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**BOGGS, ROBERT MARSHALL**  
**LEADERSHIP STYLES AND TEACHER INVOLVEMENT IN**  
**THE DECISION-MAKING PROCESS IN THE SMALL**  
**ADMINISTRATIVE UNIT.**

**THE UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA AT**  
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**LEADERSHIP STYLES AND TEACHER INVOLVEMENT  
IN THE DECISION-MAKING PROCESS  
IN THE SMALL ADMINISTRATIVE UNIT**

by

**Robert M. Boggs**

**A Dissertation Submitted to  
The Faculty of the Graduate School at  
The University of North Carolina at Greensboro  
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of the Requirements for the Degree  
Doctor of Education**

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Approved by

  
**Dissertation Advisor**

APPROVAL PAGE

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## ABSTRACT

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Many traditional models of the managerial process in public school organizations have been autocratic or bureaucratic in nature. The manager makes decisions on matters within his particular area of freedom, issues the directives and orders to his subordinates, and monitors their performance to ensure conformity with the decisions made and the directives issued. In too many instances, administrators have not involved the faculty and staff in the decision-making process.

Public schools must develop mechanisms for decision-making that will build trust rather than diminish it, and these mechanisms must involve the willingness to delegate authority and to allow individuals to assume leadership. The key to this process is to develop the proper framework for the decision-making process and to determine the level of teacher involvement which will be most effective. The efforts behind the decision-making process, the implementation of the decision made, and the responsibility for the decisions can be shared. If all who are involved in the sharing process have productive input and cooperative planning is provided, then an effective decision-making mechanism can be established within the school system.

This study examines various leadership styles which have been used by business organizations and school organizations for the past few years. An analysis is made of the participative management style as it relates to the establishment of a decision-making framework which

will involve staff members in curriculum and instruction decisions. The study is also concerned with the question of whether teachers should be involved in decisions, and if so, to what extent or what level within the organization.

The task of establishing an effective framework for curriculum decision-making is very difficult. Part of the difficulty lies in the fact that managers must deal with the very nebulous realm of how to resolve the conflict of governance versus non-governance regarding curriculum and instruction decisions. The important component surrounding the process is to determine the leadership style and the level at which teachers are to become involved in decision-making. The involvement depends on the structure of the organization, the leadership ability of those in management positions, the goals and motivation of personnel, the decision regarding what areas of the school program teachers may be involved in decision-making, and the skills the personnel have or can develop.

An organizational structure is presented which provides a procedure for teacher involvement in the decision-making process in the areas of curriculum and instruction. This structure provides for input both at the local school level and the systemwide level regarding the two important areas of educational programming--curriculum and instruction. The procedural aspects of a decision-making mechanism and the framework for operation of that mechanism are outlined.

In Chapter V an in-service program to provide training in the area of curriculum decisions is introduced. Recommendations are made relative to development of an organizational structure which will

provide for teacher governance in curriculum decisions in the small administrative unit.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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## CHAPTER I

### BACKGROUND

One of the most persistent and controversial issues in the study of management in any organization is that of participation in decision-making by subordinates. Many traditional models of the managerial process have been autocratic in nature. The manager makes decisions on matters within his area of freedom, issues orders or directives to his subordinates, and monitors their performance to ensure conformity with the decisions made and the directives issued. According to Vroom, scientific management from its earliest developments in time and motion study to the more contemporary manifestations in mathematical programming, has contributed to the decentralization of decision-making in organizations by focusing on the development of methods by which managers can make more rational decisions, substituting objective measurements and empirically validated methods for casual judgments.<sup>1</sup>

#### Statement of the Problem

Decision-making is a central process in all scientific disciplines. Much of human behavior is simply a reflection of the decisions people make. The processes that regulate and control those choices and decisions are central to any discipline that purports to understand

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<sup>1</sup>Victor H. Vroom and Phillip W. Yetton, Leadership and Decision Making (University of Pittsburgh Press: Pittsburgh, 1973), p. 10.

and predict human behavior. Some disciplines such as economics, statistics, and operations research, approach decision-making from a normative standpoint with a fundamental interest in how choices or decisions could be made. Others, including psychology, sociology, and political science, are fundamentally concerned with understanding and predicting human behavior, including those areas of behavior that are the result of human choices and decisions.

Vroom points out that the processes of problem-solving and decision-making when carried out by organizations are different from the same processes carried out by individuals in at least one fundamental respect. Organizational decision-making involves both cognitive and social processes. The events that intervene between the identification of a problem (or occasion of decision-making) and a solution or decision are both intrapersonal and interpersonal. It is the interpersonal or social aspects of decision-making that are of most direct relevance to processes of leadership. The leader not only makes decisions, but also designs, regulates, and selects social systems that make decisions.<sup>2</sup>

In this research, emphasis will be placed on possible ways in which formally designated leaders can involve subordinates in decision-making, specifically in leaders' choices about how much and in what way to involve their subordinates in decision-making. In addition, the determination will be made as to what areas, if any, the subordinates will be allowed to participate in in the decision-making process.

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<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

### Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to (1) review the management literature as it pertains to the decision-making aspect of managerial or leadership styles and organizational structures, (2) review the literature relative to ideas and attempts used to develop a decision-making mechanism, (3) examine ideas, concepts, and a rationale for teacher involvement in the decision-making process which may be pertinent to a small administrative unit, (4) review possible alternative methods for involving teachers in the curriculum decision-making process, (5) develop an organizational structure for involving teachers in the decision-making process in the small administrative unit, and (6) make recommendations for the small administrative unit regarding the implementation of an effective leadership style and possible teacher involvement in the decision-making process.

### Need for the Study

Considerable time, effort, and financial resources have been allocated and spent in past decades in efforts to develop new curricula. This is reflected in the efforts of both the so-called national curricula projects and many groups in local school districts. However, in many instances, the expenditures invested have not resulted in systematically implemented curricula and the changed emphasis in objectives, subject matter and instructional strategies presumably intended.

In some instances the reason for the lack of implementation of the new curricula is the approach used by school administrators to initiate the implementation. In too many instances, administrators have not involved the faculty and staff in the decision-making process.

Those most concerned about decision-making feel they must directly participate in the formulation of even the most minute decisions and plans. They also feel that leadership is unwilling to delegate authority to their staff in order to facilitate better decisions through manageable work groups. The attitudes of the teachers imply that those in leadership positions must be cognizant of the need to involve teachers in the decision-making process of the curriculum and instructional program. This process should be cyclic and on-going to ensure continuous examination of the instructional program.

John Goodlad emphasizes strongly that the whole purpose of curriculum planning is the execution of the curriculum in order to improve the education a student receives. This means that teachers must be involved in the planning of curricula since they are the ones who execute the curricula. Not enough attention is paid by curriculum builders to the implementation of their planning. Goodlad considers three levels of decision-making: societal (national, state and local); institutional (the individual school); and instructional (the individual teacher). Curriculum planning occurs at each of these levels, and the planning done at each level has an impact upon the curriculum the student is offered. The identification of the three levels should not suggest that curricular decision-making follow an orderly procedure, but it does emphasize that many people are involved in the process. The most neglected level of curriculum decision-making by administrators, says Goodlad, is the institutional or individual school level where the total setting for learning by the students is created. Much planning has been done at the societal level and at the instructional level.

The central administration must develop plans for involving teachers at various levels in the decision-making process in developing curricula for the school system.<sup>3</sup>

In addition it is clear that the public schools must develop mechanisms for decision-making that will build trust rather than diminish it, and that these mechanisms must involve the willingness to delegate authority and to allow individuals to assume leadership. The key is to develop the proper framework for the decision-making process and to determine the level of teacher involvement which will be most effective. The efforts behind the decision-making process, the implementation of the decision made, and the responsibility for the decisions can be shared. Does sharing not result in cooperation? It can if all who are involved in the sharing process have productive input into the process. This is accomplished through a cooperative planning effort to establish an effective decision-making mechanism within the school system.

Pertinent to this study will be the question of whether teachers should be involved in decisions, and if so, to what extent or level within the organization. The key to establishing an effective decision-making mechanism is the implementation of a framework for curriculum decision-making. This task is very difficult in that formally designated leaders of the process must deal with the very nebulous realm of how to resolve the conflict of governance versus non-governance regarding curriculum and instructional decisions. The

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<sup>3</sup>Frances M. Klein, "Tyler and Goodlad Speak on American Education: A Critique," Educational Leadership 5 (May 1976): 565-570.

important component surrounding the process is to determine the leadership style and the level at which teachers are to become involved in decision-making. The involvement depends on the structure of the organization, the maturity of the leaders and the followers, the goals and motivation of personnel, the decision regarding what areas of the school program teachers may be involved in decision-making, and the skills the personnel have or can develop. In addition, curriculum leaders must be skilled in communications. The problems, restrictions, and difficulties of an educational system must be explained to the public continuously, systematically, and clearly, requiring great communication capability.

Beyond the skill of communicating lies a high order of management skill which is the capacity for relating to others and involving others so they acquire new insights about the educational enterprise. This means that curriculum leaders must learn how to utilize the work of groups to advance the mission of education and to make education responsive to the problems in the public schools. Otherwise, aggression and vocal special interest groups will distort the curriculum through pressures that cannot be held back unless our leadership is sufficiently skilled in utilizing the power of all groups in keeping a comprehensive view of the educational program.<sup>4</sup>

As curriculum leaders, public school educators must consider the involvement of persons at all levels in cooperative action. The question again is to determine what level, how much involvement, and to answer the difficult question of the vague area of governance versus

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<sup>4</sup>Glenys G. Unruh, "New Essentials for Curriculum Leadership," Educational Leadership 5 (May 1976): 577.



non-governance. Many people have had little or no experience in direct involvement in cooperative decision-making, particularly in relation to curriculum development.

There is a reluctance on the part of both professional staff and the general public to put in the time needed for the processes of formal decision-making. Prior to involvement in making major decisions, it is necessary to identify needs and concerns through some systematic way of involving a diverse constituency. Once the needs and concerns have been identified, listed, and sorted into personal concerns, institutional concerns, and societal concerns that affect the school, priorities can be assigned. This requires not only leadership action but also education of the participative group.

#### Method of Procedure

The management literature related to the decision-making aspect of leadership styles and organizational structures, attempts used to develop a decision-making mechanism, and ideas and rationale for involving teachers in the decision-making process were researched for background information. The writer used the normal procedures for locating articles pertaining to the subjects, employing the following sources: Education Index, Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature, Research Studies in Education, Dissertation Abstracts, Review of Educational Research, Encyclopedia of Educational Research, Educational Administration Abstracts, Comprehensive Dissertation Index, American Doctoral Dissertations, Thesaurus of Educational Resource Information Center, Business Periodicals Index, the Encyclopedia of Education, Current Index to Journals in Education, and Encyclopedia of Information Systems and Services.

Literature in the area of leadership styles in industrial, business, and school organizations was researched in an effort to understand the various approaches used to develop effective organizational management. This research included an examination of various alternatives used in public school systems and other organizations to provide for a decision-making process. The question of teacher involvement in the decision-making process was addressed and an organizational structure developed.

### Definition of Terms

Several terms appear throughout this dissertation which were not fully defined in context. For the purposes of this study, they have been listed and defined as follows:

participative management - a type of management procedure which provides for the decision to be made at the lowest possible level in the organization and as close to the scene of action as possible. The individual who will be affected by the decision has the opportunity to react as to what he thinks the decision should be and how he perceives the effect of the decision. Once the decision is made, the individual is entitled to an explanation of the reasons for the decision.

centralization - a form of management whereby decision-making is maintained at the highest management level, affording few management decisions to those directly responsible for the actions of others and ensuing results.

decentralization - a form of management whereby decision-making is spread from a larger management component to small management areas. Decentralization encourages and supports management

decisions by those directly responsible for the actions of others and ensuing results.

curriculum - a term used to describe all of the learning experiences of students under the direction of the school, planned or unplanned. Decisions regarding curriculum are usually made systemwide.

instruction - a term used to describe how the curriculum is taught. Instruction is usually associated with classroom teaching.

bureaucracy - a type of management plan whereby rules, regulations, and procedures are established to control the organization by their use. A bureaucracy provides a hierarchy of super-ordination and sub-ordination in which those in higher management levels have supervisory control.

authority - the right to perform an act or make a decision as a result of the office held or position maintained in an organization. Henri Fayol distinguished between official authority which derives from office holding, and personal authority which derives from the office holder's own personality, experience, moral worth, and other personal characteristics that enable him to influence the efforts of subordinates.<sup>5</sup>

organization - refers to the final product of the process of achieving a coordinated effort through the design of a structure of task and authority relationships.

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<sup>5</sup>Henri Fayol, General and Industrial Management (Geneva: International Management Institute, 1949), p. 19.

leadership - the process of influencing the activities of an organized group in efforts toward goal-setting and goal-achievement.

governance - the power and authority to direct and control the actions and decisions of others within an organization.

authoritarian - a leadership style which involves impersonal communication emphasizing authority and curriculum over personnel.

personal transactional - a leadership style which is basically leader-centered. The personal transactional leader seeks information, makes decisions based on that information and communicates to and directs his subordinates.

benevolent autocracy - a management system in which the manager is concerned about subordinates' feelings and attitudes but develops policies, structures the subordinates' work activities, and enforces discipline to ensure that the policies are followed and the work activities are carried out according to direction.

situational leadership theory - a management theory based on the idea that there is no single all-purpose leadership style and that the leader should be able to adapt his behavior to meet the particular situation.

managerial grid theory - a management theory which relates task effectiveness and human satisfaction to a formal managerial developmental program. Five leadership styles are plotted on a two-dimensional grid.

committee - a group which is given a specific task which they are expected to implement as a group. The committee lacks original jurisdiction. The direction or mandate comes from some other person or group.

small administrative unit - The North Carolina Administrative Code defines a small administrative unit as a rural or urban school system with less than five-thousand students.<sup>6</sup>

### Design of the Study

Chapter II, Leadership Styles, includes a definition of leadership and a survey of the various leadership styles and theories used in business and school organizations to develop effective organizational management. The various styles and theories include: (1) Benevolent Autocracy; (2) the Managerial Grid Theory; (3) Situational Leadership Theory; (4) Personal Transactional; (5) Authoritarian; and (6) Participative Management.

Chapter III, Teacher Involvement in the Decision-Making Process, deals with the question of whether or not teachers should be involved in the decision-making process. The advantages of participative management are presented with an investigation of Ronald Pellegrin's study on teacher participation in decision-making and Arthur Blumberg's model on Structural Intervention, which provides for teacher input into curriculum decisions.

The question of governance is examined with references to studies completed on various levels of teacher participation. A professional model is presented as a possible method of involving teachers

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<sup>6</sup>North Carolina Administrative Code, Title 16, Rules and Regulations of the Department of Public Instruction, section .0610, 3-72 (1976)

in curricular and instructional decisions. A study is made on group and committee processes and the decision-making procedures in groups and committees.

Chapter IV, A Proposed Organizational Structure for Shared Decision-Making Regarding Curriculum in the Small Administrative Unit, includes the development of a philosophical rationale for an organizational structure on shared decision-making. The writer outlines the concepts and characteristics of a shared decision-making structure and attempts to define the various authority levels involved in the process.

