the "right" answer to a given problem. This answer can come either from the teacher or from the back of the textbook. The adult, however, does not

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[127]Leonard V. Koos, The Community College Student. (Gainsville, Florida: University of Florida Press, 1970), pp. 385-427.

[128]Harry L. Miller, Teaching and Learning in Adult Education. (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1964), pp. 2-6.

see one answer as the "right" answer but merely as a solution to a particular problem. Several answers may, in fact, suit the adult if these answers solve the problem correctly.[129]

According to Bergevin, adults and children have different educational problems. Two of these problems stem from the adult view of time and from the motivation of adults. The time perspective is different for the adult because he sees learning as a way to solve a problem immediately. Motivation for adults often stems from the emphasis that is placed on vocational skills and, thus, social status that accompanies these skills. Bergevin asserted that adults may have problems in the learning environment because they resent authority, and they sometimes feel inadequate because of their fear of failure.[130]

In a monograph, "The Leader Looks at the Learning Climate," Knowles pointed out differences between the way that children learn and the way that adults learn. He bases this on the following differences.

1. Self-Concept. Children view themselves as being dependent on adults. This dependence is evidenced by the fact that children rely on adults for the major decisions that affect their lives and

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[129]J. R. Kidd, How Adults Learn. (New York: Association Press, 1959), pp. 37-39.

[130]Paul Bergevin, A Philosophy for Adult Education. (New York: The Seabury Press, 1967), pp. 118-123.

futures. In the school setting children view their role as a passive one because of their dependence on adults for their learning. Children assume that adults have already decided what **should** be taught.

Adults do not view themselves as dependent on others for making important decisions for them. Adults view themselves as being self-directing: both responsible and independent enough to make the decisions that affect their future. Because adults feel self-directing and self-responsible, they have deep psychological needs to be treated with respect. Adults generally resist being treated like children in any situation, including a learning situation. A learning environment that embarrasses and punishes adults is not as effective as one that does not.

In an adult learning environment, these factors are present. One, there is an environment of mutual respect between the instructor and the learners. Second, adult learners are actively involved in establishing their individual learning needs. Third, adult learners are capable of conducting and planning a major portion of their learning experiences. Finally, adult learners are capable of evaluating their own progress.

2. Experience. Not only do adults have more experience than children, but they have a wider variety of experience than children. Some of these experiences include married life, military service, dependents, and civic responsibilities. Because of this wide range of experience, adults have a better frame of reference for new learnings than do children.
3. Learning Readiness. Both adults and children are "ready" to learn based on their realized need to acquire a development task. A developmental task is a task that is needed to move from one step of social development to the next. When the learner sees the need to acquire this move upward, he has the "readiness to learn." In many cases, the adult's learning readiness is greater because he places a great amount of emphasis on acquiring a particular development task, one which could often mean economic gain.
4. Time perspective. Children often view learning as building a reservoir of knowledge for later use. This postponed application is not immediate in nature, and the child generally views learning as subject-centered. The time perspective for the adult is more immediate. Adults view

learning generally as problem-centered: their learning should yield immediate application to immediate problems.[131]

Knowles further asserted that planning for andragogy should include the following areas.

1. The establishment of a climate conducive to adult learning.
2. The creation of an organizational structure for participative planning.
3. The diagnosis of needs for learning.
4. The formulation of directions of learning (objectives).
5. The development of a design of activities.
6. The operation of the activities.
7. The rediagnosis of needs for learning (evaluation).[132]

In conclusion, this chapter reviewed certain concepts. These concepts included the role of the teacher, the role of the leader, and the general characteristics of andragogy. A summary of the literature is not made here; such a summary is one of the purposes of the following chapter.

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[131]Malcolm S. Knowles, The Leader Looks at the Learning Climate. (Washington, D.C.: Leadership Resources, Inc., 1966), pp. 6-14.

[132]Knowles, op. cit., p. 54. (Reference to source used in footnote 124.)

CHAPTER III

IMPLICATIONS FROM THE LITERATURE

This chapter is a transitional one in that it: (1) summarizes and makes implications from major concepts presented in CHAPTER II, and (2) sets the tone for the in-service education model presented in the next chapter. This chapter is divided into seven sections:* (1) the teacher, (2) the leader, (3) similar roles, (4) overlapping roles, (5) teaching as leadership, (6) knowledges required, and (7) a conclusion.

THE TEACHER

The review of the role of the teacher revealed many roles that the teacher performs or is expected to perform. All authors reviewed did not agree on all roles, but the majority of them did agree on certain roles. Some of the roles had the same basic definition, but terms used to identify these roles varied. The review made it possible for the roles to be summarized and defined so that the roles could be classified.

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*Since the first two sections of this chapter summarizes the review of the preceeding chapter, references to authors are not cited.

The Teacher as a Subject Expert

This role was identified by many writers in the following manner.

1. Inlow: academic leader;
2. Lewis: subject matter expert;
3. Van Norman: subject expert; and
4. Lipson: intellectual role.

This role is basic to teachers. For teachers that are concerned with a particular discipline, this role is satisfied when the particular discipline is known in depth. Related disciplines are known to the point where they can be placed in perspective with the discipline. The above definition would apply to all teachers that have chosen one discipline as their specialty. For teachers that teach a combination of courses, the role would imply that the disciplines concerned would be known so that basic concepts would be comprehended and so the relationships of these courses are understood.

The Teacher as a Model of Behavior

This role was popular among the writers reviewed. They identified this role in the following manner.

1. Inlow: citizenship role;
2. Burrup: community leader;
3. Van Norman: model of good behavior;
4. Lipson: behavior model; and
5. Wiley: substitute parent.

This role is expected of teachers because they are, in a sense, public officials. The community compensates the teacher and expects the teacher to have a 'good' influence over students. Since students are directly and indirectly influenced by their teachers, teachers are encouraged to be models of good behavior.

The Teacher as a Professional Member

Although much has been written in the area of professionalism, only two writers identified the role of the professional directly: Inlow and Burrup. Being a professional member includes membership in the professional environment in which the teacher belongs. This implies that the teacher should belong to local, state, and national organizations that relate to his teaching position and to his welfare. Both writers strongly indicated that the teacher should be an active professional so that the interests of education, in general, would be promoted.

The Teacher as a Guidance Worker

This role was identified by most of the writers in the review. Some variation of the term, guidance worker, was noted.

1. Alexander and Saylor: the guide of human growth and experience;
2. Gordon: the guidance function;
3. Parrish and Waskin: consultant, confidant and advisor, and friend;
4. Inlow: guidance role;

5. Richey: guidance role;
6. Lewis: guidance;
7. Grams: guidance worker;
8. Burrup: counselor and guidance worker;
9. Adams and Garrett: counselor;
10. Lipson: actor and reactor to student behavior;
11. Wiley: confidant;
12. Albert: counselor or guidance worker; and
13. Patterson: learning counselor.

The Teacher as an Administrator

Although a basic role to the teacher, only two writers reviewed included this role in their works: Inlow; and Heald and Moore. The administrative functions that the teacher performs is in addition to the instructional phase of teaching. Administrative functions include: record keeping, reporting, ordering, and making requisitions.

The Teacher as a Disciplinarian

Although implied by the majority of the writers in reference to controlling the learning atmosphere, only Hall and Wiley directly stated that the teacher is a disciplinarian. This role is intended for controlling the amount of deviance from normal classroom behavior.

The Teacher as a Public Relations Agent

Seeing the need for performing this role, several writers commented on the teacher's role in the system's total public relations program.

1. Peters: human relations;
2. Lewis: human relations agent;
3. Burrup: public relations agent; and
4. McCloskey: public relations function.

Performing this role involves inducing and encouraging public understanding of the role of the school. The teacher is in a unique position to develop this understanding because of the daily contact with students and the frequent contacts with parents and the community. Included in public relations is the internal facet which deals with keeping those with whom one works informed of various activities.

The Teacher as a Learning Director

This role was agreed on by almost all of the writers. Although they disagreed on the terms and the method, they did agree on the function of the role.

1. Burrup: director of learning;
2. Van Norman: disperser of knowledge, director of learning;
3. Harrison: mediator of the learning process;
4. Lipson: facilitator, manager of the instructional process;
5. Dible: integrator of knowledge;
6. Wiley: purveyor of knowledge;
7. Lindvall and Bolvin: controller of learning;

8. Fireder: director of learning;
9. Hubbard: facilitator;
10. Patterson: facilitator of the learning process; and
11. Haught, Hastings, Tychsen, Archambault, Dawson, Reel, Greene, and Garner implied either facilitator or director of the learning process.