The organizational structure proposed for the small administrative unit is presented by the writer as an effective way to involve teachers and other staff in curriculum. A detailed explanation is given of the organization, structure, and procedures involved in implementation of the structure.

Chapter V, Summary and Recommendations, provides several ideas for the development of a shared decision-making management system within the public school program. Included is a recommendation for inservice preparation for school personnel.

## CHAPTER II

### LEADERSHIP STYLES

In the first part of this chapter this writer will examine various leadership styles which could be applied to organizational management. In the latter part of the chapter a participative management style is examined as a possibility for involving teachers in curricular and instructional decision-making in a small school unit.

#### Leadership Defined

Alphonzo, Firth, and Neville define leadership as:

Behavior that causes individuals to move toward goals they find to be important and that creates in the followers a feeling of well being...By assuming the position of supervisor, one indicates willingness to exert leadership and to be accountable for effecting the behavior of teachers in such a way that the goals of the organization are achieved. Successful instructional supervisory behavior cannot exist in the absence of effective leadership behavior.<sup>1</sup>

Harris points out that there are two significant limitations to much of the research on leadership in education. First, it is focused on the practices of leadership on the questionable premise of what is done corresponds with what should be done. Second, it has attempted to build general theory from specific isolated studies. It is suggested

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<sup>1</sup>Robert J. Alphonzo, Gerald R. Firth, and Richard F. Neville, Instructional Supervision: A Behavior System (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1975), p. 45.

that a more promising approach, perhaps, is to examine research in fields other than education for theoretical propositions which might then be utilized to generate principles of leadership in education.<sup>2</sup>

Gerald Firth in another article explains that examination of research efforts in fields beyond professional education has challenged some of the fundamental beliefs regarding leadership. One view is that effective leadership requires status and power within the organization. Another is that discrepancies will always exist between the perceptions of leadership by subordinates and by superiors. Another and perhaps even greater departure from established thinking is that a leader should maintain some degree of psychological distance from his or her subordinates.<sup>3</sup>

Much of what has been learned regarding leadership in education has been derived from studies in which behaviors were controlled by existing circumstances. Research outside education provides direction for leadership behavior so that hypotheses gained from other fields may be tested in controlled situations to determine their validity and viability in education. Leadership in education can best be investigated by following practice as derived from theory rather than the reverse.

From 1968 to the present, leaders at all levels and in all types of institutions have been confronted by many and sometimes conflicting demands. Public education has provided a particularly active

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<sup>2</sup>Ben M. Harris, Supervisory Behavior in Education, 2nd Edition, (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1975), p. 68.

<sup>3</sup>Gerald R. Firth, "Theories of Leadership: Where Do We Stand?" Educational Leadership 33 (February 1976): 331.



arena in which forces do battle. Faced with such circumstances, those in leadership roles--administrators, curriculum directors, instructional supervisors, and some teachers--have sought to maintain those qualities that allow one person to command, control, or influence others.<sup>4</sup>

As a guide to action, some educators have turned to three explanations of leadership. They have found that beliefs regarding the phenomenon of leadership have been revised considerably since the turn of the century. Early studies of leadership focused upon characteristics of the individual. Attempts were made to determine whether certain traits of personality, intelligence, physique, or perception were either necessarily associated with those who lead or could be used to distinguish those who might become leaders. Despite the determination of researchers to fully explore the relationships, evidence is clear that leaders do not possess common characteristics, traits, or consistent patterns thereof. Nor is it possible to predict potential for leadership on the basis of personality, intelligence, stature, or scholarship.<sup>5</sup>

Numerous studies have been conducted which hypothesized relationships between selected leadership styles and productivity or morale. Although some interesting results were obtained, particularly in comparison of autocratic, laissez-faire, and democratic styles, they did not prove any more fruitful in explaining leadership. Different styles of leadership develop different climates and patterns of achievement in the same group or in similar groups. Evidence indicates that the leadership style perceived as effective is that

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<sup>4</sup>Ibid.    <sup>5</sup>Ibid., p. 327.

which is consonant with the nature and expectations of the group to be led.<sup>6</sup>

This consideration of leadership styles and association with the performance of functions by group members led to examination of the interaction between group members and the leader. Analysis of group dynamics has contributed much to the contemporary approach to the study of leadership. When the effectiveness of leadership in helping meet their needs is evaluated by group members themselves, leadership necessarily must be considered as a quality separate from a single individual. Some functions likely will be performed by members who emerge as temporary leaders from within the group as well as by the designated leader.

A still more recent consideration of leadership recognizes the significance of the particular situation in which acts of leadership occur. Study of the organizational determinants of leadership reveals that among them are the nature of environment, distribution of power, nature of tasks and priority among goals. Effective leadership is the product of a multitude of conditions within an organization. To be effective, leadership must be both consistent with organizational expectations and beneficial to organizational goals.<sup>7</sup>

Fred E. Fiedler states that:

Leadership is a process of influencing others for the purpose of performing a shared task. This process requires to a greater or lesser extent that one person direct, coordinate, or motivate others as a group in order to get the assigned task accomplished.<sup>8</sup>

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<sup>6</sup>Ibid.    <sup>7</sup>Ibid., p. 328.

<sup>8</sup>Fred E. Fiedler, Group Dynamics, Research and Theory (Harper and Row Publishers, Inc. 1968), p. 362.

The type of leadership style that will be most effective depends upon the degree to which the group situation enables the leader to exert influence. The effectiveness of a group in the decision-making process is contingent upon the appropriateness of the leader's style to the specific situation in which he operates. Many people are effective leaders in some situations and ineffective in certain others. If leadership effectiveness depends not only upon leadership styles but also the group situation, we can either make the leader fit a specific group situation by selection or training or we can engineer the group situation to fit the leader.<sup>9</sup>

Victor Vroom and Phillip Yetton emphasize that no one leadership method is applicable to all situations; the function of leadership is dependent upon the situation from an organizational standpoint and the type of managerial environment which exists. In other words, effective leaders are those who are capable of behaving in many different leadership styles depending upon the requirements of reality as they and others perceive it. The reality is determined by the organizational structure.<sup>10</sup>

Vroom and Yetton further state that the leadership used in response to one situation should not constrain the method or style used in other situations. Implicit in the use of the attributes of the particular problem to be solved or decision to be made as the unit of analysis is the assumption that problems can be classified such that the relative usefulness of each alternative decision process is identical

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<sup>9</sup>Ibid., pp. 362-363.

<sup>10</sup>Victor H. Vroom and Phillip W. Yetton, Leadership and Decision Making (Pennsylvania: University of Pittsburgh Press, 1973), p. 16.

for all problems in a particular classification. A corollary to this assumption is that the process or method used on problems of one type does not constrain that used on problems of a different type. This is also applicable to the various types of groups involved in the decision-making process. It is only in this way that prescriptions could be made for a given problem without knowing the other problems encountered by a leader or his methods for dealing with these problems or even his methods for involving the group in the decision-making process.<sup>11</sup>

Saying that different types of groups require different types of leadership implies the leader has to use different means to influence his group members. It is obviously easier to exert influence and power in some situations than in others. Other things being equal, a military group will be more easily influenced by a general than by an Army private; a group will be influenced more easily by a person who is liked and trusted than by someone who is hated and rejected.

An attempt to categorize group task situations might reasonably begin, therefore, by specifying the aspects of the group situation that determine the influence the leader is likely to have. Fred Fiedler postulates three important aspects of the situation that influence the leader's role:

1. Leader-members relations. The leader who is personally attractive to his group members and respected by his group enjoys considerable power. Further, if he has the confidence and loyalty of his men, he has less need of

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<sup>11</sup>Ibid., p. 17.

official rank. This dimension can generally be measured by means of sociometric indices or by the group atmosphere which will indicate the degree to which the leader experiences the group as pleasant and well-disposed toward him.

2. Task structure. The task generally implies an operational order given from an authority above, an authority which represents the superiority in the organization. The group member who refuses to comply must be prepared to face disciplinary action by a higher authority. Fiedler uses the example of a squad member who fails to perform a lawful command of his sergeant. The squad member may have to answer to his regimental commander. However, compliance with a task order can be enforced if the task is relatively well-structured--that is, if it is capable of being programmed. One cannot effectively force a group to perform well on an unstructured task such as developing a new product or writing a good play. Thus, the leader who has a structured task can depend on the backing of his superior organization, but if he has an unstructured task, the leader must rely on his own resources to inspire and motivate his men. The unstructured task thus provides the leader with much less effective power than does the highly-structured task.
3. Position-power. The third dimension is defined by the power in the position of leadership irrespective of the occupant's personal relations with his members. This includes

the rewards and punishments that are officially or traditionally at the leader's disposal, his authority as defined by the group's rules and bylaws, and the organizational support given to him in dealing with his men.<sup>12</sup>

Sherif, in a book entitled Inner Group Relations and Leadership, states that "Leadership is based upon the performances and expectations of group members in interaction."<sup>13</sup> Every member of a group may exhibit some minimal sort of performance if no more than that of affiliating or paying dues. A member's interactions with other members is in itself an overt type of performance. The member's pattern of interaction with other members is, then, a determiner of his role in the group. In recent years, it has been clearly recognized that roles are defined in terms of the expectations that members have relative to their own performances and interactions, and particularly relative to the contributions of other members of the group. The role concept is a central one in group theory.<sup>14</sup>

The structuring of a member's role defines at the same time his position or status in the group. A system of positions, thus defined, describes the formal structure of a group. A member, in essence, is expected to perform and interact in accordance with the specifications defined for his position, but each member brings into a group a strongly preconditioned personality, value system, and set of identifications. These factors, in addition to a member's general ability, knowledge,

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<sup>12</sup>Fiedler, pp. 470-473.

<sup>13</sup>Muzafer Sherif, Inner Group Relations and Leadership (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1962), p. 55.

<sup>14</sup>Ibid.

and skill may determine to a very high degree the adequacy of his performances and the realism of his expectations in the group. The leader must be aware of this fact. He must also be aware that an individual's prior experience and conditioning, his immediate behavior in a group, and his accomplishments and reputation combine to determine the role he will be able to play.<sup>15</sup>

Leadership is defined in terms of its effects upon two input variables that produce group purpose, structure, operations, and achievement. If an appeal is made directly to the experimental evidence, it is evident that the individual who emerges as the leader in an experimental group, which is the first type of input variable, is one who succeeds in initiative structure and reinforcing the expectation that he will be able to maintain such structure as operations continue. His role becomes differentiated from other roles in specific reference to group purpose, structure, and achievement. He is expected not only to keep the group moving toward task achievement, but also to maintain the structural integrity of this group and provide freedom for initiative in other member roles.<sup>16</sup>

Another variable to consider in the definitive aspect of leadership styles is the performance variable. Why is the structuring of member involvement and performance not included in the definition of leadership? First, the leader cannot do all the work of all the members of the group. Second, the initiation of performance is not confined to leadership. It is a characteristic of every role in the group. In terms of our analysis, one of the prime functions of

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<sup>15</sup>Ibid., p. 56.

<sup>16</sup>Ibid., p. 57.

leadership is that of providing freedom for the initiation of involvement and performance in other roles. The only restriction of this freedom for initiative that concerns leadership is such restriction as may result from the maintenance of structure in role definition. Within this range of definition, initiative for performance remains with the occupant of each position in the group. Any serious violation of this freedom for initiative is likely to reduce group productivity and possible integration of the group as well.<sup>17</sup>

Research on the emergence of leadership in experimental groups suggests that the greater degree of freedom granted to higher status members directly concerned with the initiation, reinforcement, and maintenance of a structure results in more differentiated roles. Little progress toward task performance is able to take place until such structure has been achieved and stabilized. However, the group members in granting greater freedom to fellow members in positions of greater potential, do not thereby relinquish their rights to the initiation of task performance in their own positions. In fact, they may tend to grant higher status to the member who exhibits considerable tolerance for initiative in other members. It appears that the individual most likely to emerge as a leader in a group is one who is capable of reconciling the complex demands involved in the maintenance of group productivity, structural integration, and freedom of action in goal striving. This is regarded as a basic function of leadership.<sup>18</sup>

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<sup>17</sup>Ibid.

<sup>18</sup>Ibid., p. 58.



According to Warren G. Bennis, the role of the leader has become infinitely more complex, for he is now in the center of a highly variegated set of pressures and roles. The leader presides over a complex establishment; his job is to coordinate, transact, motivate, and integrate. Simply, he must have the knowledge and confidence to produce environments where the most able people can realize their talents, coordinate their efforts, remain committed to organizational goals, and integrate their efforts for more effective results. Perhaps the most difficult aspect of this style of leadership is to transact those recalcitrant parts of the system that are retarded or non-functioning. This will require enormous energy, patience, and much optimism.<sup>19</sup> Bennis outlines five sets of competencies for this new concept of leadership:

1. Knowledge of large complex systems, their dynamics, and their tribal customs.
2. Practical theories of intervening and guiding these systems, theories that encompass methods for seeding, nurturing, and integrating individuals and groups.
3. Interpersonal competence. This includes at least three components: (a) the sensitivity to understand the effects of one's own behavior on others and how one's own personality shapes his particular leadership style and value system; (b) a capacity to develop adequate methods for valid feedback; and (c) managing conflict.
4. A set of values and competencies which enables one to know

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<sup>19</sup>Warren G., Bennis, "New Patterns of Leadership for Tomorrow's Organization," Technology Review 70 (April 1968): 36.

when to confront and to attack, if necessary, and when to support and provide the psychological safety so necessary for growth.

5. An ability to develop and use all types of informational systems including high speed electric computers. The job of leader will be to collect, organize, and transmit information.<sup>20</sup>

Douglas McGregor examines personal characteristics required for effective performance as a leader. He maintains that these characteristics vary, depending on various factors. He also feels that leadership is not a property of the individual, but a complex relationship among many variables.<sup>21</sup> There are four major variables McGregor feels to be involved in leadership:

- (1) the characteristics of the leader; (2) the attitudes, needs, and other personal characteristics of the followers; (3) the characteristics of the organization, such as its purpose, its structure, the nature of the task to be performed; and (4) the social, economic, and political milieu.<sup>22</sup>

McGregor established the premise that the relationship between the leader and the situation is basically circular. Organizational structure and policy, for example, are established at the top management level. Once established, they set limits on the leadership patterns that will be acceptable within the company or the organization. However, influences from the top management level, from within the lower management levels and the labor force of the organization itself, or

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<sup>20</sup>Ibid., pp. 37-38.

<sup>21</sup>Douglas McGregor, Leadership and Motivation (Cambridge: Massachusetts Institute of Technology Press, 1966), p. 73.

<sup>22</sup>Ibid.

from outside, which include such forces as social legislation, changes in the supply and demand, etc., bring about changes in the characteristics of the organization itself. Some of these changes may lead to a redefinition of acceptable leadership patterns. The same is true with the influence of the broader milieu. The social values, the economic and political conditions, the general standard of living, the level of education of the population, and other factors characteristic of the late 1800s played an important role with the kinds of people who were successful as industrial leaders during that era. Those men, in turn, helped develop and shape the nature of the industrial environment.

An important point that McGregor makes with respect to the situational influences on leadership is that they operate selectively--in subtle and unnoticed as well as obvious ways--to reward conformity with acceptable patterns of behavior and to punish those who deviate from conformity. The differing situations from organization to organization have their selective consequences. The observable managerial types in certain organizations are illustrative of this phenomenon. One consequence of this selectivity is the tendency to remove deviant individuals from the organization, some of whom might nevertheless become effective, perhaps outstanding, leaders.

Even if there is no single universal pattern of characteristics of the leader, is it conceivable at least that there might be certain universal characteristics of the relationship between the leader and the other factors that are essential for optimum organized human effort in any situation? This is doubtful. There is more than one way of

achieving optimum organized human efforts in situations.<sup>23</sup>

It does not follow from these considerations that any individual can become a successful leader in a given situation. It does follow that successful leadership is not dependent on the possession of a single universal pattern of inborn traits and abilities. It is possible that leadership potential is broadly rather than narrowly distributed in the population.

Some research findings suggest that it is more appropriate to consider leadership as a relationship between the leader and the situation than as a universal pattern of characteristics possessed by certain people. The differences in requirements for successful leadership in different situations are more striking than the similarities. Moreover, research studies emphasize the importance of leadership skills and attitudes that can be acquired and are, therefore, not inborn characteristics of the individual.<sup>24</sup>

James J. Cribbin speaks to the nature of managerial leadership. Cribbin defines leadership as certain qualities or characteristics a person has; for better or worse, people still speak in terms of so-called leaders and non-leaders.<sup>25</sup>

Cribbin indicates further that leadership can best be described as a process of influence on a group in a particular situation, at a given point in time, and in a specific set of circumstances that

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<sup>23</sup>Ibid., p. 74.

<sup>24</sup>Ibid., p. 75.

<sup>25</sup>James J. Cribbin, Effective Managerial Leadership (The American Management Association, Inc., 1972), p. 9.

stimulate people to strive willingly to attain organizational objectives giving them the experience of helping attain the common objectives and satisfaction with the type of leadership provided. Cribbin explains that this leadership mentioned is a process of influence. If managers must manage, then leaders must lead. They must relate to and interact with their subordinates. Leadership is a continuous effort on the part of the leader and it seeks not reflex responses to organizational demands but rather the positive factor which makes the difference between mediocrity and excellence. The formally designated leader can influence his followers in a positive way. Influence implies that the leader is accepted by his subordinates, is looked to for guidance and direction and is perceived by them as capable of leading them. At the heart of the influence process is the impact that one human being has on another or a group.<sup>26</sup>

Cribbin further states that the effective leader stimulates people to strive willingly to attain organizational objectives. There is a tendency in many organizations to be oversecretive, to oversupervise, and to overcontrol. The best approach is for the leader to begin with defining just what his objective is, namely, to pull a group of self-starters together into a cohesive group committed to organizational goals. When it is within the competence and responsibility of his subordinates, he could allow them to set up their own objectives and procedures provided these conform with those of the firm and its policies. The simple fact is that some leaders have neither enough understanding of nor enough interest in their people to adopt this approach. Many will work

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<sup>26</sup>Ibid., p. 10.

on the assumption that, given half a chance, employees will not work effectively. In all organizations many plans and goals come down the chain of command. Even though the leader may have had no say in establishing them, his duty is obvious. He must do his utmost to get his people to accept organizational aims and, if possible, to help them identify with the aims as a means for attaining their own goals. He always has the right to dissent; he may even have the obligation to make his dissent known to someone in a higher authority position. But he has no right to resist the legitimate demands of superiors; this would be simple disloyalty. Far too frequently the plans and aims of top management do not get a genuine chance to succeed because lower level managers make every effort to prove that top management was wrong in making the decision and do not support management in carrying the decision out.<sup>27</sup>

Cribbin sums up this analysis of the leader by stating that:

The qualities that the manager/leader possesses or lacks are not nearly so important as is his understanding of what kinds of behavior and which characteristics are likely to attract or alienate the work group.<sup>28</sup>

The entire notion of relying on the qualities that the leader should have represents a large misemphasis. Since it is the group he would influence, he must take his cues not from abstract research but from the persons and personalities who constitute the work force.<sup>29</sup>

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<sup>27</sup>Ibid., p. 11.

<sup>28</sup>Ibid., p. 31.

<sup>29</sup>Ibid.

## Various Leadership Styles

### Benevolent Autocracy

Robert McMurry believes that the realities of organizational life have doomed what is referred to as a democratic leadership. He offers the following reasons for the demise of democratic leadership:

1. The climate within organizations is unfavorable for democratic leadership. The leaders in the organization have worked hard to obtain their positions in the managerial hierarchy. Accordingly, they are likely to be aggressive and would like to control the destiny of their firms. These individuals are not likely to favor or employ a delegation of decision-making power.
2. Since most organizations must make rapid and difficult decisions, it is in their best interest to maintain the control in a centralized group of leaders. Thus, freedom of action is somewhat constrained by the need to make rapid decisions and democratic leadership is not feasible because it encourages freedom of action.
3. Democratic leadership concepts are unproven. Historically, successful firms have followed classical organization principles. These principles are generally compatible with autocratic and not with democratic leadership.<sup>30</sup>

These three reasons are the evidence offered by McMurry to justify his claim that the benevolent autocrat is the most effective leader. This type of leader structures subordinates' work activities,

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<sup>30</sup>Robert N. McMurry, "The Case for Benevolent Autocracy," Harvard Business Review 36 (Jan.-Feb. 1958): 82-84.

makes the policy decisions affecting them, and also enforces discipline. The so-called benevolent autocrat may encourage participation in the planning of a new course of action, but is the head leader in carrying out a decision. The benevolent autocrat is concerned about subordinates' feelings, attitudes, and productivities; but despite these humanistic feelings, uses rules, regulations, and specified policies.<sup>31</sup>

### The Managerial Grid Theory

Another theory regarding leadership style which is based on research findings is the so-called managerial grid concept. Blake and Mouton propose that leadership styles can be plotted on a two-dimensional grid. This grid is presented in Figure 1 on the following page.<sup>32</sup>

Five specific leadership styles are indicated in the grid. Of course, these are only a few of the possible styles of leadership that are utilized. These styles are listed as follows:

1. 1.1 Impoverished - A minimum effort to accomplish the work is exerted by the leader.
2. 9.1 Task - The leader concentrates on task efficiency but shows little regard for the development and morale of subordinates.
3. 1.9 Country Club - The leader focuses on being supportive and considerate of employees; however, task efficiency is not the primary concern of this easy-going style.
4. 5.5 Middle-of-the-Road - Adequate task efficiency and satisfactory morale are the goals of this style.

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<sup>31</sup>Ibid., pp. 85-90.

<sup>32</sup>Robert R. Blake and Jane S. Mouton, The Managerial Grid (Dallas, Texas: Gulf Publishing Co., 1964), p. 10.



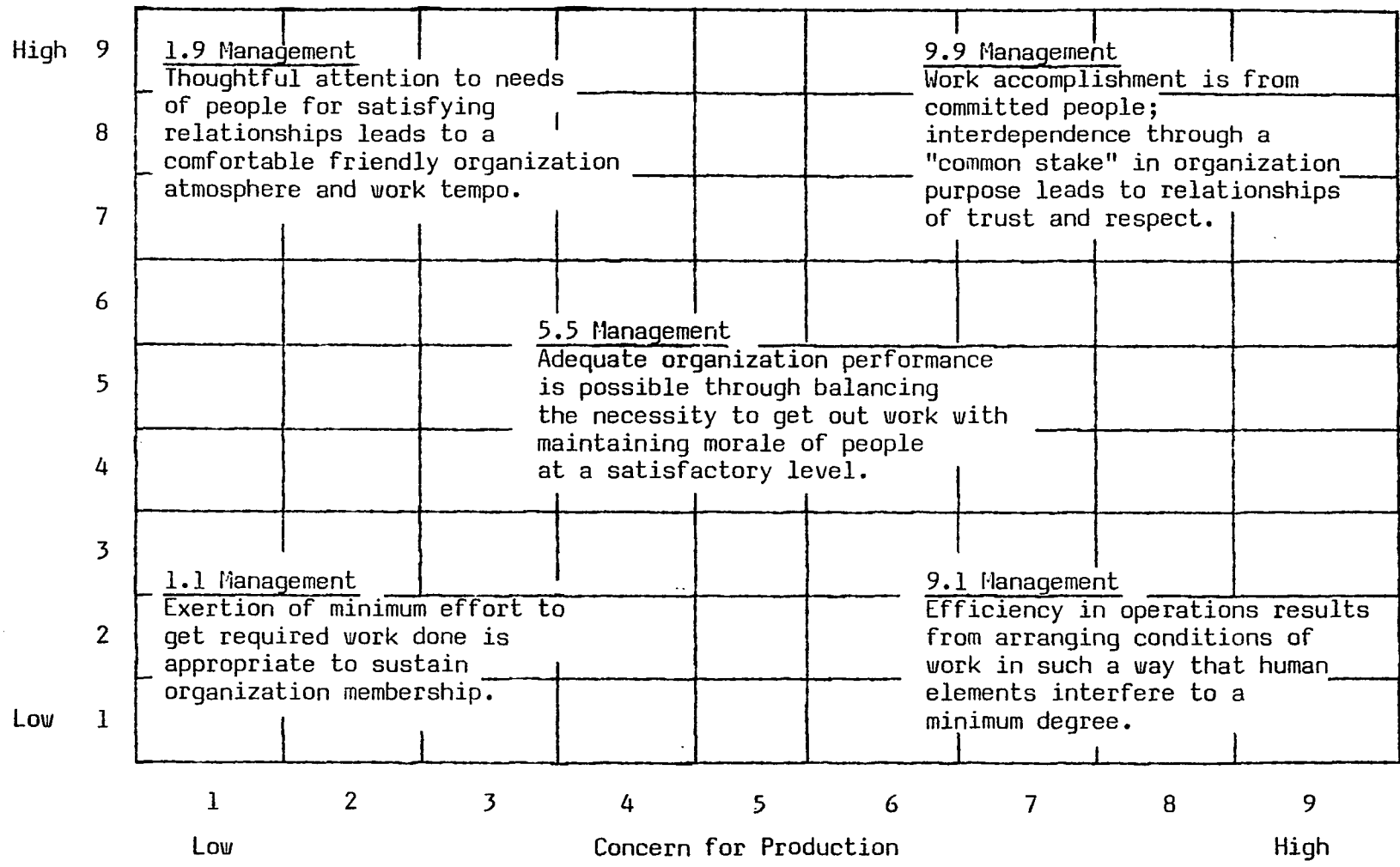


Figure 1. Managerial Grid of Leadership Styles

5. 9.9 Team - The leader facilitates production and morale by coordinating and integrating work-related activities.<sup>33</sup>

It is assumed by Blake and Mouton that the leader who is a Team (9.9) would be using the most effective style. However, defining a Team (9.9) leader for every type of job is very difficult. But Blake and Mouton imply that a managerial development program can move leaders toward a Team (9.9) style. They recommend a number of management development phases. It is assumed that the development experience will aid the manager in acquiring concern for fellow employees and expertise to accomplish tasks objectives such as productivity and quality. Four of these phases are outlined below:<sup>34</sup>

1. Laboratory-Seminar Groups Phase - Typically, one-week conferences are held to introduce the leaders to the grid approach and philosophy. The training of the leaders in the conferences is conducted by line managers of the organization who are already familiar with the ideas of Blake and Mouton. A key part of the phase is to analyze and evaluate one's own leadership style.
2. Teamwork Phase - Each department or segment of the organization works out and specifies its own Team (9.9) description. This phase is an extension of phase one, which includes leaders from different departments or work stations in the conference groups. Thus, in the second phase, managers from the same department or work station are brought together. The intent of phases one and two is to enable leaders to

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<sup>33</sup>Ibid., pp. 110-113.

<sup>34</sup>Ibid., p. 113.

learn the grid philosophy, improve their ability to evaluate their own leadership style, and to develop cohesiveness among the participants.

3. Inter-Group Interaction Phase - This phase involves inter-group discussion and analysis of Team (9.9) plans and specifications. Situations are created whereby tensions and conflicts that exist between groups are analyzed and evaluated by group members.
4. Organizational Goal-Setting Phase - Goal-setting on the part of the leaders in the program is discussed and analyzed. Such problems as finance, production, and safety are placed in a goal-setting context.

The managerial grid approach relates task effectiveness and human satisfaction to a formal managerial developmental program. This program is unique in that (1) line managers, not academicians or consultants, run the program, (2) a conceptual framework of management (the grid) is utilized, and (3) the entire managerial hierarchy undergoes development, not just one group level (for example, first-line supervisors).<sup>35</sup>

#### Situational Leadership Theory

According to A. K. Korman, writers and practitioners in the field of leadership and management during the past few years have been involved in a search for the best style of leadership which would be successful in most situations. Yet much evidence from research

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<sup>35</sup>Ibid., p. 114.

indicates that there is no single all-purpose leadership style. Successful leaders are those who can adapt their behavior to meet the demands of their own unique environment. This conclusion that leadership depends on the particular situation may not be very helpful to the practicing educational leader who may be personally interested in how he or she can find some practical value in theory.<sup>36</sup>

Unless one can help this leader determine when it is appropriate to behave in what way, all theory and research have done is set the practitioner up for confusion. As a result, one of the major concerns of the work of Paul Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard has been the development of a conceptual framework which can help practicing managers make effective day-to-day decisions on how various situations should be handled. This framework is called the situational leadership theory.<sup>37</sup>

The theory of situational leadership grew out of earlier leadership models that were based on two kinds of behavior central to the concept of leadership style: task behavior and relationship behavior. Task behavior is the extent to which a leader engages in one-way communication by explaining what each subordinate is to do as well as when, where, and how tasks are to be accomplished. Relationship behavior is the extent to which a leader engages in two-way communication by providing socio-emotional support, psychological support, and facilitating behaviors. The two dimensions of leader behavior are illustrated

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<sup>36</sup>A. K. Korman, "Consideration, Initiating Structure, and Organizational Criteria--A Review," Personnel Psychology: A Journal of Applied Research 4 (Winter 1966): 349.

<sup>37</sup>Paul Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard, "Life Cycle Theory of Leadership," Training and Development Journal 5 (May 1969): 30.

on the following page on Figure 2.<sup>38</sup>

Situational leadership theory is based upon an interplay among (1) the amount of direction (task behavior) a leader gives, (2) the amount of socio-emotional support (relationship behavior) a leader provides, and (3) the maturity level which followers exhibit on a specific task. According to situational leadership theory, as the level of maturity of their followers continues to increase in terms of accomplishing a specific task, leaders should begin to reduce their task behavior and increase their relationship behavior. This should be the case until the individual or group reaches a moderate level of maturity. Hersey and Blanchard point out that these variables of maturity should be considered only in relation to a specific task to be performed. As the followers begin to move into an above-average level of maturity, it becomes appropriate for leaders to decrease not only task behavior but relationship behavior as well. Now the individual or group is not only mature in terms of performance of the task but also is psychologically mature.<sup>39</sup>

Since the individual or group can provide their own reinforcement, a great deal of socio-emotional support from the leader is no longer necessary. People at this maturity level see a reduction of close supervision and an increase in delegation by the leader as a positive indication of trust and confidence. Thus, situational leadership theory focuses on the appropriateness or effectiveness of

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<sup>38</sup>Ibid., p. 31.