This role was viewed by many as the primary job of the teacher. It consists of transmitting prescribed learnings to the student. Viewed in another manner, the learning director directs the activities of the students so that they will carry out and reach the objectives of the school.

The Teacher as a Manipulator

Closely related to many of the teacher's roles is the role of manipulation. The following writers discussed manipulation.

1. Heald and Moore: environmental manipulator;
2. Wiley: manager or manipulator of the learning environment;
3. House: creating a learning environment; and
4. Hill, Dawson, Taylor, Garner, and Gardner implied either the manipulator of the learning environment or environmental manipulator.

The Teacher as a Motivator

Several writers agreed on the role of the teacher as being that of motivator.

1. Heald and Moore: motivator;
2. Adams and Garrett: promoter;
3. Lipson: catalyst;
4. Frieder: motivation agent; and
5. Haught, Frizzi, Ryan, and Greene implied motivator.

Research has linked motivation to learning. The teacher has the responsibility of motivating students in the learning process.

The Teacher as an Agent of Change

Feeling that change is constant, several writers defined one of the roles of the teacher as that of being an agent of change.

1. Meyer: creative agent of change; and
2. Hill: change agent.

This role consists of changing the educational system to keep instruction abreast of the changes in society. Basic to being a successful change agent is knowing what needs to be changed, how to change it, and how to evaluate the changes in terms of functional consequences.

The Teacher as a Planner

All writers either mentioned or implied the role of planning as an essential element of successful teaching. Those discussing planning that made forceful points on its

importance were: Harnack, Adams and Garrett, Ferguson, Craig, Burchell, Glovetski, and Patterson. Planning is viewed as the process by which objectives are met. In short, the planning process involves: (1) identifying objectives, (2) identifying needs, and (3) choosing vehicles by which organizational objectives can be accomplished. The review identified planning as one of the most important roles of the teacher.

The Teacher as a Decision-Maker

Closely related to the role of planning is that of decision-making. Decision-making is a daily role of the teacher that has to be based on a logical sequence of steps. Writers that dealt directly with the role of decision-making were: Lipson, Harnack, Patterson, and Berk.

The Teacher as an Integrator

Recent Research Studies have pointed out the importance of this role of the teacher.

1. Glovetski: integrator;
2. Bartoo: integrator;
3. Barnes: integrator;
4. Patterson: integrator of individual differences; and
5. Greene: implied integration.

As an integrator the teacher is sensitive to the differing needs and demands of the students and of the school.

The teacher attempts to resolve these differences in such a way as to accommodate both school and student needs.

In summary of this section, the various roles that the teacher either performs or is expected to perform are: (1) subject expert; (2) model of behavior; (3) professional member; (4) guidance worker; (5) administrator; (6) disciplinarian; (7) public relations agent; (8) learning director; (9) manipulator; (10) motivator; (11) agent of change; (12) planner; (13) decision-maker; and (14) integrator.

THE LEADER

There are many roles that the leader either performs or is expected to perform. The literature used several terms interchangeably with the word leader: manager, administrator, and executive. It was found that the leader does perform roles basic to the manager. Leadership, however, involves more than management functions. Leadership seems to include two concepts that were not always identified with management; concern for others, and initiation. Roles of the leader, including management functions, are reviewed next.

The Leader as Coordinator

The role of coordinator is a basic role of the leader. Writers, however, did not completely agree on the term, but they did agree on the function and necessity of the role. The term "integrator" was often used synonymously with the term "coordinator." Writers identified the role of the coordinator as follows.

1. Metcalf and Urwick (on Follett): integrator, summarizer, and clarifier;
2. Malcolm and Hulda Knowles: coordinator;
3. Ross and Hendry: coordinator of the environment;
4. Lippit and Seashore: maintenance functions;
5. Katz: coordinator;
6. Knowles and Saxburg: organizational coordinator;
7. Stogdill and Miner: coordinator (in summarizing their reviews);
8. Ritchie: integrator of ideas;
9. Wamsley: integrator of needs; and
10. Hollingsworth, Jabs, McKanna, Moullette, Launey, Hobgood, Kirkpatrick, Brown, and Cole implied the function of integrating.

Coordination (integration) can be viewed in terms of: (1) balancing the efforts of the organization so that organizational objectives may be reached and (2) satisfying individual (follower) needs while meeting the organizational needs.

The Leader as Motivator

A number of writers viewed motivation as a basic role of the leader.

1. Metcalf and Urwick (on Follett): catalyst;
2. Frank: motivator;
3. Fiedler: supporter;

4. Knowles and Saxburg: catalyst;
5. Fendrock: initiator;
6. Rice: motivator;
7. Miner: motivator (in summarizing his review); and
8. Bradford and McKanna: implied motivator in their studies.

One role that is expected of the leader is that he reach organizational objectives. Many writers feel that this can be done best with motivated employees by making them "want" to reach organizational objectives.

The Leader as an Agent of Change

The following writers felt that a major responsibility of the leader was to perform the role of change agent within the organization.

1. Knowles and Saxburg: change agent;
2. Fendrock: agent of change;
3. Rice: change agent;
4. Dicle: change agent;
5. Kirkpatrick: agent of change; and
6. Ingram: change agent.

Performing the role of change agent would be demonstrated by the leader: (1) recognizing what needed to be changed; (2) knowing how to change it; and (3) changing it.

The Leader as a Director of Activities

Viewed as the primary role of the leader by many writers, this role was termed in various ways.

1. Barnard: guide or director of effort;
2. Brown: achieving organizational goals;
3. Fiedler: supervisor of activities;
4. Townsend: director of organizational goal accomplishment;
5. Katz: director of activities;
6. Rice: meeting organizational objectives;
7. Miner: director (summarizing his review);
8. Peterson: tasks leaders; and
9. Wright, Jabs, and Launey implied director of activities in their studies.

The director of activities is performed by the organizational member charged with that responsibility, the leader. As the primary role of the leader, this role has to be performed successfully so the organization can survive.

The Leader as a Planner

Implied by all writers, planning was viewed as a basic part of the leader's responsibilities. Some writers termed planning in various ways.

1. Brown: setting goals;
2. Knowles: organizer and diagnostician;
3. Harrison: organizer and diagnostician;

4. Katz: organizer and planner;
5. Stogdill: planner, organizer (in his review);
6. Miner: planner (summarizing his review);
7. Egerton and Brown: planner;
8. Bechtol: planner; and
9. Heilman: planner.

Planning is closely related to the role of director of activities. Without proper planning on the part of the leader, there would be no activities to direct. Planning can be seen in terms of diagnosing needs and objectives and determining the possible routes to employ so that these needs and objectives will be satisfied.

The Leader as a Decision-Maker

Making decisions is a daily role that the leader performs. Some writers felt that the fewer decisions made the better, but all writers felt that decision-making was essential to the leader. Some writers stressed participatory decision-making more than others.

1. Schmidt: director of group decision-making;
2. Drucker: decision-making;
3. Weber and Peters: decision-maker;
4. Katz: making decisions;
5. Rice: decision-making;
6. Miner: making decisions (in summarizing his review);
7. Rowe: decision-maker;

8. Hobgood: decision-maker;
9. Costanzo: making decisions; and
10. Cole and Donnelly: implied decision-maker in their studies.

Decision-making, although a seemingly distinct role, is not a separate role of the leader. It is part of many roles, especially the role of planning. Decision-making is not viewed as an emotional response to a given situation but as a process of identifying and implementing satisfactory solutions through a logical sequence of steps.

The Leader as an Advisor

The leader often has to perform the role of advisor to his followers. Writers indicated that this function could be viewed in different manners, but the function appeared to be accepted regardless of the terms used to describe it.

1. Malcolm and Hulda Knowles: trainer;
2. Fiedler: advisor and consultant;
3. Weber and Peters: guidance worker;
4. Miner: counselor (in summarizing his review); and
5. Heilman: counseling.

The role of the advisor could be viewed as the role that the leader plays in helping individual followers help themselves. The leader's primary responsibility in this

capacity is not that of directing follower action but that of guidance and insight into the problem area and by identifying possible routes to its solution.