<sup>39</sup>Ibid., p. 33.

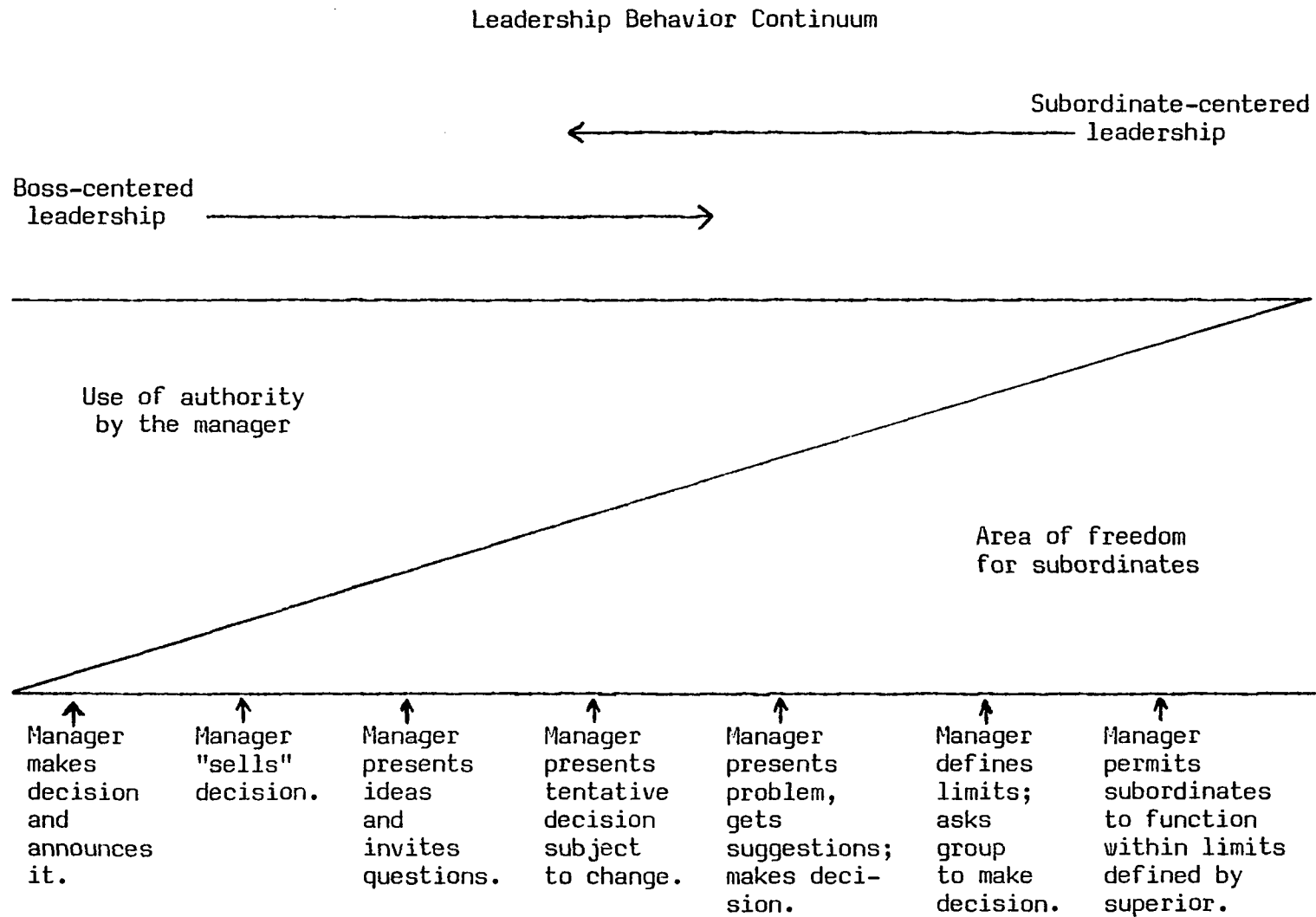


Figure 2

leadership styles according to the task relevant maturity of the followers.<sup>40</sup>

In an article entitled "Diagnosing Educational Leadership Problems" Hersey and Blanchard carry the aspect of maturity in developing group leadership one step further. In attempting to help an individual or group mature in a particular area, such as getting them to take more and more responsibility for performing a specific task, a leader must be careful not to delegate responsibility and/or provide socio-emotional support too rapidly. If the leader does this, the individual or group may view the leader as passive and take advantage.<sup>41</sup> Hersey and Blanchard state further:

A leader must develop the maturity of followers slowly on each task that they perform, using less task behavior and more relationship behavior as they mature and become more willing and able to take responsibility.<sup>42</sup>

When an individual's performance is low on a specific task, one must not expect drastic changes overnight. For a desirable behavior to be obtained, a leader must reward as soon as possible the slightest behavior exhibited by the individual in the desired direction and continue this process as the individual's behavior becomes closer and closer to the leader's expectations of good performance.<sup>43</sup>

For many years the most common approach to the study of leadership concentrated on leadership traits per se, suggesting that there

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<sup>40</sup>Ibid., p. 34.

<sup>41</sup>Paul Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard, "Diagnosing Educational Leadership Problems: A Situational Approach," Educational Leadership 33 (February 1976): 352.

<sup>42</sup>Ibid., p. 353.      <sup>43</sup>Ibid., pp. 353-354.

were certain characteristics such as physical energy or friendliness that were essential for effective leadership. These inherent personal qualities like intelligence were felt to be transferable from one situation to another. Since all individuals did not have these qualities, only those who had them were considered to be potential leaders. Consequently, this approach seemed to question the value of training individuals to assume leadership positions. It implied that if those leadership qualities which are inborn in the individual could be identified and measured, it would be possible to screen leaders from non-leaders. Leadership training would then be helpful only to those with inherent leadership traits.<sup>44</sup>

A review of the research literature using the trait approach to leadership has revealed few significant or consistent findings.<sup>45</sup>

As Eugene E. Jennings concludes, "Fifty years of study have failed to produce one personality trait or set of qualities that can be used to discriminate leaders and non-leaders."<sup>46</sup> Empirical studies suggest that leadership is a dynamic process varying from situation to situation with changes in leaders, followers, and situations. Current literature seems to support this situational or leader behavioral approach to the study of leadership.<sup>47</sup>

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<sup>44</sup>Paul Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard, Management of Organizational Behavior (Camden, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1972), p. 68.

<sup>45</sup>Cecil A. Gibb, Handbook of Social Psychology (Cambridge, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., Inc., 1954), p. 35.

<sup>46</sup>Eugene E. Jennings, "The Anatomy of Leadership," Management of Personnel Quarterly I (Autumn 1961): 3.

<sup>47</sup>John K. Hemphill, Situational Factors in Leadership (Cleveland, Ohio: Ohio State University Press, 1949), pp. 1-13.



Tannenbaum and Schmidt postulate that managers often have difficulty in deciding what type of action is most appropriate for handling a particular problem. They are not sure whether to make the decision or to delegate the decision-making authority to subordinates. To clarify this issue, Tannenbaum and Schmidt suggest a continuum.<sup>48</sup>

According to Tannenbaum and Schmidt, leadership actions are related to the degree of authority used by managers and to the amount of freedom available to the subordinates in reaching decisions. Leaders who would be most effective would be those leaders who are adaptable, that is, who can delegate authority effectively because they consider their capabilities, subordinates' capabilities, and the goals which are to be accomplished. The leaders should not choose a strict autocratic or democratic style but should be flexible enough to cope with different situations.<sup>49</sup>

Many of the various leadership styles examined thus far have characteristics which could possibly provide for teacher involvement in curricular and instructional decision-making. However, this writer will examine participative management as a leadership style which is productive in involving teachers in curricular and instructional decision-making.

#### Toward a Participative Management Style

Harry R. Knudson examines a continuum of leadership behavior

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<sup>48</sup>Robert Tannenbaum and Warren H. Schmidt, "How to Choose a Leadership Pattern" Harvard Business Review (May-June 1973): 162-180.

<sup>49</sup>Ibid., p. 165.

and emphasizes the importance of employee involvement and participation in decision-making. Evidence began to challenge the efficiency of highly directive leadership in the last few years. An increasing attention was paid to problems of motivation in human relations. Figure 3 on page 41 represents the continuum or range of possible leadership behavior available to a manager. Each type of action is related to the degree of authority used by the boss and to the amount of freedom available to his subordinates in reaching decisions. The actions seen on the extreme left characterize the leader who maintains a high degree of control while those seen on the extreme right characterize the leader who releases a high degree of control. Neither extreme is absolute; authority and freedom are never without their limitations.<sup>50</sup>

As the continuum in the chart demonstrates, there are a number of alternative ways in which a leader can relate himself to the group or individuals he is supervising. At the extreme left of the range, the emphasis is on the leader, on what he is interested in, how he sees things, how he feels about them. As we move toward the subordinate-centered end of the continuum, however, the focus is increasingly on the subordinates and their opinions.<sup>51</sup>

According to Blanchard and Hersey in further studies, leadership style is a major factor in the successful accomplishment of the many tasks required of an educational administrator. An administrator's leadership style develops in proportion to his adaptation to organizational structure, his personality and value system, his concept of

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<sup>50</sup>Harry R. Knudson, Human Elements of Administration (New York: Holt, Rhinehart, and Winston, 1963), p. 121.

<sup>51</sup>Ibid., p. 122.

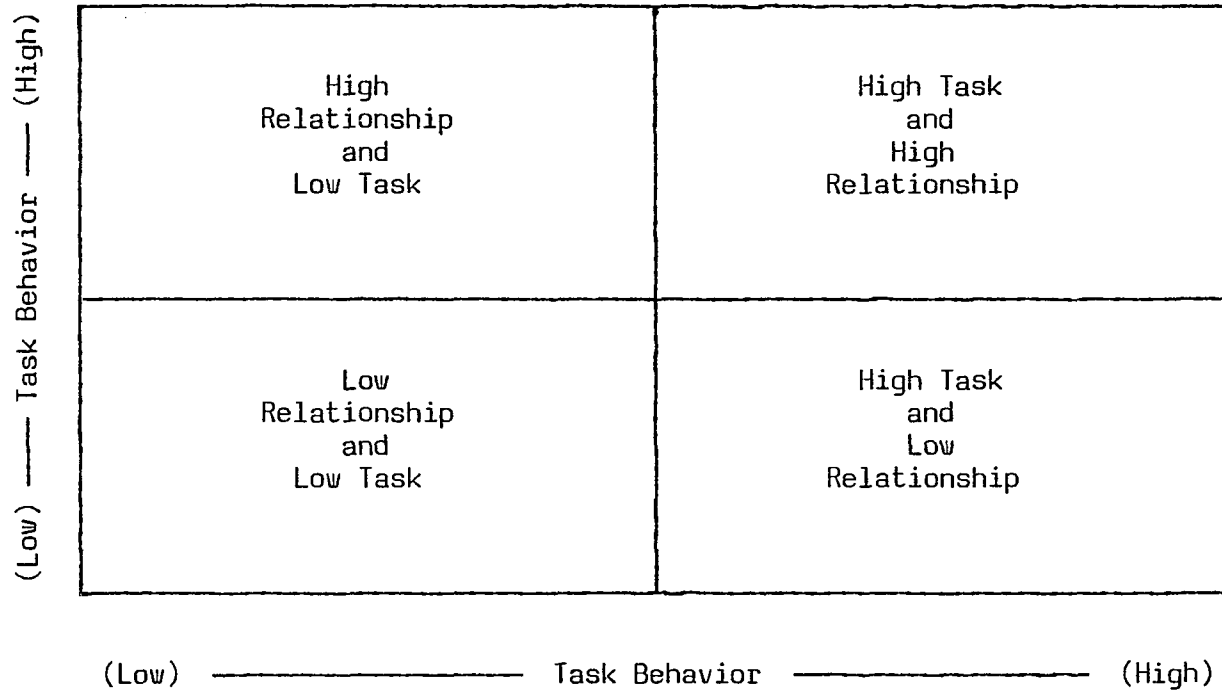


Figure 3. Basic Leader Behavior Styles

personal success, experiences both in and out of his managerial capacity, and the role expectations as perceived by others. The resulting style in turn greatly influences the school and its personnel.<sup>52</sup>

Leadership style affects organizational climate, superior-subordinate relationships, and subordinate job satisfaction. Each school administrator's particular method of operation influences his ability to perform well within the organizational hierarchy. The particular style of leadership must enable the administrator to confront a variety of problems and situations on behalf of the school organization.<sup>53</sup>

Gaynor identifies three major styles of leadership: (1) personal transactional, (2) authoritarian, and (3) participative. The personal transactional leader seeks information, makes decisions based on that information and communicates to his subordinates. The style is basically leader-centered. The authoritarian leader is subject-centered, emphasizing curriculum over personnel. His style involves impersonal communication and an emphasis on authority. The participative leader is person-oriented and emphasizes human relations and face-to-face communication.<sup>54</sup>

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<sup>52</sup>Kenneth H. Blanchard and Paul Hersey, "A Leadership Theory for Educational Administrators," Education 4 (April 1970): 303.

<sup>53</sup>Ibid., p. 304.

<sup>54</sup>Alan K. Gaynor. Playing the Role of the Principal: Patterns of Administrative Response (Bethesda, Md.: ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 062 714, 1972), pp. 1-2.

Ignatovich designed a research project to identify leader types from teacher descriptions of elementary principal leader behaviors. At the same time, he was interested in studying the effects of leader types on teacher behavior.

Responses from ninety-nine Iowa elementary schools revealed three basic principal leadership types. The "Tolerant-Integrator" principal is considerate and tolerant in his dealings with subordinates. The "Intolerant-Structuralist" principal is more bureaucratic and role-oriented and he tends to stress production. The "Tolerant-Interloper" principal grants teachers complete freedom and does not assume the leader role.

The research indicates that teachers feel less disengaged from the organization and less burdened by their work load under "Tolerant-Integrator" principals. Their morale also tends to be higher under such leaders. Ignatovich found principal type to be unrelated to both staff size and organization intimacy.<sup>55</sup>

Bernthal examines different types of organization--charismatic, traditional, bureaucratic and task-oriented and the role of the leader in each. In the modern task-oriented system associated with educational management, the leader role cannot be generalized as decision-making, direction and control, problem-solving, inspiration, communication, or any other simple function. Instead the leader in such an organization must realistically assess environmental forces or constraints, articulate

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<sup>55</sup>Frederick R. Ignatovich. Types of Elementary School Principal-Leaders: A Q-Factor Analysis (Bethesda, Md.: ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 054 516, 1971), pp. 1-6.

the organization's mission, secure resources for the functions of the organization, represent the organization to its constituency, and provide internal communication, coordination, and conflict resolution.

The leader of a task-oriented system must be flexible and adaptive rather than authoritarian or democratic. He must correctly assess the forces in himself, the organization, and the larger environment. Then he must respond appropriately to these factors in each situation.

Bernthal contends that a task-oriented system requires an administrator who is neither strong nor weak but an integral part of a complex social system. The administrator's goal is productive integration of human and non-human resources in an organization working toward a common goal.<sup>56</sup>

A paper by McIntyre investigates the concept of personal success as a determinant of a school principal's managerial style. McIntyre identifies four factors that affect administrative style: decisional premises, or personal beliefs about what will cause desired results; responses to known success and failure; the capacity to function effectively without knowledge of results; and the yardsticks used to measure personal success.

Confronted simultaneously with the strong desire to know how well he is doing and the problematic character of estimating his success within the organization, the principal is impelled to work out ways in which he can reduce

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<sup>56</sup> Wilmar P. Bernthal. Organization Leadership: Some Conceptual Models (Bethesda, Md: ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 034 530, 1969), p. 1.

the uncertainty about his personal success. How he chooses to solve his success problem is a major determinant of his managerial style.<sup>57</sup>

McIntyre cited examples of typical methods principals used to reduce uncertainty about personal success. Principals may be concerned with their status in the bureaucracy. If so, they probably engage in behavior which will get the attention of the superiors. Or they may be concerned with their progress as professionals in which case they usually seek public visibility. They solicit the high opinion of subordinates through a personnel-oriented style. Or they may be conscious only of organizational efficiency. If so, their style is oriented to rules and regulations.<sup>58</sup>

Arthur Combs contends that what an administrator does or knows will not distinguish him as an effective or ineffective administrator but the belief system he holds will. The first priority of an administrator is to decide what is important, since his decision about what is important determines administrator effectiveness.

Many administrators view their job as being a helper to people. Good helpers approach a problem from the viewpoint of the other person. A good helper is positive in his view of people. He sees himself in positive ways. He is characterized by altruistic purposes and larger goals and he fits his methods to the task at hand. Such a person,

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<sup>57</sup> Kenneth F. McIntyre. The Principalship in the 1970's (Bethesda, Md.: ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 052 534, 1971), p. 2.

<sup>58</sup> Ibid., p. 3.

Combs states, is more likely to be a good administrator.<sup>59</sup>

Terry Thomas examines behavior changes of a group of elementary school principals who participated in a laboratory-training experience designed to improve their human relations skills. He used a pre-study and a post-study, with a control group, to determine resulting differences in the job-related interpersonal behavior of the principals and in the organizational climate of their schools.<sup>60</sup>

Compared to the control group, the laboratory-trained principals became more tactful and more considerate of the individual needs of the staff. They demonstrated a more collaborative approach to decision-making. Thomas also notes that being more tactful, more considerate, and more democratic with the staff could help a principal overcome the interpersonal barriers sometimes associated with assisting a teacher to improve in his teaching performance.

The staffs of the participating principals exhibited higher group morale after the laboratory experience. In addition the organizational climate of the schools managed by laboratory-trained principals became more open.<sup>61</sup>

In a later analysis of the same research, Thomas notes that changes were also apparent within the control group while the

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<sup>59</sup>Arthur W. Combs, "The Human Aspect of Administration," Educational Leadership 28 (November 1970): 197-205.

<sup>60</sup>Terry A. Thomas. The Effects of Laboratory Training on Elementary School Principals: An Evaluation (Bethesda, Md.: ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 034 311, 1969), pp. 3-19.

<sup>61</sup>Ibid., pp. 20-22.



experimental group changed in a more desirable direction in every variable. Eight months after the laboratory, the control group scored lower on all but two variables. Control group scores in the area of dominance and cohesion remain similar before and after the laboratory.<sup>62</sup>

Thomas W. Wiggins elaborates further regarding principals' effectiveness:

The principal's concept of his role, the need-disposition of his personality, and the role expectations of the various groups he serves, each have an effect on his personal style and effectiveness.<sup>63</sup>

He further maintains that the major influence on the principal's leadership style is the role construed for him by the school and the school district. In fact, Wiggins contends a school administrator is influenced by the roles and expectations of the school, the school district, and the patrons as much as the school is influenced by his personal style as administrator. The report calls for a reexamination of the administrative leadership tradition that presumes the power, authority, and influence of principals to be the major source of thrust and significance in the educational enterprise.<sup>64</sup>

Experienced teachers enrolled in graduate courses evaluated their principals according to criteria delineated by Robert Utz. They ranked principals by overall effectiveness, consideration for teachers,

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<sup>62</sup>Ibid., pp. 22-34.

<sup>63</sup>Thomas W. Wiggins. Conceptualizing Principal Behavior in the School Climate, A Systems Analysis (Bethesda, Md.: ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 041 387, 1970), pp. 3-13.

<sup>64</sup>Ibid., pp. 3-13.

development of learning programs, plant management skills, concern for production, and concern for people.<sup>65</sup>

Utz found a positive relationship between perceived effectiveness and concern for people and concern for production ratings. In his study, perceived effectiveness had a parallel relationship to ratings on consideration, development of learning programs, and plant management. Those principals whose effectiveness was ranked below average, scored lower on concern for people than on concern for production.<sup>66</sup>

Henry Tosi investigates the interrelationship of leadership style and subordinate authoritarianism. Tosi concludes that the personality characteristics of subordinates affect their reactions to different leadership styles and that effective leadership style is contingent on the position power of a leader and the favorableness of the relationships within the group.

Specifically, an authoritarian subordinate feels he has more influence on his work situation when he works for a directive manager. Subordinate job satisfaction is highest when the subordinate is authoritarian and the manager directive. In short, the superior-subordinate pairing most satisfactory to the subordinate is one in which the superior is directive and the subordinate authoritarian.<sup>67</sup>

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<sup>65</sup>Robert T. Utz. Principal Leadership Styles and Effectiveness as Perceived by Teachers (Bethesda, Md.: ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 064 240, 1972), pp. 1-8.

<sup>66</sup>Ibid., pp. 9-11.

<sup>67</sup>Henry L. Tosi. The Effect of the Interaction of Leader Behavior and Subordinate Authoritarianism (Bethesda, Md.: ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 056 341, 1970), pp. 17-18.

To reduce the incompatibility of the sociopsychological needs of teachers and bureaucratic management patterns in educational organizations, Chung recommends a teacher-centered management style:

If there are no adjustments to the demands and needs of teachers, there will be an increased conflict between school administrators and teachers and this trend will result in the deterioration of teacher administration relationships.<sup>68</sup>

Over the past few decades the literature in management, business, and educational administration has increased in treatment of participation in decision-making as an important organizational variable. The studies of Coch and French indicated that participation in decision-making was positively associated with productivity and significantly reduced resistance to change.<sup>69</sup> Sharma found that teachers clearly indicated a desire to participate in decisions associated with instruction.<sup>70</sup>

In Chapter III participative management will be presented as a possible effective leadership approach to one aspect of the operation of a small school system--the involvement of teachers in curricular and instructional decision-making. Other areas of the school organization may operate more efficiently with another leadership style, but this writer will pursue participative management as a possible basis for developing an organizational structure to facilitate teacher involvement.

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<sup>68</sup>Ki-Suck Chung. Teacher-Centered Management Style of Public School Principals and Job Satisfaction of Teachers (Bethesda, Md.: ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 042 259, 1970), p. 10.

<sup>69</sup>Lester Coch and John French, "Overcoming Resistance to Change," Human Relations 1 (1948): 512-532.

<sup>70</sup>Chiranji Sharma, "Who Should Make What Decisions?" The Administrators' Notebook 3 (April 1955): 2.

## CHAPTER III

TEACHER INVOLVEMENT IN THE  
DECISION-MAKING PROCESSShould Teachers Be Involved in Decision-Making?

Since the beginning of the 1960s, much has been written about teachers' desires for more participation in the decision-making processes of public school systems. Their expectations, however, according to John W. Robinson, do not appear excessive or strongly militant. The author cites several major factors he feels are influencing teachers in their emerging desires to have a voice in the decision-making process. These factors involve changes due to school district reorganization, changes in the position of teacher professional organizations, and changes in teachers as individuals (e.g., higher level of preparation and more expertise in fields of study).<sup>1</sup>

Traditionally the principal has assumed the role of "middle man" when implementing administrative policies developed in the superintendent's office. Until recent times, teachers have been either content to accept this function of the principal or reluctant to complain about it, thus reconciling themselves to the role. They have expected the principal to communicate their concerns to the superintendent and School Board. These expectations of the principals' role have

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<sup>1</sup>John W. Robinson, "The Principal as Decision-Maker: Can Anyone Agree?" Oregon School Study Council Bulletin 14 (March 1971): 1-2.

not significantly facilitated the development of broad-base decision-making involving teachers.<sup>2</sup>

Principals have been reluctant to involve teachers in the process because as teachers have more opportunities to help make decisions, administrators fear they will lose their power and influential role. A. R. Dykes in "The Emergent Role of Administrators and the Implications for Teacher-Administrator Relations" states that involving teachers in decision-making is as much a responsibility of the administrator as any other impelling movement now underway in education. The more powerful role attributed to the administrator cannot be fulfilled unless the power potential of the teaching personnel within the system is developed and utilized. If this power is to be readily perceived, teachers must be organized and meaningfully involved in decision-making so as to have a hand in formulating those things they are asked to support.<sup>3</sup>

Tannenbaum and Schmidt feel that the present-day manager or administrator can be "democratic" in his relationship with his subordinates and subsequently maintain the authority and control necessary in the organization for which he is responsible. This problem has come into focus increasingly in recent years. The idea of "group dynamics" with its attention on members of the group rather

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<sup>2</sup>N. J. Boynam, "The Emergent Role of the Teacher and the Authority Structure of the School," paper presented at the Association of Educational Research Meeting, Arkansas University, 1966, p. 3.

<sup>3</sup>A. R. Dykes, "The Emergent Role of Administrators and the Implications for Teacher-Administrator Relations," paper presented at the Association of Educational Research Meeting, Arkansas University, 1966, pp. 1-2.

than on just the leader has gradually emerged from the social sciences. Social scientists' research has placed strong emphasis on the importance of employees being involved and participating in decision-making-- participatory management.<sup>4</sup>

According to Willard Fox, participative management is a term which is currently used in the business world. Educators are attempting to adopt and adapt some principles held by theorists and practitioners in the world of business. It is possible that because businessmen are serving on school boards, much attention has been given to participative management. Fox explains that participatory management means we are involving more people in the educational process. These people, because of their involvement, are becoming more cognizant of the management problems in education, and on the other hand, because of their presence and input, are really changing what happens to students, teachers, and administrators.

Fox also feels there is one aspect of participatory management which should not be overlooked. It has to do with setting goals. Whenever participatory management is working, there is a strong inclination toward goals, just rewards for achieving goals, and a high degree of enthusiasm on the part of the leader. This type of management provides everyone with some input avenues to management decisions.<sup>5</sup>

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<sup>4</sup>Schmidt and Tannenbaum, pp. 316-317.

<sup>5</sup>Willard Fox, "Can a School Really Be Administered Through Participatory Management," paper presented at American Association of School Administrators' Convention, San Francisco, California, March 1973, pp. 1-2.

Richard Schmuck and Philip Runkel view the decision-making style of group consensus as being most effective in the educational organization. This style represents a pattern of interaction in which all participating members contribute resources and all share in the final decision. No decision is final unless it has met the approval of nearly all members. Schmuck and Runkel observe that the consensus style, when applied to intricate problems requiring complex interpersonal coordination, brings about superior quality decisions, as well as decisions that are also usually well-implemented. A study by Coch and French in 1948 shows that group participants with little influence over a decision not only fail to share their resources in the decision but usually are less likely to implement the decision when action is required.<sup>6</sup>

James A. Conway in his "Participative Decision-Making and Perceptions of Organization" provides further rationale for involving teachers in the decision-making process. According to him, the treatment or participation in decision-making as an important organizational variable has increased in management literature, business, and educational administration over the past few decades.<sup>7</sup> Classic studies suggest that participation in decision-making was positively correlated with productivity and significantly decreased resistance to change. Bridges notes that teachers strongly indicate a desire to participate in decisions relative to instruction. Bridges (1967) developed a

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<sup>6</sup>Richard Schmuck and Philip Runkel, Organizational Training for a School Faculty (Eugene, Oregon: Educational Research Information Center Document, EA 002861, 1970), p. 27.

<sup>7</sup>James A. Conway, "Participative Decision-Making and Perceptions of Organization," paper presented at American Educational Research Association Annual Meeting, San Francisco, Feb. 25, 1973, p. 1.

rationale for participation as well as a model for achieving some level of participation in the school.<sup>8</sup>

Conway continues to state that further emphasis on the participatory idea is evidenced in the demands of teachers, students and communities to have a voice in the governance process. Throughout most of the writings on this idea of participation, there appears to be an unstated assumption that there is a direct relationship between participation and indices of goodness for the organization. In other words, participation raises morale, increases productivity, and the overall effectiveness of the organization increases.<sup>9</sup>

Fox feels a school can be administered through participatory management, especially if the superintendent and Board of Education understand what participatory management is in terms of their commitment and school district resources. The superintendent and Board of Education must also agree on what participatory management is and how it is to be implemented.<sup>10</sup>

Some advantages offered by researchers of involving teachers in decision-making and the influences they exert in the educational management process will be examined. Vroom in Work and Motivation relates that participation in decision-making by subordinates (teachers) results in greater job satisfaction, thus resulting in higher productivity.<sup>11</sup> Fox agrees that decision-making involvement raises productivity.<sup>12</sup>

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<sup>8</sup>Ibid.    <sup>9</sup>Ibid., pp. 1-2.    <sup>10</sup>Fox, p. 2.

<sup>11</sup>Victor H. Vroom, Work and Motivation (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1975), p. 220.

<sup>12</sup>Fox, p. 3.



One of the earliest investigations into the effects of participation in decision-making involved an experiment on the behavior of eleven-year-old boys as they were subjected to democratic, autocratic, and laissez-faire leadership. The twenty boys were organized into four clubs which met after school. Each of the clubs was subjected to at least six weeks of autocratic and six weeks of democratic leadership. Two of the clubs were also subjected to six weeks of laissez-faire leadership. Results indicated that the laissez-faire leaders had the worst productivity record. The autocratic leader had the highest level of productivity, but the boys stopped working when the leader left the room. Under democratic leadership, not only was productivity high, but it was maintained at about the same level regardless of whether the leader was in the room.