The Leader as a Public Relations Agent

Public relations was identified as both internal and external understanding. This role was determined as a necessity by the following writers.

1. Ross and Hendry: communicator;
2. Harrison: communicator and public relations agent;
3. Townsend: communicator of objectives;
4. Fendrock: diplomat for external and internal affairs;
5. McCloskey: public relations agent; and
6. Young, Moullette, and Brown: implied the role of public relations in their studies.

The public relations role of the leader is both an active and a conscious effort on the part of the leader to establish understanding within the organization and outside of it. The primary responsibility of the public relations agent is to gain and keep approval of his organization's operation.

The Leader as a Manipulator

Perceived either directly or indirectly by writers as being basic to leadership, manipulation was stressed in the following ways.

1. Harrison: manipulator;
2. Barnard: manipulator of resources;
3. Miner: manipulator (in summarizing his review);
4. Kirkpatrick: manipulator; and
5. Bradford, McKanna, Angelis, and Amspoker: implied manipulator in their studies.

Manipulation can be viewed in at least two distinct ways: (1) the manipulation of resources and/or the environment, and (2) the manipulation of people, either superiors or followers. Often seen as synonymous with political activities, manipulation is the adjustment or rearrangement of human and physical resources.

The Leader as a Controller

All writers agreed on the role of the leader as one of controller of organizational effort. Control has two implications in this context. First, control can be directly related to the role of director of activities. Secondly, control implies disciplinary control; in this sense, the leader may be viewed as a disciplinarian.

The Leader as a Source of Expertise

Implied by the majority of writers, the role of expert is seen as being necessary in most situations. This view is based on the fact that a leader should know the total operation in depth. Depth is defined as the interrelationships of the variables that effect the operation. This is an

essential role in that it helps the leader forecast and diagnose needs and determine directions that the organization should pursue. Katz emphasized this source of expertise as the basic technical knowledge that the leader should possess.

The Leader as an Evaluator

Evaluation was regarded as an important role by some of the writers reviewed. No matter its degree of importance, all writers implied that evaluation is basic to the leader.

1. Knowles: evaluator;
2. Fiedler: evaluator;
3. Drucker: judge;
4. Miner: evaluator (in summarizing his review); and
5. Kirkpatrick: evaluator.

Evaluation is closely related to planning and the process of decision-making. Evaluation involves the determination of progress toward the objective.

In summary of this section, the various roles that the leader either performs or is expected to perform are: (1) coordinator, (2) motivator, (3) agent of change, (4) director of activities, (5) planner, (6) decision-maker, (7) advisor, (8) public relations agent, (9) manipulator, (10) controller, (11) source of expertise, and (12) evaluator.

SIMILAR ROLES

A review of the roles of the teacher and the roles of the leader was made. The roles of each, along with various

terms used to identify these roles, were summarized and defined. Similar roles of both the teacher and the leader have been identified below to show the similar functions that both perform in fulfilling these roles.

The Director of Activities

This role is the primary role of the teacher/leader regardless of the activity involved. The teacher directs the learners' activities, a primary objective of the school. The leader directs the organizational activities. Both the teacher and the leader direct or manage these activities to meet the particular objectives of the organization to which they belong. Performing the role of director of activities is, therefore, the major concern of the teacher and the leader.

The Public Relations Agent

An important role of the teacher/leader is that of serving as a public relations agent. This role is vital. Both the teacher and leader seek the necessary societal and organizational approval so that their respective operations can be performed in a static-free climate. Public relations involves contacting the following publics to gain approval and support: students, followers, parents, managers, peers, and civic groups. The objective of public relations is that of developing and continuing public

understanding in the operation in question. In this light, both the teacher and the leader perform the role of public relations agent.

The Manipulator

Manipulation is a constant activity of the teacher/leader. Manipulation involves influencing people, the organizational environment, or both. The objective of manipulation is to adjust or rearrange the organization's human or physical resources. Both the teacher and the leader perform the role of manipulation in performing other roles.

The Agent of Change

The teacher/leader performs the role of change agent so that the activity that he directs will be relevant for the times. Basic to making changes are these concepts: (1) determination of what needs to be changed; (2) determination of how the organization is to be changed; (3) identifying appropriate vehicles for implementing this change; (4) knowing how the organization can be changed so the desired change will be accepted; and (5) determining when the change has been implemented as desired.

The Motivator

Research supports the fact that motivation of students/followers affects the quality of their performance. This performance may either be learning or some type of production. Motivation may be directed toward individual followers or

toward the entire organization. Performing the role of motivator may require the teacher/leader to act as a promoter, catalyst, or initiator. To perform the primary role of director of activities successfully, both the teacher and the leader are required to perform this role in varying degrees.

The Subject Expert

Both the school and the organization assume that expertise in one or more subjects is essential to both the teacher and the leader. The teacher/leader is the source of expertise to the extent that the discipline area is well understood. A synonym for subject expertise is technical competence. Both the teacher and the leader perform the role of expert in the normal functioning of their positions.

The Counselor

The role of the counselor combines the functions of the guidance worker and the advisor. A basic function of the teacher/leader is that of helping his followers make decisions on their own without constantly looking for someone else to make decisions for them. In this role the teacher/leader helps the follower identify the problem area and visualize possible solutions. The choice or solution that the follower adopts is the responsibility of the follower, and not of the teacher/leader. Both the teacher and leader assume the role of the counselor in varying degrees.

The Planner

The teacher/leader must assume the role of planner if he expects to perform the role of director of activities successfully. Basic to reaching goals is the formulation of plans. Planning requires at least the following: (1) determination of goals or objectives; (2) identification of needs; (3) developing routes to meet these needs; and (4) realizing when the goals are met. Planning can be a joint process involving followers or it can be done entirely by the teacher/leader.

The Decision-Maker

Although listed as a separate role of the teacher/leader, decision-making is an integral part of all roles, especially the role of planning. Decision-making can be viewed as a process of sequential steps that the teacher/leader progresses through to reach a workable solution for the problem area in question.

The Controller

Control of organizational activity is a role that the teacher/leader must perform so that objectives can be met. To be able to control, the teacher/leader must have the authority to do so. Control in this context involves placing appropriate restraints on operational or human aspects of the organization. The teacher/leader performs the role of controller in the organization and includes related aspects of this role, such as performing disciplinarian acts.

The Coordinator

This basic role of the teacher/leader is implied by various terms, such as integrator and arbitrator. The teacher/leader performs the role of coordinator when organizational efforts and activities are held in balance with the needs and desires of those in the organization. Coordinating the efforts, needs, interests, and activities of the organization and the followers helps the teacher/leader meet or satisfy both needs as quickly and as efficiently as is possible.

Other Roles

Some additional roles that the teacher/leader performs as part of fulfilling the above roles are: (1) educator/trainer; (2) behavior model; and (3) evaluator.

In summary of this section, the similar roles that are performed by both the teacher and the leader are: (1) director of activities, (2) public relations agent, (3) manipulator, (4) agent of change, (5) motivator, (6) subject expert, (7) counselor, (8) planner, (9) decision-maker, (10) controller, (11) coordinator, (12) educator/trainer, (13) behavior model, and (14) evaluator.

OVERLAPPING OF ROLES

The list of similar roles presented in this chapter have been identified and defined separately. They were

discussed separately so that the activities involved could be understood. These roles, however, are not often distinct and separate roles in and of themselves.

It should be noted, then, that many roles overlap into the performance of one or more other roles. Several examples clarify this line of thinking. Take, for example, the role of director of activities. This role could not be performed effectively without the support of at least these other roles: (1) manipulator of either the climate or the followers or both; (2) motivator of the followers to gain their support in task accomplishment; (3) subject expert; (4) planner of the activities that he directs; (5) decision-maker; (6) controller of the activities; (7) coordinator of organizational and follower needs; and (8) evaluator of the total process.

Another example that shows that roles overlap is the role of change agent. In effecting change, the following roles must be performed: (1) manipulator of organizational resources and follower attitudes; (2) motivator of follower and superior attitudes so the change may be implemented; (3) subject expert so the change may be implemented intelligently; (4) planner so the change may evolve from an organized sequence of steps; (5) decision-maker; (6) controller; and (7) coordinator of efforts and needs. All of the roles overlap in much the same manner as the above two examples; they are not separate because they are interrelated to each other in varying degrees.