Vroom cites an experiment conducted by Coch and French in 1948 which revealed that productivity increases whenever people are involved in making decisions that affect them. Four work groups who were about to experience a change in work methods were used--one was a control group. The change was introduced in the usual manner to the control group. The three other groups, experimental groups, were allowed to participate in making decisions concerning some aspects of the change. There was a distinct difference in the productivity level of the four groups. The productivity of the control group dropped significantly. Resistance developed and there were numerous instances of aggression toward management. The experimental groups' level of production improved until it reached a level that

was fourteen percent above that they had reached before the change.<sup>13</sup>

Vroom asks the question, Why are persons more likely to carry out decisions they have helped to make than those over which they had no effect? One possibility is that democratic leadership results in the forming of group norms which are favorable to the successful execution of the decision. If a decision has been made jointly by the members of a work group, group members may exert pressure on each other to carry it out effectively.<sup>14</sup> Fox agrees by saying that, "The influence of the peer group is brought to bear on other members of the peer group who are not committed to organizational goals."<sup>15</sup>

Ronald Pellegrin states these findings are in full agreement with those of a substantial body of research and theory in social psychology. For many years, certain students of organizational processes have praised the improvements in morale and work effectiveness that come as a result of peer-group interaction and heavily involving teachers in decisions that relate directly to the work they perform. Pellegrin also contends that when groups are given authority to make and implement decisions significant to them, they make decisions effectively, responsibly, and enthusiastically. Group participation in decision-making increases teacher effectiveness and the power to affect decisions emphasizes their professionalism.<sup>16</sup>

Another advantage of teacher involvement in decision-making

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<sup>13</sup>Vroom, Work and Motivation, pp. 221-222.

<sup>14</sup>Ibid., p. 228.      <sup>15</sup>Fox, p. 2.

<sup>16</sup>Ronald J. Pellegrin, Professional Satisfaction and Decision-Making in the Multiunit Schools (Oregon: Center for the Advanced Study of Educational Administration, 1970), p. 11.

is that individuals' ego needs come closer to being satisfied.<sup>17</sup>

Vroom suggests that it is possible for people to become "ego involved" in decisions in which they had influence. If they have helped to make a decision, it is their decision, and the success or failure of the decision becomes the success or failure of those who made the decision. A successful decision confirms self-concept.<sup>18</sup> Harold Tannenbaum in Social Psychology of the Work Organization says participation can be ego enhancing and an important source of gratification.

Participation, according to Tannenbaum, can bring out material or practical rewards. One who participates can make decisions and possibly even influence policy in ways consistent with his own self-interest, depending on how much power is given to participating members. Participative decisions are more likely than hierarchial decisions to take into consideration the needs and interests of all persons, so the control is less likely to seem arbitrary.

Participation is also very frequently intrinsically satisfying. It may involve challenging activities that require intellectual, technological, and human relations skills to be used. Workers may use their knowledge and abilities in the development of better ways of doing their jobs. Not only is this a source of satisfaction, but it can be a source of many practical suggestions that contribute to efficiency and improved working conditions. Participation, to some extent, brings workers into management.

Tannenbaum feels participation also affects motivation. It

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<sup>17</sup>Fox, p. 3.

<sup>18</sup>Vroom, p. 228.

decreases estrangement and increases the identification of members with the organization. It encourages the exchange of feelings and ideas, thus cutting down on discrepancies in perceptions, ideals, and loyalties. Cooperative attitudes replace hostility and opposition.<sup>19</sup>

In a study on decision-making in the multiunit school conducted by Ronald Pellegrin, a survey of teachers revealed that those teachers were more satisfied with their jobs than those in traditional organized schools basically because they were allowed to participate in group decision-making. Group participation increased their effectiveness as teachers and the power to help make decisions emphasized their professionalism.

The data was gathered during the spring of 1968. Six schools were involved in the study population--three multiunit schools and three control schools located in the same communities. Questionnaires were distributed to all available professional personnel in the two types of schools. Questions covered a variety of matters relating to the characteristics of the schools and to the attitudes and goals of those who responded.<sup>20</sup> In a series of questions relating to specific activities like scheduling daily classroom activities, teachers were asked to indicate the role they played in the decision-making process in regard to each activity. The extents to which involvement took place were as follows:

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<sup>19</sup>Harold S. Tannenbaum, Social Psychology of the Work Organization (California: Wadsworth Publishing Co., Inc., 1966), p. 99.

<sup>20</sup>Pellegrin, p. 1.

1. Complete authority to make decisions themselves.
2. Authority to make decision after suggestions and recommendations were received from others.
3. Authority to make the decision within certain limits.
4. Authority to share the decision with others in a group or committee.
5. Decision made by others (no voice in decision).

It was noted that in most cases, 4. was selected by a large proportion of those multiunit teachers, almost ten times more often than in the control schools. The principal acted much less centrally as a decision-maker or limit setter. He was not viewed as an independent authority figure, but rather as a member of a group involved in decision-making.<sup>21</sup>

Pellegrin, in this study, has presented evidence that group participation by faculty members of multiunit schools is highly regarded. Both high job satisfaction and increased effectiveness were attributed to teachers being involved in decisions affecting their jobs. Evidence also shows that teachers' power to affect decisions is substantial.<sup>22</sup>

Arthur Blumberg in a paper on structural intervention and teacher decision-making states there are several developments which one can expect to take place when teachers help make decisions. Blumberg sees one of these developments, the most important one, as an increased feeling of power on the part of the teachers--a feeling that is expressed somewhat indirectly is that the school will develop in the

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<sup>21</sup>Ibid., pp. 5-6.      <sup>22</sup>Ibid., p. 11.

manner they want it to and not necessarily the way some central authority wants it to. Another of these developments, concurrent with the feeling of power, is what seems to be a sense of ownership of the school. Blumberg feels this is to be expected, for when a person can control his environment, he tends to want to make it his own. In school terms, this feeling of ownership can be translated into organizational loyalty and concern for school goals. Another development involves a higher commitment to the school as an organization. This possibly can best be indicated by large numbers of man hours teachers put in after school, in the evenings, and on weekends in regard to school problems. A fourth development involves evidence that in a school where teachers make decisions there will develop a sense of concern for the state of education outside their own building. A fifth development deals with the collaborative decision-making process which allows a breaking down of the isolated teacher in the self-contained classroom, particularly in the elementary school. In other words, it can be expected that if teachers talk and work together in one situation, they will do the same in other situations.<sup>23</sup>

Fred Feidler in his Profile of a School and Measurement of a Multi-Unit School Organization Change Program contends that if a school is to remain a building block for education, it must provide an environment where teachers can change their styles and methods to meet the rapidly changing needs of students and society. The conditions and demands now placed upon schools suggest that the

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<sup>23</sup>Arthur Blumberg, "Developing Teacher Decision-Making Through Structural Intervention," paper presented at American Educational Research Association, Los Angeles, California, February 1969, pp. 11-13.

traditional model of educational organization may not be adequate to provide the environment for learning for the future in a changing world. He asks the question--"What kind of organizational processes can be supplied to allow and encourage teachers to grow professionally and respond to current and future needs?"<sup>24</sup>

Theory regarding modern organizations and research from business and industrial organizational development suggests that organizations that change in the direction advocated by Renis Likert as being participative in management are more productive and elicit higher employee satisfaction than those organizations which are more authoritarian. Likert's organization which is participative is described as collaborative and interdependent overlapping between horizontal hierarchies and decision-making happening as near the point of implementation as possible.<sup>25</sup>

Fiedler contends that as schools become more democratic, as teachers are more pleased with school as a place to work, as teachers, principals, and other administrative officials work together, as participative decision-making occurs, and as teachers develop personally and interpersonally, schools can begin to provide a learning environment that is different from one that is bound by traditions and past expectations.<sup>26</sup>

As has been indicated thus far in Chapter III, research suggests that an educational system which involves its teachers in the

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<sup>24</sup>Fred Fiedler, "The Profile of a School and Measurement of a Multi-School Organization Change Program," paper presented at American Educational Research Association, San Francisco, 1973, p. 3.

<sup>25</sup>Ibid., p. 2.      <sup>26</sup>Ibid.

decision-making process is more likely to be successful in meeting current and future needs than a system which is educationally bureaucratic. School systems can easily be compared to business and industrial organizations. These organizations, according to studies done on autocratic, democratic, and laissez-faire styles of management, are more productive when participatory techniques in decision-making are used. When employees, teachers, are allowed to help share decisions which affect them, many good things happen for the organization-- productivity increases; group norms which are favorable to the successful execution of the decision are formed; teacher effectiveness is increased; teachers' ego needs come closer to being satisfied; an important source of gratification is provided; intrinsic needs are satisfied; workers are brought into management; motivation is positively affected; exchange of feelings and ideas is encouraged; hostility and opposition are replaced by cooperative attitudes; and teachers' professionalism is increased. Teachers also have a stronger feeling of power and pride in their educational system. A sense of ownership of the school results and teachers develop organizational loyalty and concern for the school's goals.

It is obvious, however, that teachers cannot and should not be involved in all system-level and school-level decision-making. Which areas and at what levels should teachers exercise governance and influence educational decisions? Arthur Blumberg in his model of "structural intervention" provides a means of dealing with teacher involvement. His model aims to create a mechanism through which teachers can exercise



power over matters that are internal to the school.<sup>27</sup>

Blumberg feels the introduction of a structure for teacher decision-making in a school requires very direct action on the part of the principal. This, he contends, may seem to be contradictory with the idea of sharing the decision-making process, but it is not. The point is the principal is the manager of the school organization. This role gives him the prerogative of developing the kind of decision-making structure he believes will produce the most positive organizational results.

After the structure has been developed and initiated, several results can be predicted that are not necessarily related to the decision-making itself. When power is shared, it is very difficult to retrieve unilaterally. It is, therefore, important that once the principal makes the decision to share his power, he must not change his mind. A reverse in his stance would drastically lower the level of teachers' trust. Also, the principal has to be aware that problems he might have solved on his own in a short amount of time could take much longer in group situations. The principal must be prepared to deal with his own frustrations as well as those of the teachers. Also important to remember is that the decision-making group has more ready access to the principal than other faculty. This suggests that a large number of teachers might drift more and more into the periphery of the organization.

Traditionally school districts have been organized in such a way that most decision-making took place in the central office,

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<sup>27</sup>Blumberg, p. 1.

centralization of decision-making. This tends to inhibit creative actions so that much of the potential effectiveness of the principal and teacher goes unrecognized. What is needed is a total school district learning management plan that places instructional decision-making as close to the learner as possible and encourages two-way initiating action.

Principals and superintendents, the authors feel, should have confidence in teachers to make decisions, and decentralization of management requires that confidence be placed in individuals to make decisions.<sup>28</sup> "A basic assumption is that educators are competent, that they are knowledgeable and have the necessary problem-identification and problem-solving skills."<sup>29</sup> The self-fulfilling prophecy concept is brought into action. That is, people are inclined to become what others expect them to be. If teachers are considered competent individuals, they will be competent individuals.

Recognizing a teacher's expertise is part of a genuine recognition of the growing and increasing professional competencies and capabilities of a teacher. No longer is the teacher the low man on the totem pole. He is a full partner on a team of professional educators.<sup>30</sup>

In the opinion of Thayer and Beaubier, the technological and societal changes that are taking place necessitate that participative management be utilized. The major reason is that it is becoming more

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<sup>28</sup>Edward Beaubier and Arthur N. Thayer, "Participative Management: Decentralized Decision-Making Working Models," in A Monograph, ed. Gerald Johnson (San Francisco, California: Wadsworth Publishing Co., Inc., 1973), pp. 6-7.

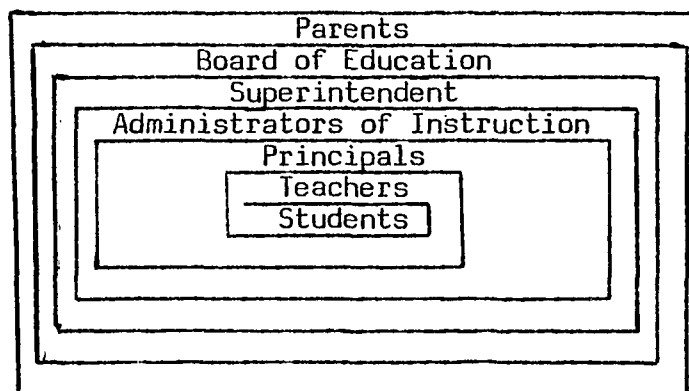
<sup>29</sup>Ibid., p. 7.      <sup>30</sup>Ibid., p. 9.

and more impossible for any one principal or teacher to keep current on the changes that are taking place.<sup>31</sup>

In his paper on the decentralized administrative concept, Youngerman states two ideas he feels most important in the decentralization process--participation of teachers, other staff members, and principals at all levels in the decision-making process and an open climate in the school and individual unit. In his studies, he has researched ways that teachers, administrators, and boards can sit down together and resolve current educational problems. Youngerman cites work done by Campbell, Corbally, and Ramsmeier in which they point out that:

An advantage of the decentralized system is that the focus upon the work to be done is at the place where the need is felt most keenly. If the teachers are given an opportunity to define the problems of the school, and if the principal is authorized to take action upon the recommendations that they make for solving those problems, much can be accomplished.<sup>32</sup>

Youngerman sees the decision-making process best being defined by the following box diagram:




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<sup>31</sup>Ibid., p. 3.

<sup>32</sup>Stephenson Youngerman, "The Decentralized Administrative Concept," a report to the Board of Trustees (Boise, Idaho: Independent School District of Boise City, January 1972), pp. 4-5.

This model also emphasizes the professionalization of the teacher's role. It guarantees that a high percentage of the problem-solving begins at the local school level, therefore involving teachers in the decision-making process. Decision-making and responsibility to the schools are close to the home situation.<sup>33</sup> According to Youngerman the nature of the educational process virtually guarantees that a high percentage of decision initiation will take place within the teacher-pupil realm because staff members in this realm are largest in number, as well as closest to parents and children.<sup>34</sup>

In the decentralization process, whenever an educational decision arises at the community, Board of Education or superintendent's level, those persons whom the decision affects should be involved in making that decision. Whether the decision to be made is at the Board of Education level or the local school level, the group and/or committee approach to resolving issues can be used. Utilization of the group and or committee participatory approach affords teachers and other staff members the opportunity to look at problems and seek solutions creatively. In the following discussion of the group process, Bridges, Tannenbaum, and Barnard relate one way to involve people in this complicated process.

Teachers cannot assume every function of the principal. Some decisions are off limits.<sup>35</sup> Every time an administrator is confronted with a decision, it is not necessarily a time for him to share the decision-making. Some administrators, however, are not aware of this

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<sup>33</sup>Ibid., pp. 16-17.      <sup>34</sup>Ibid., p. 15.

<sup>35</sup>Blumberg, pp. 8-11.

and attempt to involve their staffs in making decisions whenever any problem arises and needs to be resolved. Bridges noted this in his studies of participation. He concluded that teachers expressed resentment toward excessive committee work, attendance at meetings, and being consulted about decisions they felt the administration was paid to make.<sup>36</sup> As Chester Barnard points out:

Subordinates do not have a zone of indifference within which an administrator's decisions will be accepted unquestionably. For the administrator to seek involvement within this zone of indifference is to court resentment, ill will, and opposition.<sup>37</sup>

Distinguishing those decisions which clearly fall into the realm of teacher need and interest becomes a problem for the administrator. Those decisions which fall distinctly inside the realm of the teacher's interest and need are decisions which have consequences for teachers as they perform daily classroom tasks. Therefore, as the teachers' personal stakes in the decision increase, their interest in participation should also increase.

#### Levels of Teacher Participation: A Governance Question

Referring again to Pellegrin's study of the degree of governance of teachers in decision-making, he suggests the following extents of teacher governance: (1) complete governance, (2) governance to make decisions after suggestions and recommendations from others, (3)

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<sup>36</sup>Edwin M. Bridges, "Teacher Participation in Decision-Making," Administrator's Notebook 12 (May 1964), p. 7.

<sup>37</sup>Chester Barnard, The Functions of the Executive (Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1938), p. 12.

governance within certain limits, and (4) governance to share the decision with others in groups or committees. He also concludes that the extent of governance depends on the decision to be made. There are occasions when teachers have a great deal of governance in decision-making.<sup>38</sup> The decisions they make are those which are involved basically with the teachers' own classroom affairs--those in which teachers have high personal stakes. These decisions can be categorized into five basic areas: curriculum decisions, instructional decisions, student evaluation procedures, classroom arrangement, and pupil control decisions.

Teachers feel they should have strong governance in determining how they will teach the subject content or curriculum in their classrooms. In the decentralized approach, teachers are allowed a great deal of flexibility in teaching styles and methods. Because it is their responsibility to teach the learner those things he needs in the instructional program, teachers should have the authority to determine what teaching methods and strategies they should use. For example, a class may (and usually does) have several levels of achievers. The teacher decides which method or methods will be most effective in meeting the learners' needs. The teacher should also have governance in determining the materials he will need to aid him in the instructional process. These materials will vary with the learner, of course.

Even though state guidelines require that subjects be taught a particular length of time during the school day, teachers should be

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<sup>38</sup>Pellegrin, pp. 5-6.

allowed the opportunity to make their own teaching schedules flexible, again to meet the learners' needs. Instructional decisions, then, are an area of decision-making in which teachers should have strong, if not complete governance. Instructional decision-making belongs as close to the learner as possible--with the teacher.<sup>39</sup>

Teachers do not have as much freedom to determine what is being taught as they do to determine how it is to be taught. The term curriculum is very broad and decisions regarding curriculum are usually made systemwide, whereas instruction refers to how curriculum is taught, specifically determined in the classroom. Teachers can, within the framework of state and local Boards of Education recommendations, help determine what is to be taught in their classrooms. The subject content has been determined for them, but they have the opportunity or authority to determine the educational goals and objectives to be accomplished during a given period of time. The learners themselves will determine the educational objectives and subject content to be taught in a particular classroom.

School systems have undertaken the task of developing their own curriculum guides and continuums to add continuity to what is being taught in the curriculum. Teachers should be strongly involved in the development of these curriculum guides which determine the direction schools will follow in teaching children. For example, a teacher is required to teach reading one hour per day or five hours a week. How the teacher accomplishes this policy is his/her decision. He does not have to go through the principal to make a change in teaching

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<sup>39</sup>Beaubier and Thayer, pp. 6-7.

method if one does not work. The teacher has a great deal of authority in determining how he/she will teach the given curriculum.

A third category in which teachers are interested and have governance is the area of student evaluation procedures. Teachers are responsible for developing strategies to evaluate their students' progress. A variety of methods will be utilized to assist students' progress during the year--teacher-made tests, standardized tests, oral discussions, written assignments, class participation, group and individual projects, and teacher observation.

Pupil control is an area where administrators really place the bulk of decision-making on the teacher. They encourage teachers to develop their own group management techniques and handle their own behavioral problems. The teacher can choose to handle the behavioral problem himself, call on the guidance counselor for assistance, or call in the principal. A good example of this governance is in the area of tardiness. The teacher has the freedom to establish his own rules for tardiness to his class. These rules, in turn, are supported by the principal, if they fall within the philosophy of the school.

How a teacher arranges the furniture or decorates the classroom is his decision. He is given the freedom to arrange furniture for most efficient and effective classroom utilization. Many times it is important and helpful to call on the students to get their input into the classroom arrangement.

Teachers will resist administrators who try to make unilateral decisions in matters such as those which have been mentioned above. This resistance could eventually lead to alienating the faculty.



To avoid making unilateral decisions, an administrator should determine whether the decision lies within the teacher's zone of indifference. To do this, the principal must first apply the test of relevance of the decision to those who will be affected.<sup>40</sup> A second test that can be used to judge whether the decision is within the teachers' interest zone is that of expertise. Teachers tend to be uninterested in considering matters outside their scope of experience and range of competence. Involving them in decisions they are not qualified to make is subjecting them to frustration.

For an individual to be interested in participation, he must not only have some stake in the outcome but also the capability of contributing to the decision affecting the outcome. Both of these conditions must be met to some minimum extent if participation is to be effective. In this respect, teachers should desire to be involved in prescribing the functions a foreign language laboratory should perform but be willing to leave decisions about the technical specifications of the laboratory to an electronics engineer.<sup>41</sup>

#### Teacher Participation Through the Group Process

Sometimes an administrator will be faced with decisions in which the staff has little if anything at stake, but for certain reasons it is advisable to involve his teachers in looking at the problem and studying the issues involved. A specific instance of this kind might involve a decision about the attendance accounting procedures used by teachers. In this instance the principal might desire to involve teachers in thinking through the problem and its various issues because their acceptance is necessary for the decision to be implemented

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<sup>40</sup>Bridges, p. 8.

<sup>41</sup>Ibid.

effectively. In such cases, the principal feels it is critical that teachers develop a thorough understanding of the implications of the decisions. Following this procedure removes many of the barriers to the implementation of the decision. There may be other decisions so important that the principal will want to gather teacher judgment and assistance in putting together the pieces of information available to him in order to reach a higher quality decision. "In either of these instances, the administrator is asking the teachers to discuss issues which are in their zone of indifference and if done indiscriminately could lead to alienation."<sup>42</sup>

Not only does the administrator need to determine whether his teachers should be involved in decision-making, but he must also decide at what point in the decision-making process teachers will be included and what role they will play. This is a critical decision because it establishes the amount of freedom which teachers have in making decisions, a fact that administrators many times are not aware of. An examination of the decision-making process and the part teachers might play should clarify this point.

Tannenbaum describes decision-making as involving a conscious selection of one alternative from two or more alternatives.<sup>43</sup> In reaching a decision, a person usually (1) defines the problem, (2) initiates several action alternatives related to the problem, (3) clearly states the consequences related to each alternative being

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<sup>42</sup>Ibid.

<sup>43</sup>Robert Tannenbaum, Managerial Decision-Making, Reprint #9, (Los Angeles: University of California Institute of Industrial Relations), pp. 23-24.

considered, and (4) chooses among the alternatives.<sup>44</sup> These four steps constitute one conception of the decision-making process.

At step one, problem definition, the administrator can choose to either specify what objective is to be obtained or specify what he perceives to be the barriers that stand in the way of obtaining the objectives. For example, an administrator may have access to the following information: students who take foreign language courses in his high school and continue their foreign language study in college do poorly. He also is aware that the college emphasizes the ability to converse in the language, whereas at the high school level his teachers stress the ability to read and write the language.

At this point in the decision-making process, the administrator can elect to ignore the information, use it as a basis for defining the problem, or make his staff aware of the information. If he chooses to use it in defining the problem, he can establish the objective (e.g., change to the oral-aural approach to teaching foreign language) and pinpoint obstacles which must be overcome (e.g., oral-aural skills of instructors and language laboratory where students practice conversational skills) if the objective is to be achieved. On the other hand, he may decide on the objective and look to the teachers for their feelings on the barriers that could block the achievement of the objective. Still a third alternative to the principal at the problem-defining stage is that of reporting the information to his teachers and requesting that they develop the objectives suggested by the information, giving himself the opportunity to identify barriers.

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<sup>44</sup>Ibid.

The fourth and final possible course is that of passing the information to the teachers and asking them to define the problem, establish the objective, and specify the barriers, if there are any.

The administrator who permits his staff to decide whether there is a problem and to define both the objective and barriers is allowing his teachers more freedom than the administrator who defines the problem or some aspect of it.<sup>45</sup>

In the second step of this type of decision-making process, the administrator can establish his own list of action alternatives implied in the definition of the problem or request that his teachers develop a list. After the alternatives are spelled out, the principal in step three of the process may choose to speculate on the consequences related to each alternative or share this test with his staff. The principal can then limit or increase his teachers' range of freedom by choosing or not choosing to involve them in steps two and three of the decision-making process. From the teachers' point of view, this is a significant distinction. In reference to the foreign language example, the teachers might agree to experiment with a language laboratory provided they can spend the summer at a language institute familiarizing themselves with the operation of a laboratory and developing their own oral-aural skills.

The consequences of any given alternative are likely to be more apparent to the person affected by the course of action than to the individual making the decision, assuming the two are not the same.<sup>46</sup>

Once the problem has been defined, the alternatives listed and the consequences of each alternative stated, a choice must be made from

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<sup>45</sup> Ibid.

<sup>46</sup> Ibid.

among the alternatives. At this stage, the final step in the decision-making process, the principal may relinquish the alternatives and consequences and select what he feels to be the suitable course of action, ask his teachers to recommend the alternative they prefer, or commit himself in advance to whatever they select.

The steps in the decision-making process in which teachers participate, as well as whether they will play an advising or determining role in the final step, depend upon the teachers' zone of indifference and the amount of freedom afforded to the principal by his superiors. If the decision to be made is definitely outside the teachers' span of need or interest, teachers can be granted maximum freedom in all phases of the decision-making process as long as they do not go beyond the administrator's area of freedom. In the foreign language example, if the administrator does not have the authority or funds to implement the teachers' decision to experiment with the language laboratory, he would need to restrict the teachers' choices to recommendations. In dealing with matters that lie within the teachers' zone of indifference, the administrator might just ask for alternative courses of action and their consequences to the problem he has defined, leaving the final course of action for his own doing. It is important that the administrator clearly explain to teachers the limits of their authority and the range of freedom in which they can perform, regardless of which route he chooses to take. "Vague authority, it seems, restricts thinking and results in unimaginative problem-solving behavior."<sup>47</sup>

Once the administrator has concluded whether the decision is one which should be shared with his teachers, determined the phase of

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<sup>47</sup>Ibid.

the decision-making process in which they will be involved, and what their part will be, he must establish the decision-making group. In reference to Pellegrin's study of multiunit schools, he found that teachers were very satisfied to exercise governance in decision-making by sharing the decision with others in a group or committee.<sup>48</sup> This group constitution involves determining the structure of the group and whether the administrator will be an active or inactive member in the group's discussions. Bridges discusses three kinds of structural arrangements involving the group process. These are (1) the participant-determining, (2) the parliamentary, and (3) the democratic-centralist. Each of these structural arrangements is primarily defined in relation to the number of group members needed to be in agreement to reach a decision and how much influence any particular group member can theoretically have on the decision. For example, in groups where the participant-determining or parliamentary styles are used in reaching decisions, every group member has relatively the same amount of power and influence over the decision. The major difference between the styles is in the area of influence--agreement is that consensus is required in the participant-determining mode. Groups in which parliamentary techniques are used can make a choice that is binding on the group whenever the majority desires a particular course of action.

Groups operating under the democratic-centralist mode, however, are bound by a decision whenever one is reached by someone who has final authority, in this case, the principal or administrator. It seems clear, then, that the principal can increase or limit his teachers' area of freedom by the structural arrangement he chooses as well as by

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<sup>48</sup>Pellegrin, pp. 5-6.

involving them in the earlier or later phases of the decision-making process. Unfortunately, there has been no systematic research that could help the administrator make his selection. Therefore, any discussion as to which structural arrangement is more appropriate than another for a certain set of conditions is completely speculative.<sup>49</sup>

Decisions that apparently would be appropriate for a participant-determining style would be those that fall outside a teacher's zone of indifference. Those decisions include ones in which teachers have a strong personal stake and the knowledge to resolve and for which total agreement is imperative. Using the foreign language laboratory example again, if the principal or administrator decides not to authorize the purchase of such expensive electronic equipment unless there is total agreement, then he may specify that the teacher use the participant-determining mode for reaching a decision. In most instances where total agreement is essential and possible and the decision is relevant to the teachers' future, the principal may desire to press them for consensus. Because consensus, particularly when sought in the presence of resolvable conflict can be time-consuming and require a great deal of energy, these occasions of pressing for consensus should be few. In cases where the administrator feels that the issue to be decided is significant to the lives of the teachers but affects them indifferently, consensus is not very feasible. In cases like this, he may choose the parliamentary style. If he does choose this latter method of group process, he must be careful to assure that the majority does not alienate the minority, particularly if acceptance

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<sup>49</sup>Ibid.

of the decision by the minority is required for it to be effectively implemented. A faculty with a loyal clique that continually block votes could doom the parliamentary style.

The parliamentary style is most effective under conditions where individuals who are in conflict on an issue are likely to be allies on another. If this condition does not exist, this style could put a permanent barrier between factors and lead to open warfare every time a decision is needed.

The democratic-centralist mode is the one most widely used today in all types of organizations--businesses, mutual benefit organizations, service organizations, and commonwealth organizations. Under this constitutional arrangement, the leader (administrator) introduces a problem to his subordinates (teachers) and seeks their ideas, reactions, and suggestions before he reaches a conclusion. This method of operation is the only alternative in cases where the principal is the one who must legally make the decision. Other times when this style would seem fitting would be those where the decision is clearly the principal's, but he wishes to decrease his staff's resistance by gaining his acceptance or to improve the quality of the decision by using his teachers' ideas.<sup>50</sup>

What about the administrator's decision to be part of the group? Do groups function the same when there is a difference in the formal status of group members (principals and teachers) as when there is no difference in the status (teachers only)? Bridges selected at random seven teachers from each of ten elementary schools. Three

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<sup>50</sup>Ibid.



teachers from each school were randomly placed in a group with their principal while the other four were assigned to a group by themselves. Each of the twenty groups, ten with the principal as a member and ten without the principal, were given the same problem to solve. Those groups with teachers only were significantly more productive and efficient and indicated a significantly greater amount of risk-taking behavior than those groups in which the principal was the group leader. A parliamentary mode of decision-making was used in this study; whether the conclusions of this study would be repeated under the participant-determining and democratic-centralist styles has not been examined.<sup>51</sup>

Edwin Bridges' research was not cited to suggest that the principal should avoid meeting with his teachers to make decisions, since group decision-making is important in many organizations. More important than whether the principal should be involved in these group processes is the question of what the principal can do to help the group make decisions when he is a member. The group leader is in a unique position to carry out certain functions necessary to the group's deliberations.

If the principal chooses to use the parliamentary style for reaching decisions, one of his main functions is to give the minority a chance to fully state its position. Usually the only way the minority can sway the majority to another point of view is through supplying facts to support their opinions, which the majority has overlooked. When there is no leader present to evoke the minority

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<sup>51</sup>Ibid.

viewpoint, the minority because of social pressures is generally not given time to discuss, a factor which could downgrade the quality of group decision-making.

If the principal should use the participant-determining style, one of his major contributions lies in his efforts to get consensus. There is a tendency for discussion to become polarized, with one part of the group opposing the other. In these cases, groups clearly recognize how their arguments are different but fail to see similarities. The leader can guide the factions to recognize these similarities and possibly use them as a basis for reaching a consensus.