TEACHING AS LEADERSHIP

It is not the intent of this study to lead the reader to the conclusion that teaching is leadership in all situations. One purpose of this study was to review selected literature so that teaching and leading could be seen as similar. The two are similar processes but not synonymous.

Teaching and leadership are not synonymous for several reasons. First, there are certain functions that one performs that the other does not. For example, the leader may often be concerned with financial considerations that often do not enter the realm of teaching. Second, although both perform similar roles, these roles are not always performed to the same extent by both the teacher and the leader. Third, teachers and leaders could not be transplanted in the other's operation and begin to perform at maximum efficiency.

Teaching and leadership are similar processes because both are directed toward obtaining organizational goals with motivated followers. To reach the above objective, both perform the similar roles outlined in this chapter. In spite of the obvious differences in teaching and leadership, the two perform similar functions. The researcher asserts that both should plan activities in a logical sequence of steps, regardless of the activity being planned. By the same token, both the teacher and the leader should be aware of how to operate in the role of public relations agent. All of the similar roles listed in this chapter are performed by the

teacher and the leader. In conclusion, when the similar roles are performed in the educational setting, teaching can be viewed as leadership.

KNOWLEDGES REQUIRED

Knowledge Required by the Teacher/Leader That are Necessary for the Learning Environment

Knowledges that are required for both the teacher and the leader to perform the similar roles are:

1. Personality development theories;
2. Motivation theories;
3. Evaluation, including testing and measurement;
4. Organizational structure;
5. Instructional methods;
6. Influencing the organization;
7. Identification of objectives;
8. Functions of management;
9. Process of planning;
10. The decision-making process;
11. Subject-area or technical competence;
12. Communication strategies; and
13. Group dynamics.

The above knowledges were derived from the literature concerning the roles of the teacher and leader and from knowledges that the roles obviously require.

Knowledges Offered in the Traditional Teacher Education Program

The traditional teacher education program is designed to prepare the teacher in such a way that he can perform the roles cited in the literature. The student in such a program of study is exposed to this preparation through both formal coursework and various field experiences.

The content of the traditional teacher education program includes some of the knowledges listed for both the teacher/leader, but not all of them. The knowledges that are generally included in the traditional teacher education program are:

1. Learning theories;
2. Individual/personality development theories;
3. Subject area competence;
4. Evaluation, including testing and measurement;
5. Understanding of the organization of the school;
6. Philosophy of education; and
7. Media/methodology.

The traditional teacher education program is designed to prepare the teacher to work in the public schools where the emphasis of the program is directed toward the learning characteristics of the child.

CONCLUSION

A review of teacher and leader literature identified at least fourteen roles that are similar to both. The

literature implied that certain knowledges were required if the teacher/leader performed these roles successfully. The traditional teacher education program does not include all of these knowledges in its program of study.

Traditional teacher education programs are designed for teachers that are (or will be) involved and concerned with pedagogy. One major emphasis in the traditional program is that the teacher is the source of expertise in the learning situation. This, however, is not a valid assumption to make with andragogy. By the nature of the older or adult learner, it is clear that many of the students bring valuable life and job experiences with them to the learning situation. Andragogy implies that the older student is self-directing and is capable of diagnosing his needs and evaluating his progress. Methods and techniques of directing and controlling the child learner are not appropriate for conducting the learning situation for the adult.

Based on the implications gained from the literature reviewed, the researcher offers three basic conclusions.

1. Many roles that the teacher and the leader either perform or are expected to perform are similar. It follows, then, that the teacher is a leader under these circumstances: (a) as director of activities, his activity goal is that of teaching, and (b) the teacher performs the similar roles of the teacher/leader.

2. Although the traditional teacher education program, with its emphasis on pedagogy, offers certain learnings that would be beneficial to training occupational instructors, it is not (in its entirety), an appropriate model for training these instructors to assume instructional responsibilities in the occupational education programs in the community college and technical institute.
3. Planned exposure to leadership training, with some emphasis on andragogy, is (in the opinion of the researcher) an appropriate model for in-service education for occupational instructors.

In summary of this chapter, the following areas were included: (1) the role of the teacher, (2) the role of the leader, (3) a list of similar roles of the teacher and the leader, (4) overlapping roles, (5) teaching as leadership, (6) knowledges required, and (7) a conclusion.

CHAPTER IV

A MODEL FOR IN-SERVICE EDUCATION FOCUSING ON LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

The primary purpose of this study was the development of an in-service education model that was appropriate for occupational instructors in the community college and technical institute who did not participate in a traditional teacher education program. Since many roles of the teacher and the leader are similar, this model was constructed by drawing upon knowledges required in: (1) the traditional teacher education program, and (2) the performance of the similar roles of the teacher/leader.

THE MODEL

The model presented in this chapter is an in-service education paradigm for occupational instructors. Exposure to this model should aid the instructor in identifying new instructional strategies and in improving on those that he already has.

A basic requirement of the occupational instructor is that of subject-matter expertise. Since the occupational instructor gains employment because of his recognized expertise, this element is not discussed to any great degree in this chapter. It is, however, recognized as one influence on the

occupational instructor and is, therefore, included in the model.

The model was designed to enable the instructor to perform the roles cited in Chapter III. Elements of this model represent the knowledges that are required to perform the roles. Existing in four basic parts, the elements of this model are: (1) leadership, (2) followership, (3) recognized expertise, and (4) educational practice. The model, visualized graphically, resembles the following diagram.

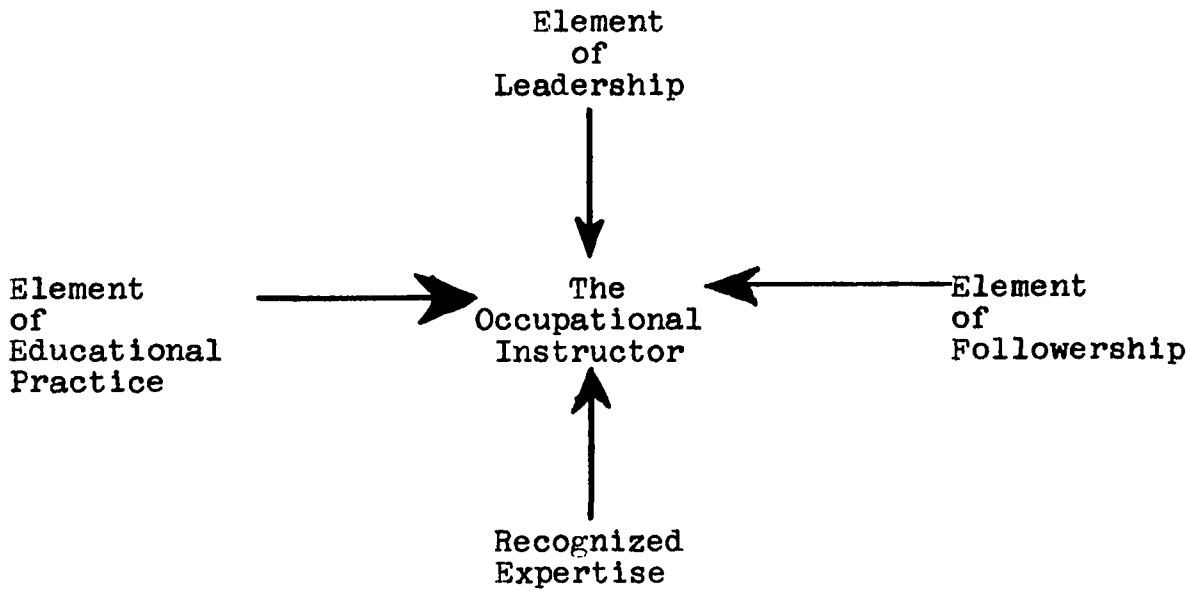

Figure 1

A model for in-service education for the occupational instructor who did not participate in a traditional teacher education program.

EXPLANATION OF THE MODEL

The model is explained best by describing the individual elements. Located in the center of the model is the occupational instructor. The four elements of the model exist for improving his instructional strategies and, thus, for improving the overall instructional process in occupational education. Where appropriate, specific examples have been given to aid the model user in deciding upon related content that could be used when the model is implemented.

The Element of Leadership

This element is designed to help the instructor perform the following roles: director of activities, manipulator, agent of change, counselor, public relations agent, planner, decision-maker, and coordinator. Subject content to be offered includes seven areas.

1. Styles of Leadership. This area deals with the different styles of leadership that are available to the leader and are appropriate to most situations: authoritarian, bureaucratic, democratic, and laissez-faire. The style of leadership used is usually determined by the amount of participation that the follower has in the decision-making process.

One style of leadership is authoritarian leadership. This leadership style is characterized by the lack of participation of the follower in the decision-making process. The leader makes no attempt to involve the followers in making decisions.

The focus of this type of leadership style is strict obedience of the followers. When this style of leadership is practiced, several conditions result: (1) due to the lack of participation, the follower often feels hostile and aggressive toward the leader; (2) follower motivation is low; and (3) the morale of the follower is low.

A second style of leadership is bureaucratic leadership. In this style of leadership, the follower is allowed to participate in the decision-making process, but this participation is limited. The follower is allowed to participate according to his organizational position. If the follower holds a low position (low in terms of managerial responsibility), then the participation from that follower is limited. On the other hand, if the follower holds a higher position, then his participation in the decision-making process is increased.

A third leadership style is the democratic style of leadership. This style is characterized by permitting follower participation in the decision-making process, regardless of the organizational position that the follower holds. This style of leadership promotes greater worker satisfaction because the followers are able to assume responsibility in the decisions that effect them.

A fourth style of leadership is the laissez-faire style. This style of leadership is not directive in nature. In fact, this leadership style places little emphasis of task

accomplishment on the followers. The followers are allowed to make their own decisions regarding their activities. Usually this style of leadership results in follower frustration and ineffective task accomplishment.[1]

2. Leader Behavior. This area deals with the various behaviors that the leader can assume in the leadership process. These behaviors are designed for different results. These behaviors are not distinct behaviors in themselves, but they are often used in combination.

One behavior cluster that the leader can assume is that of initiating behavior, or initiation. Initiating behavior is behavior by the leader that stresses efficiency, organization, control, direction, and task achievement. The leader usually resists new ideas in this leader behavior due to the fear that the task might not be accomplished.

Another popular behavior cluster found in the literature is consideration. Consideration is behavior that is characterized by the sensitivity that the leader has for his followers. Consideration can be viewed by the leader being open to the needs, desires, and wishes of his followers.

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[1]These ideas on leadership style are consistent with those of White and Lippitt (1968) and Lippitt and White (1943). Leadership styles have been discussed in various manners by many writers. For further reading, refer to Selvin (1960) and Likert (1961).

Trust between the leader and the follower enter into the leader-follower relationship in this type of leader behavior.[2]

One theory of leadership is the unitary trait theory. This theory has little research to support it. This theory assumes that there are single traits that exist within leaders that allow them to lead others.

A second theory of leadership related to the unitary trait theory above, is the Great Man Theory of leadership that asserts that there are great men in the world that have the potential and ability to lead others. Once popular, this theory is not accepted widely today.

A third theory of leadership is the interaction theory. This theory is not based on the leader's personality (as was the unitary theory and the Great Man Theory). Instead, this theory is based on the interaction that the leader (with his combined personality) has with the followers (and their personalities, needs, and desires). The leader-follower relationship and the effectiveness of accomplishment of a particular task is dependent also on the situation. This theory of leadership emphasizes that both the leader and the follower benefit from their relationship. This theory also stresses the importance of the leader integrating organizational

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[2]This is consistent with Jabs (1969), Halpin and Winer (1952), Hemphill (1950), and others. Other types of leader behavior advocated by these writers are: domination, membership, communication, integration, recognition, organization, production emphasis, and representation. For a discussion of these behaviors, refer to above writers.

needs and the needs of his followers. This theory of leadership is among the most popular theories of leadership today.[3]

4. Values and Priorities. It is important for the leader to realize what his values and priorities are. If he can put his values in the order by which he holds them, then he can establish a value hierarchy from which he can make intelligent decisions. Brubaker and Nelson advocated such a hierarchy for values.

> "If I cannot continue to do a certain thing or if I'm required to do a certain thing..."
>
> A. I'll sacrifice my life and/or the lives of my family and/or those I dearly love.
>
> B. I'll give up the respect of those whom I love and I'll forego my status and professional achievement.
>
> C. I will forego economic security and my career.
>
> D. I will have serious conflicts between what I think should be done and my reluctance to do it. I may have to alter my work style and give up those techniques which had previously been successful and beneficial and learn new ones.
>
> E. I will have to alter some habits with which I am quite comfortable thus making my job somewhat more difficult. I will feel uncomfortable from time to time as I'll do things that don't seem to be the best way to do them based on my past experience and present assumptions.
>
> F. It doesn't make any difference as past experience indicates. My choice, therefore, is between tweedle-dee and tweedle-dum.[4]

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[3] These ideas are consistent with Gibb (1969), Borgatta, Bates, and Couch (1954), Stogdill (1968), and Bennis (1961).

[4] Dale L. Brubaker and Roland H. Nelson, Jr. Introduction to Educational Decision-Making. (Dubuque, Iowa: Kendall-Hunt Publishing Company, 1972), p. 75.

As evidenced by the above hierarchy, values can be placed in their order of importance or priority when paired with likely consequences. The leader should behave in a way that reflects his value priorities. If the leader does not establish his values, then his behaviors and decisions may be erratic and unexplainable. There are numerous psychological devices, including tests, that can aid the leader in establishing his value priorities. One such test is the Study of Values.[5]

5. Communication Skills. This area involves the ability of the leader to understand the communication process. Any communication has three parts: (1) the intent (given by the transmitter of the message); (2) the message (written, verbal, or nonverbal); and (3) the translation (made by the receiver of the message).

The leader should be knowledgeable in transmitting messages. He should learn how to speak clearly and effectively in a number of situations: person-to-person and person-to-audience. The leader should also be familiar with how to construct a message.[6]

The leader should also be familiar with written, verbal, and nonverbal communications. Written communications (i.e., letters, memos, and other correspondence), paint a picture to the person that receives them. If the letter is

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[5]Allport, Vernon, and Lindzey. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1960.

[6]op. cit., McCloskey, pp. 66-80.

messy or incomplete, then some, if not all, of the originally intended message is not transmitted as intended.

Nonverbal communication is a rich source of communication for the person that is able to interpret it. Nonverbal communication can often be regarded as a more accurate form of feedback than verbal communication. The leader can increase his communication skills if he can interpret nonverbal communication.[7]

6. The Decision-Making Process. As a daily role of the leader, decision-making should be studied so that effective decisions may result. There are three factors that the decision-maker should be aware of when he makes a decision. According to Drubaker and Nelson, these factors are: (1) the utility of the decision; (2) the acceptability of the decision by those that implement it; and (3) the time limitations imposed on the decision-making process and on its implementation.

The utility or quality of the decision is based on several factors. First, the decision has to be congruent with the goals of the organization of the decision-maker. Secondly, the decisions have to contribute to objectives that are compatible with the decision-maker's and the organization's goals.

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[7]For a comprehensive background on nonverbal communication, refer to Birdwhistell (1970), Borden, Gregg, and Grove (1969), Eisenberg and Smith (1971), Fast (1970), Halpin, (1966), Mambert (1971), and Mortensen (1972).

A second factor that the decision-maker should be concerned with is the acceptance that his decision is likely to receive from those persons that are charged with its implementation. The acceptance of the decision may often hinge on the amount of participation granted his followers.

The factor of time effects the decision and its implementation. Some decisions do not lend themselves to time-consuming procedures, while others do. Time is a factor in the decision-making process that the decision-maker should be aware of. Time limitations that are misconceived often effect the quality and implementation of a decision.[8]

Many writers support a particular sequence of steps that the decision-maker can follow so that a logical decision will be made. Included in some of these sequences are: (1) the identification of organizational goals; (2) the identification of individual goals; (3) identification of possible vehicles for meeting both organizational and individual goals; and (4) choosing appropriate evaluation techniques.

7. Organizations. This area includes theory on both the formal and informal organization to give the leader an insight into the situation in which he leads.

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[8]Dale L. Brubaker and Roland H. Nelson, Jr., Creative Survival in Educational Bureaucracies. (Berkley, California: McCutchan Publishing Company, 1974), pp. 108-109.

The formal organization can best be described in terms of its characteristics. The organization has a system of sanctions and rewards that is intended to obtain desired behavior from its members; those who behave in congruence with organizational standards are rewarded, and those who deviate from organizational norms are punished. The formal organization has positions of rank that facilitate reaching objectives. The formal organization is impersonal in that it does not actively seek individuality from its members. In short, the formal organization is designed to gain maximum efficiency from the sum of its parts.[9]

Informal organizations often exist in formal organizational structures. Although they are not officially recognized by the formal organization as legitimate components of the formal organization, they do exist and can have varying effects on leader effectiveness and on organizational climate.[10]

The element of leadership is designed to help satisfy the knowledges that are required to perform the roles mentioned in this element. These knowledges are: diagnosis of needs, the decision-making process, and communication strategies.

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[9]For further discussion into the characteristics of organizations, see Hampton, Summer, and Webber (1968).

[10]For further reading on informal organization, refer to Hampton, Summer, and Webber (1968).

Element or Followership

This element is intended to aid the instructor in his performance of these roles: director of activities, public relations agent, motivator, counselor, coordinator, and behavior model. Subject content to be offered includes three areas.

1. Andragogy. This area is concerned with the factors that influence the adult in the learning situation. In particular, this area focuses on the ways in which the adult differs from the child in the learning situation.

One difference between the adult and the child that is reflected in the learning situation is self-concept. Adults view themselves as being self-directive and independent. Adults often view themselves as autonomous; frequently adults feel that they have; (1) the ability to make important decisions for themselves; and (2) the ability to direct and be responsible for their own actions. Because of their autonomy, adults are resistent to instructors that do not respect their self-concept. For example, adults generally will not allow the instructor to embarrass them in front of the class for tardiness. In a situation such as tardiness, the instructor should realize that tardiness resulted from explainable circumstances. Since the adult is not compelled to attend classes, tardiness is usually unavoidable. If the instructor embarrasses the tardy adult, the adult feels that his self-concept has been attacked because the instructor

does not think that the adult is responsible enough to budget and schedule time. Adults generally will not yield to such attacks on their self-concept by the instructor in the learning situation.

Adults have a more developed frame of reference for learning than children. This is due largely to the differences between the adult's and child's experiences. The adult has lived longer and experienced more situations than the child. For example, experiences that the adult may have had could include: family responsibilities to include marriage and children, military service, various job experiences, and various civic responsibilities.

Adults have a time perspective that is different from the child's time perspective. Although there are exceptions, adults generally view learning in terms of immediate application, whereas the child views much of his learning as knowledge that will be used later. The study of electricity may be used to show this difference. The adult will usually enroll in an electricity class so that he may use his newly acquired knowledge for immediate application. This immediate application may take many forms, two of which could be: (1) competency required in job related activities; or (2) the repair of a broken lamp or radio that the adult may have at home. The child may view his electricity class as a requirement of his educational process. Even though the child may directly benefit from instruction in electricity (in terms of immediate

application), the child generally views the study of electricity as content that he may draw upon at a later date.

Due to the differences between the adult and child learner, the learning atmosphere should be designed to reflect these differences. It would follow that the learning atmosphere for the adult would be characterized by very active participation in choosing study techniques and evaluation techniques.[11]

2. Personality Development. In facilitating the learning process, the teacher/leader should be aware of the stages of psychological development that his students have obtained. This area focuses on how individuals develop psychologically.

One theory of personality development deals with eight stages that an individual progresses through in his life. Termed by Erikson as stages that effect ego, this theory includes defining these stages: trust, autonomy, initiative, industry, ego identity, intimacy, generativity, and ego integrity.[12]

Personality development can be viewed as an integration of the environment and of heredity. This integration provides a basis for understanding the development of the personality. Some of these trends include the following:

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11 This presentation on the differences between the adult and child in the learning situation is consistent with Knowles (1966 and 1971).

12 Erik H. Erikson, "Eight Stages of Man," Childhood and Society. (Second Edition) (New York: W. W. Norton and Company, Inc., 1963), pp. 247-274.

1. Development from passivity to activity;
2. Development from dependence to independence;
3. Development from few interests to many interests;
4. Development from inflexible behavior to flexible behavior;
5. Development from no concept of the self to a strong self-concept;
6. Development from a short time-perspective to a broader time-perspective;
7. Development from being closed to being open;
8. Development from being defensive to accepting criticism;
9. Development from avoiding conflict to facing conflict;
10. Development from lacking trust to trusting;
11. Development from shallow perspectives to deeper perspectives; and
12. Development from intolerance for ambiguity to a tolerance for ambiguity.[13]

The teacher/leader should realize the different stages of psychological development and understand that all of his students may not have developed at the same rate. He should realize that instruction should be offered to facilitate the students at their different levels of development. Since

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[13]Chris Argyris, "The Human Personality," Personality and Organization. (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1957), pp. 20-53.

psychological development is an interaction between the individual and his environment, the teacher/leader may be able to effect individual development by the amount of freedom that he offers his students in participating in the instructional process.

3. Motivation. This area focuses on reasons that cause people to act in certain ways. Since research studies have linked motivation to performance, the teacher/leader should be aware of factors that effect motivation so that he may obtain maximum results and performance from his followers.

Motives can be defined as goal-directed behavior. Motives stem from needs that are not satisfied. Motives serve several functions. First, motives serve to give the person energy. The amount of energy that the person has is related to the degree by which a need is unsatisfied. Motives, then, cause a person to act. Secondly, motives direct behaviors toward some goal. The individual utilizes his energy to reach some goal so that his need(s) will be satisfied. Reaching this goal will usually be dependent on alternative goals that are available or the degree that the individual sees a particular goal as being the only means whereby his need(s) can be satisfied.

One manner in which motivation may be described, then, is through the identification of unsatisfied needs. Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs attempts to explain and arrange needs in a manner that gives insight into motivation and resultant behavior(s). Maslow's Needs are classified as: physiological,

safety needs, love needs, esteem needs, and the need for self-actualization. Physiological needs are the basic survival needs that include shelter, food and sex. Safety needs include such needs as security. Love needs can be defined as affection from one's significant others. Esteem needs are characterized by the respect that an individual has from others. The need for self-actualization is best defined by the individual becoming all that he can become based on his potential. An unsatisfied need acts as motivation for the individual to satisfy that need. When a particular need is satisfied, the individual is no longer motivated until another unsatisfied need appears.[14]

This element is designed to help satisfy these knowledges: personality development and theories of motivation.

Recognized Expertise

This element has been included in the Model because it is one influence on the occupational instructor. Without expertise in the instructional field, the instructor would most likely be ineffective. The inclusion of this element in the discussion of the Model focuses on what expertise is rather than on how to develop it.

Expertise in a particular area can be defined as the combination of knowledges and/or experiences that makes the

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[14]Abraham H. Maslow. "A Theory of Human Motivation," Motivation and Personality. (Second Edition) (New York: Harper and Row, 1970), pp. 35-58.

person more of an expert in the area than those who do not possess this combination of knowledges and experiences. The institution that employs an instructor on his expertise may weigh different factors in determining expertise. Formal training gained either in an apprenticeship program or from an educational institution may be regarded as expertise in a particular area. Expertise may also be determined by work experience in a particular field for a specified number of years. Expertise could also be determined by a number of combinations of these two areas. Determining expertise is the responsibility of the individual institution; no attempt was made in this study to determine or establish guidelines for the determination of expertise.

The Element of Educational Practice

This element includes subject content in three areas: instructional strategies, types of tests, and supportive instructional and audio-visual materials. Along with the preceeding elements of the Model, these areas are designed to help the instructor perform certain roles. These roles are: director of activities, public relations agent, motivator, counselor, planner, decision-maker, educator/ trainer and evaluator.

1. Instructional strategies are various techniques that the instructor can employ in the learning environment. A knowledge of these strategies will enable the teacher/ leader to choose the strategy that best fits the situation at hand.

It is not the intention of this study to suggest that one specific strategy should be employed in every situation; it is feasible to employ the various strategies in combination or by themselves.

One instructional strategy is the lecture method. The lecture method consists of at least two variations: the formal lecture and the informal. The formal lecture is a verbal presentation of well-organized material. The formal lecture is characterized by a climate free of student interruption; this allows the lecturer to present the lecture without deviating from its organization. The informal lecture is also a verbal presentation of material. One basic difference between the variations in the lecture strategy is that the informal lecture method allows for student interruption. This interruption of the presentation can either be in the form of student questions or student comments.

A second instructional strategy is the discussion method. This method is not dominated by the instructor as is the lecture, but rather this approach to instruction utilizes and encourages student participation. The discussion method of instruction is characterized by the exchange of ideas between the instructor and students and between students with other students. In the discussion method, students are encouraged to express their ideas so that the final result of the discussion will be a maximum understanding of the topic discussed by the participants.

A third instructional technique is the question-answer method. This strategy is characterized by teacher-oriented questions to the students. The student, in turn, responds with the answer that suits the question. The question can be directed toward individuals or toward the whole class.

Another instructional strategy is committee or group activity. Basically, this technique is characterized by a group of students participating in the accomplishment of some task. Variations of this method can stem from the amount of direction and support that the instructor provides for the group. The group is generally allowed the freedom to decide on its own work style and its own leadership. The group often has the responsibility of assigning segments of the task or project to its members. The final official requirement of some group projects is the presentation of the task and its conclusions to the total class.[15]

The case study method is an instructional strategy that can be employed with individual students, groups of students, or the total class. The case study is characterized by an in-depth study and evaluation of a specific area. One advantage of the case study method is that students are able to empathize with the person or persons involved in the actual case. The variables of the case can be studied and placed in proper relationships.

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[15]For further reading see Inlow (1963).

Simulation is an instructional strategy that involves at least two parts: gaming and role-playing. Simulation can be described as an imitation of an actual or real situation. Simulations are used in education to enhance instruction by providing students with experiences that imitate real or actual experiences. Simulations are used instead of real or actual experiences due to considerations of time, practicality, safety, and expense. In general, gaming involves participation in pre-designed activities that have predetermined rules and outcomes. Role-playing can be characterized by participants "acting out" the role(s) and feelings of other people. Simulations generally stimulate motivation from students and differ from some of the other instructional strategies in the amount of student interaction that is involved.[16]

One instructional strategy that may have merit for all levels of instruction is that of actual experiences. Since many occupational courses are taught by involving students in making projects, this "hands-on" approach is considered by Dale as the most meaningful type of experience (in terms of learning transfer).[17]

These instructional methods are basic instructional strategies accepted for the learning environment. They may be combined in any number of variations to meet present and

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[16]For further reading on simulation refer to Wittich and Schuller (1973).

[17]See Dale (1969).

changing instructional situations. The teacher/leader should be aware of the advantages and disadvantages of each method so that he will be able to select the method that is most appropriate for his style of instruction and the individual situation.

2. Types of Tests. This area deals with the types of tests that are available to the instructor for evaluation purposes. There are certain principles of classroom testing that the teacher/leader should be familiar with so that he may choose the type of test that is compatible with the evaluation that he desires. Tests should be drawn from the curriculum context that the students have studied. Tests should aid in the evaluation process of student progress rather than be the total evaluation of that progress. Tests should be: (1) current, (2) clear to the students, and (3) evaluated and returned for discussion.

The teacher/leader should be aware of test reliability and test validity. Test reliability relates to the ability of the test to consistently measure similar student progress each time the test is administered. Test validity relates to the ability of the test to measure what is to be measured. A test can have reliability, validity, or both. The instructor should be able to construct a test or other evaluative techniques that are both reliable and valid.[18]

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[18]See Inlow (1963).

Types of tests that the teacher/leader may employ to aid him in the evaluation process include at least these tests: true-false, matching, multiple-choice, essay, and completion. True-false tests are easy to prepare, easy to score, and permit a greater amount of sampling than other types of tests. The matching test is a valuable aid in assessing the ability of the student to associate concepts. The multiple-choice test is similar to the matching test in that it seeks the ability of the student to associate concepts. The essay test is easy to prepare but often difficult and time-consuming to grade. The completion test is employed when detailed items were stressed; this test places more emphasis on specific items than it does on concepts.

3. Supportive Instructional and Audio-visual Materials. This general area is designed to acquaint the teacher/leader with the resources available to him that support his instructional process. This area also stresses the operation of the various audio-visual equipment.

The instructional process that the teacher/leader directs can often be complemented by supportive instructional materials. These materials often provide the visual insight that is not offered by verbal processes. The leader/teacher should be aware of Edgar Dale's Cone of Experience. Dale's Cone arranges the effect of various experiences as they relate to learning. The most ineffective instructional

approach by which learning occurs is through verbal methods. The best approach that effects learning is the actual experience (or the "hands on" approach). Other approaches that have varying effects on learning include various visual experiences and simulations.

There are a number of instructional materials available to the teacher/leader. Many of these materials are produced by commercial firms designed for educational settings: blackboards, flannel boards, bulletin boards, textbooks, and models. A basic understanding of the purpose of each will enable the teacher/leader to choose the materials that will enhance his instruction.

Instructional materials include all types of audio-visual materials. Some of these are records, films, film-strips, and tapes. The equipment that is used for instructional audio-visual materials include: filmstrip projectors, film projectors, overhead projectors, opaque projectors, record players, tape recorders, slide projectors, and videotape equipment. These pieces of audio-visual equipment should be at the disposal of the teacher/leader after he becomes proficient in their operation. An equipment operation workshop should be included in this area.

Areas in this element are designed to satisfy these knowledges: evaluation (including testing and measurement) and instructional strategies.

Two general comments on the Model should be made. First, the Model is intended to serve as a guide for

in-service education. The content included in each element was presented to give the user a concept of the type of subjects that the researcher recommends. The content in the Model does not exhaust other related content that may be included. For example, in the Elements of Leadership, the area of organizations may include a variety of information on informal organizational groups, their development, and the benefits that are received by members of the informal group. Other elements and their corresponding areas may be expanded and modified in the same manner. This Model was developed to enable its user to modify it so that individual needs could be satisfied.

Second, the researcher has intentionally omitted the process whereby the Model could be implemented. Since in-service is viewed as both ongoing and as a "two-week block of activities in the summer", the researcher left the implementation of the Model to its user. The researcher does suggest that the model may be implemented by a variety of methods: formal presentations, group work, discussion periods, case studies, and simulations (to mention a few). Again, the researcher stresses that the model is a guide; content modification and model implementation are the responsibilities of the user.

In summation, in this chapter, a model for in-service education was presented. This Model was designed for occupational instructors who did not participate in a

traditional teacher education program. The Model was designed to incorporate the similar roles and the knowledges required by the teacher/leader. Elements of the Model were interrelated in that some of the elements attempted to satisfy roles and knowledges that were being satisfied in other elements. This intentional overlapping attempted to assure that all roles and knowledges were satisfied. It was stressed that the model could be modified so as to suit needs of its user, and that the user had the responsibility of choosing the appropriate vehicles for its implementation.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

SUMMARY

The purposes of this study were (1) to develop an in-service education model that was appropriate for occupational instructors in the community college and technical institute who did not participate in a traditional teacher education program; (2) to identify the roles that the teacher either performs or is expected to perform; (3) to identify the roles that the leader either performs or is expected to perform; (4) to identify roles that were similar to both the teacher and the leader; and (5) to identify knowledges that were required of the teacher and the leader to perform the similar roles.

Literature related to the role of the teacher, the role of the leader, and andragogy was reviewed.

It was found that the literature pertaining to the role of the teacher identified the roles that the teacher either performed or was expected to perform under various terms: duties, responsibilities, functions, tasks, roles, and expectations. These roles were: subject expert, model of behavior, professional member, guidance worker, administrator, public relations agent, disciplinarian, learning director, manipulator, motivator, agent of change, planner, and decision-maker.

The roles that the leader either performed or was expected to perform were cited in the literature under various terms: functions, tasks, roles, expectations, responsibilities, and duties. The literature indicated that the term leader was sometimes synonymous with these terms: manager, executive, and administrator. A review identified these leader roles: coordinator, motivator, agent of change, director of activities, planner, decision-maker, advisor, public relations agent, manipulator, controller, source of expertise, and evaluator.

A selected review of andragogy revealed that the adult learner differs from the child learner in different ways. Some of the ways are: self-concept, experience, learning readiness, and time perspective.

The roles of the teacher and the leader were compared and analyzed culminating in a list of similar roles: director of activities, public relations agent, manipulator, agent of change, motivator, subject expert, counselor, planner decision-maker, controller, coordinator, educator-trainer, behavior model, and evaluator.

Certain knowledges were required for the roles to be successfully performed. These knowledges were: personality development theories, motivation theories, evaluation (including testing and measurement), organizational structure, instructional methods, influencing the organization, identification of objectives, functions of management, process

of planning, the decision-making process, subject-area or technical competence, communication strategies, and group dynamics.

A model was developed that included the similar roles of the teacher and the leader; the model incorporated knowledges required to perform these roles. Roles and knowledges required overlapped into the four areas of the model: (1) the element of leadership, (2) the element of followership, (3) recognized expertise, and (4) the element of educational practice.

The limitations for this study were that:

1. This study dealt with only occupational instructors. It may not have relevance to other divisions of the community college and technical institute.

2. This study was not an indication of the quality of existing means employed in any current in-service education program for occupational instructors.

3. This study might not necessarily apply to any particular institution or state system since same was not identified.

4. Generalizations concerning this study might not apply to occupational instructors in the public schools.

5. Generalizations in this study might not have relevance to other post-secondary institutions.

Basic assumptions for the study were that:

1. Teacher training programs offered certain benefits to their recipients. Some of these were understandings of

classroom management, instructional techniques, and the psychology of the learner.

2. Because of the nature of and the inclusion of certain content in teacher education programs, it followed that those exposed to such a background should be better prepared for instructional positions than those that had not participated in said background.

3. Many of the roles of the teacher and the leader were similar; in some cases, good teaching was leading.

4. Planned exposure to leadership training could provide the occupational instructor with most, if not all, of the relevant content that one might have missed in the traditional teacher education program.

CONCLUSIONS

Conclusions reached in this study resulted from the implications found in the literature. These conclusions were:

1. Many of the roles that the leader and the teacher either performed or were expected to perform were similar. It followed, then, that the teacher was a leader under certain conditions; (a) when teaching was the activity goal when the role of director of activities was performed, and (b) when the teacher performed the other similar roles that were identified.

2. Because of its emphasis on pedagogy (as defined), the traditional teacher education program was not a completely appropriate model for training occupational instructors in the community college and technical institute.

3. An appropriate model for occupational instructors was one that incorporated andragogy with planned exposure to leadership training.

IMPLICATIONS

As a result of this study, the following implications can be made.

1. This model may be investigated for use in the other major divisions of the community college and technical institute: college transfer, adult education, and continuing education.

2. This model may be investigated for inclusion in those senior institutions offering the traditional teacher education program for the benefit of those students that might venture into instructional positions in occupational education in the community college and/or technical institute.

3. Institutions offering the Bachelor of Technology degree may want to investigate this model for inclusion into their programs.

4. Business and industry often conduct in-plant training programs. This model may be investigated as an in-service tool for instructors in and workers in business and industry.

5. Adaptation of this model could serve the purpose of supplementing occupational instructors that <u>were</u> exposed to a traditional teacher education background.

6. Adaptation of this model could also be investigated for use in the traditional teacher education program.

7. This model may be investigated as an in-service tool for part-time occupational instructional personnel in the community college and technical institute.

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APPENDIX

APPENDIX

A GUIDE FOR MODEL IMPLEMENTATION

This guide can be viewed as a format for model implementation. As presented here, this guide takes one of the subelements of Leadership, Styles of Leadership, and shows how it can be operationalized into an in-service program. The entire Element of Leadership, then, would be satisfied when all subelements have been presented to the trainees in a similar manner. The other two elements in the Model that related directly to in-service training, The Element of Followership and The Element of Educational Practice, could be approached by using the same format.

FORMAT

ELEMENT: Leadership

SUBELEMENT: Styles of Leadership

I. Formal Presentation

A. General

This is a verbal presentation led by the trainer. It is designed to be a general introduction to the Model. It should be emphasized that the purpose for using the Model as an in-service tool is to improve instructional strategies. The trainer

would describe all four Model elements and elaborate on the Element of Leadership. This elaboration would include an overview of various definitions and meanings that have been and are presently associated with the term leadership. The trainer could ask trainees for their own definition(s) of the term. It should be stressed that leadership is a concept. The importance of leadership should be discussed. This could be accomplished by relating actual case studies in political leadership, educational leadership, military leadership, and economic leadership. Conclusions could be drawn in the case studies chosen to indicate that leadership, or the lack of it, was a major influence on the outcome of the specific cases.

B. Introduction of the Subelement

The topic, styles of leadership, is introduced as one of the seven subelements that comprise the Element of Leadership. At this time, the trainer would describe that this portion of in-service training would consist of his verbal presentation of the subelement followed by various

group activities. At the end of group activities, the total group would meet for a discussion period, group critiques or reports, a question-and-answer period, and a trainer-led summation of this subelement.

C. Overview of the Subelement

This is a verbal presentation conducted by the trainer to give the trainees an overview of the subelement. In this case, styles of leadership could be presented in the following manner:

> Some styles of leadership may be appropriate for some situations but inappropriate for others. A leader may need to vary his style of leadership to match particular situations that confront him. Leadership, then, may be viewed as situational.
>
> There are at least four styles of leadership that can be separated and defined in terms of the amount of participation that the leader affords to those that he leads, his followers. These four styles of leadership are:
>
> . . . authoritarian
>
> . . . bureaucratic
>
> . . . democratic
>
> . . . laissez-faire.

There are even variations within these styles. (The trainer would define these styles of leadership and give examples of each.) The leader has a wide range of leadership styles that he may choose in a particular situation.

D. Instructions for Group Activities

The trainer would give instructions to the trainees regarding the group activities that follow. The trainer would state that the activities would involve active trainee participation. The instructions should include the type of activity to follow, guidelines, time limitations, and type of report or critique required (if necessary for the particular activity).

E. Questions

The trainer would ask the trainees if they need clarification on: (1) the concepts presented in the presentation of the subelement and/or (2) instructions on the activities that follow.

F. Breakdown for Group Work

The trainer would break down the total group into small groups. This could be done several

ways. One, the group could be broken into groups at the discretion of the trainer. He could decide that trainees would work with people that they normally came in contact with or have them placed in small groups with those they did not know. Two, the trainer could let individual trainees decide the makeup of the groups. In short, the trainer could either use or discourage group input into the breaking down of the group.

II. Group Work

A. General

The second phase of the format, group work, is designed to change the pace and to involve the trainees as active participants in their learning. The absence of the trainer should induce (encourage) a greater degree of willingness for participants to become involved in the activity.

B. Directions

The total population will break down into groups of four to six people.

C. Atmosphere

The atmosphere of the group work should be designed to reinforce principles set forth in the formal presentation of the subelement. This reinforcement may be by various methods to include, but not limited to, case studies and simulations. For example, a role-playing situation could be developed for the group as part of the group work.

> Given several situations, various members of the group would use the four styles of leadership or their variations in role-playing to see which style or styles would be most effective for the trainee in the situations. A discussion of these styles should terminate in a group consensus of which style(s) of leadership would be most effective in each situation.

In addition to reinforcing principles of the formal presentation, group work should be designed to help individual trainees choose a general style of leadership that they are most comfortable with by examining the style or styles or style variations that they have used in the past.

III. Discussion Period

A. General

This phase of the format should emphasize the differences in styles of leadership and the importance of one being able to choose a style but, at the same time, being willing to vary his style according to the situation. The discussion period could also be used to share small group reports or critiques with the total group. This discussion is trainer-led.

B. Question-Answer Period

This segment would be conducted by the trainer to clarify questions that the group might still have. He may ask for answers from the group rather than giving all answers himself. Whichever method of answering that he chooses is not as important as the clarification of points.

C. Summation

This final segment allows the trainer to summarize the conclusions reached by the group.

NOTE: As stated previously, the Model could be implemented by taking one subelement at a time to satisfy its

particular element. To aid the reader in selecting the subelements, the Model is outlined to show the elements and subelements.

ELEMENT

Leadership

Subelements

Styles of Leadership (used as an example in this guide)

Leader Behavior

Theories of Leadership

Values and Priorities

Communication Skills

The Decision-Making Process

Organizations

ELEMENT

Followership

Subelements

Andragogy

Personality Development

Motivation

ELEMENT

Educational Practice

Subelements

Instructional Strategies

Types of Tests

Supportive Instructional and Audio-Visual Materials

ELEMENT

Recognized Expertise

This element is an influence on the occupational instructor. It is included in the Model because of this fact, but developing or recognizing expertise is not a responsibility of the Model.