The third proposed structural mode--democratic-centralist--since it is likely to be used more often in number of ideas, will be introduced in connection with this mode. The reader will readily see points which would also be relevant to the other arrangements. Perhaps the biggest pitfall to be avoided in the democratic-centralist style is the tendency of the group to conform to the leader's thinking. The leader can decrease the negative effects, if not completely eliminate them, by emphasizing the problem-solving process rather than by trying to solve the problem himself. He can further contribute to the quality of the group's decision by timing its efforts just right so that the group is concentrating its thoughts on the same aspect of the problem at the same time.

As was mentioned earlier in the study by Bridges, there was significantly less risk-taking behavior when the principal was a group member. Chris Argyris, in his study of interpersonal barriers to decision-making, reported the same happening. He suggests that

executives (administrators) can increase risk-taking behavior by subordinates by not evaluating or criticizing proposals and by not showing surprise when the group comes forth with unusual ideas. Argyris writes that the leader's responsibility is to keep to a minimum the penalties associated with free expression of feelings and ideas.<sup>52</sup>

The group approach to decision-making is very effective when involving teachers in school level decisions. As has been stated, not all school level decisions should involve teachers, but those in which the principal chooses to involve his staff stand a better chance of being supported, particularly if the administrator acts as a facilitator rather than a director.<sup>53</sup>

#### Rationale for Committee Involvement

As has previously been discussed, the committee approach is a means of involving teachers at all levels, school level or systemwide level. What is the rationale for committee involvement? T. T. Paterson in his book Management Theory describes a committee as a social group or a group representative of a larger social group which makes decisions on actions of some kind or another or makes recommendations relating to certain actions.<sup>54</sup> The meaning of the root of the word decision is a commitment to action. Action suggests results for which responsibility follows. Structural authority is involved, and committees perform the functions of the decision.<sup>55</sup>

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<sup>52</sup>Ibid.      <sup>53</sup>Youngerman, p. 13.

<sup>54</sup>T. T. Paterson, Management Theory (London: Business Publications, Ltd., 1969), p. 169.

<sup>55</sup>Ibid.

In the book entitled Introduction to the Theory and Practice of Management, Branton writes about the use of the committee as an administrative tool to nurture communication with a school system or individual school with a view to increasing understanding and acceptance. It is important to be aware of the fact that not every group meeting can be considered a group meeting, although it may be described as such. An administrator may call a group of his teachers, principals, etc., to his office in order to give them instructions. He may do this as the quickest and most efficient way of getting the information to them. He may desire, through face-to-face contact, to assure himself that they have understood what he is trying to say. He may also choose to test their reactions by listening to what he is trying to say. He may also choose to test their reactions by listening to what comments they make. He is, in effect however, passing out instructions which the people attending are hearing, but in no real sense, do the hearers participate in formulating the instructions. It is possible, though, that changes may be introduced as a result of observations made.

In another kind of situation: a group of people who are not usually in close contact with each other, may be called together to be given information as well as to exchange views and experiences. It is possible also to generate a great deal of informal activity leading up to valuable exchanges of experience.<sup>56</sup>

Branton defines a committee as a group given a specific task which they are expected to carry out as a group. This definition

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<sup>56</sup>Noel Branton, Introduction to the Theory and Practice of Management (London: Chatto and Windus, 1971), p. 55.

implies that a committee lacks original jurisdiction. Its mandate comes from some other persons or group to whom it normally reports back and to whom it is responsible. The only actions are group actions; individual members do not have real power to decide or do anything apart from the group. If members do act apart from the group, and these actions are accepted as valid, then the committee is nothing more than a front without any real meaning.<sup>57</sup>

Each job that can be assigned to a committee could be given to an individual. Where it is fittingly assigned to a committee, it is in the expectation that group decision-making will be more effective than that of a single person. From this standpoint, therefore, the committee will probably be used in those cases where group deliberation and judgment are likely to be of better quality than that of the individual.

A different kind of reason for utilizing the committee is to try to secure the wholehearted cooperation of the members by affording them a voice in the making of the decision which they were called upon to carry out. The use of the committee in the small administrative unit will be for the purpose of involving group members in the decision-making process to the extent, hopefully, that they will cooperate with the decision being made and will gain a better understanding of the function of the school system while at the same time share in the decision-making with many other professionals.<sup>58</sup> Teachers, through committee representation, can have

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<sup>57</sup> Ibid., p. 56.

<sup>58</sup> Ibid.

input into the following areas in a small administrative unit:

1. School Calendar Development
2. Grading and Reporting Policy Development
3. Policy Handbook
4. Retention and Promotion Policy
5. Evaluation (Teacher and Administrator)
6. In-Service and Staff Development Activities

Further discussion in Chapter IV will elaborate on the purpose, functions, structure, and duties of these committees.

Why is shared decision-making necessary in a small administrative unit? The nature of educational problems existing today requires the best judgments of the entire staff.<sup>59</sup> Solving today's curriculum problems and making curriculum decisions involves the interaction and input of all participating members as they contribute resources and all share in the final decisions. The consensus style brings about superior quality decisions, as well as well-implemented decisions.<sup>60</sup> Teacher involvement in decision-making also increases productivity and raises morale among staff members.<sup>61</sup>

Research cited in this chapter supports the idea that participatory management is very effective in a small administrative unit. Teacher governance in curricular and instructional decisions is important if the schools are to remain building blocks for education, places where teachers can change their styles and methods to meet

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<sup>59</sup>Nolan Estes, "How Can We Make the Administrative Team Concept Come Alive?" Paper presented at American Association of School Administrators' Annual Convention, San Francisco: March 17-21, 1973, p. 10.

<sup>60</sup>Schmuck and Runkel, p. 27. <sup>61</sup>Ibid., pp. 1-2.

the rapidly changing needs of students and society.<sup>62</sup>

Nolan Estes in his work entitled "How Can We Make the Administrative Team Concept Come Alive?" lists several implications for teachers now as they become "live" members of the decision-making team. Those implications follow:

- "1. Develop and demonstrate a personal and professional long-range commitment.
- "2. Identify the kinds of decisions necessary to establish a role in the shared decision-making process.
- "3. Identify behavior needed to implement the shared decision-making process.
- "4. Assume a leadership role in participatory democracy.
- "5. Assume more responsibility to diagnose and prescribe for the improvement of personal effectiveness.
- "6. Determine and implement strategies for securing commitment of professional colleagues to the process.
- "7. Use methods known to work in related research.
- "8. Demonstrate knowledge and use of various motivation techniques.
- "9. Must develop and teach programs that involve a shared decision-making concept with students.
- "10. Design procedure for evaluating, modifying, and improving process."<sup>63</sup>

Chapter IV, which proposes an organizational structure for

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<sup>62</sup>Blumberg, pp. 11-13.

<sup>63</sup>Estes, p. 9.

shared decision-making in curriculum areas, explores the development of a philosophical rationale for a shared decision-making structure. The writer outlines the concepts and characteristics of a shared decision-making structure and attempts to define the various authority levels involved in the process.



## CHAPTER IV

### A PROPOSED ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE FOR THE SMALL ADMINISTRATIVE UNIT TO CONSIDER

#### Philosophical Rationale for the Structure

This writer believes that teachers and administrative staff need to become involved in the decision-making process and in assessing needs and assigning priorities within the scope of the curriculum programs in the public school system. In this chapter an organizational structure for the Clinton City Schools is presented.

Nolan Estes outlines the following reasons why a professional structure for shared decision-making could be advantageous to a school system:

1. The nature of educational problems in the 1970s requires the best judgments of the entire staff.
2. A network for two-way communication is essential to coping with today's educational problems.
3. All professionals have an obligation to help a school system solve its problems.
4. The nature of educational professionalism has evolved to the point that a high percentage of problems to be solved are professional in nature and require a professional approach.

5. Individuals involved with the responsibility in the decision-making process learn to diagnose and prescribe for the improvement for personal effectiveness.
6. The individuals involved help to determine and implement strategies and this will ensure better commitment of the professional colleagues to the process of education in the school system.<sup>1</sup>

Estes elaborates further and asks the question, "What is a shared decision-making structure?"<sup>2</sup> He maintains that a shared decision-making structure:

1. Is a valid approach to develop participatory democracy.
2. Provides a better communication line between the superintendent and classroom by a systematic procedure for identifying and solving problems.
3. Enhances and improves the educational team's recommendations to the Board of Education.
4. Is a sharing of power with the staff.
5. Is collective gaining, rather than conflict confrontation.
6. Is a mechanism for receiving and sending information.
7. Is action-oriented with a premium on out-put.
8. Is twenty-first century approach to educational problem-solving.
9. Is unifying in nature.
10. Is an innovative thrust in public education.<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Estes, pp. 1-12.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 9.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid.

Youngerman adds to Estes' findings by stating that communications can be improved significantly with a shared decision-making model. Staff members, the school, the community, the patrons in the community, and the central office staff can work more closely together. Staff members can be totally and competently involved in developing and achieving the educational goals for the school. In addition, the management of educational goals can be better planned and designed in detail with ample provision for evaluation and review by staff members, the community, and the central office personnel. Periodic meetings which result in the decision-making approach result in better communication between staff members and planning the educational process. An open climate can exist or, in other words, a prevailing atmosphere in attitude in the school whereby the teachers, other staff members, the principal, and supervisors all participate in the decision-making process. This open climate and the participation of all personnel at the appropriate level in the decision-making can result in a more efficient managerial system within the public school operation.<sup>4</sup>

An advantage of this decentralized system of decision-making and shared process is that the focus is upon the work to be done at the place where the need is felt most keenly. If the teachers are given an opportunity to define the problems of the school and if the principal is authorized to take action upon the recommendations that they make for solving these problems, much can be accomplished. Thus, school programs can be adjusted to the particular needs of the residential area which the school serves. The flexibility of decentralization

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<sup>4</sup>Youngerman, pp. 1-8.

lends itself to adaptation to the needs of particular schools.<sup>5</sup>

Authority Levels for the Shared Decision-Making  
Organizational Structure

Traditionally, school districts have been organized so that most of the decision-making resides in the central office staff. Much of the potential effectiveness of the supervisors, principals, and teachers in the school system is therefore unrealized. What is needed is a total school district learning management plan that places instructional decision-making as close to the learner as possible and encourages two-way initiating action. This learner-oriented management process best begins with the measurable identification of needs perceived by learners as related to societal requirements, both present and future.

It is with this learner orientation in mind that a comprehensive plan for decentralized school district learning management should be developed. Its development should be guided by the following Board of Education philosophical concepts which could be adopted by the small administrative school unit:

1. Top priority should be given to the needs as identified by the learner rather than teacher or administrative convenience.
2. For the individual to be creative, he must have freedom to make decisions.
3. Responsibility comes with freedom.

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<sup>5</sup>Ibid., pp. 8-14.

4. Freedom to make decisions is kept within the broad policies of the Board of Education of the unit.
5. A shared decision-making managerial system achieves measurably greater creativity than a centralized bureaucratic decision-making model.<sup>6</sup>

The Board of Education should first recognize that both the teacher and the learner are important in the learning process. It is, however, the individual principal in the local school with its own community, staff, and students who can best affect change in the school system. To affect change, the principal and his staff need more effective means of operation. The structure and limitations of traditionally organized decision-making processes can be too restrictive for this approach. The operation of this shared decision-making process will be felt at each local school level and through the central office administrative structure and on to the Board of Education.

The following are characteristics of a shared decision-making organizational structure which could be developed by the small administrative unit:

1. Participation which will decentralize the decision-making and involve instructional and administrative personnel at all levels.
2. Differentiation which recognizes each school as a functional unit.
3. Centralized service which gives direction and the help of special resources to the local school.

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<sup>6</sup>Ibid., pp. 14-18.

4. A philosophy of education and operational procedures which will be clearly stated on the general level by the Board of Education, understood by all personnel, and used as a framework for decisions by all local school staffs.
5. Long-range goals and objectives which will be determined in individual schools in accordance with District policy.
6. Priorities which will be rationally established so that resources can be used with maximum effectiveness.
7. Flexibility which refers to loose linkages of the schools with one another and with the administration will enable problems to be solved and ideas to be introduced in a variety of ways.
8. Evaluation which will be carried out at all levels. Local school staffs will review their objectives and programs with the aid of the administration. The superintendent and the School Board will also check organizational performance against job descriptions and program outlines on a District-wide basis. In all cases, the direction of the ongoing change will be corrected by experience.
9. Participative management within delegated levels of responsibility shall be practiced throughout the organization.<sup>7</sup>

According to Beaubier and Thayer, in participative management, a decision should always be made at the lowest possible level and as close to the scene of action as possible. Moreover, a decision should always be made at a level ensuring that all activities and objectives

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<sup>7</sup>Ibid., pp. 18-30.

affected are fully considered. The first rule tells us how far down a decision should be made. The second, how far down it can be made as well as which managers must share in the decision and which must be informed of it. Participative management also means that before making the decision which will directly affect an individual, that individual is entitled to be heard as to what he thinks the decision should be and how he perceives the effect of the decision and then after the decision is made, that individual is entitled to an explanation of the reasons for the decision. It should not be confused with various forms of abdicating of responsibility for making decisions, such as permitting decisions to be made by majority vote by consensus or by committee.<sup>8</sup>

There will be occasions when members of the organization may not participate in the decision-making process. However, once the decision has been made, members of the organization are expected to be supportive. Within the participative shared structure of decision-making, channels of communication should be kept as free and open as possible. Any persons and any part of the school system and at any level of the organization should be encouraged to go directly to any other part or individual in the organization for information or assistance needed to perform his job.<sup>9</sup>

#### Definition of Authority Levels

Beaubier and Thayer further state that authority to obtain results and responsibility and accountability for obtaining results

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<sup>8</sup>Beaubier and Thayer, p. 10.      <sup>9</sup>Ibid., p. 11.

are seldom equal, but rather, authority for obtaining results is usually less than the accountability for obtaining results. It is also important to note that the larger the discrepancy between authority for obtaining results and the accountability for the results, the less likely the person will hold himself responsible for the outcome. Thus, it should be the District's intent to provide as much authority as possible to obtain accountable results.<sup>10</sup> Responsibility, accountability and auditing are defined in the following:

Responsibility. Responsibility comes when an assignment is given to achieve a specific result outcome within an organizational structure.

Accountability. Accountability is providing evidence for the outcome of an assignment or decision. When authority for decision-making is placed, accountability for the outcome should also be made clear. Whether the outcome is good or poor is separate from accountability itself and is used as information for decision-making in the District's organizational structure.

Auditing. Auditing is a process used to verify accountability information. Audits determine if the accountability information accurately represents the facts of the matter. Auditing does not determine the desirability or undesirability of the results within a responsibility/responsibility result area; it only determines if accountability information is accurate. Whether or not the results in the accountability report were on target is determined by the degree of similarity between the pre-stated outcomes of the original assignment and the result obtained.<sup>11</sup>

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<sup>10</sup>Ibid., p. 15.      <sup>11</sup>Ibid., p. 16.



### Levels of Authority and Criteria

Definitions of authority levels which could be used in the small administrative unit are provided in the following levels:

1. Has complete authority to decide or act (within limits of School Board policy and rules and regulations, law, social mores and conscience).  
A principal has the authority to either use or delegate the use of assigned resources to make decisions or take action toward the accomplishment of designated result(s). (This is assuming that the decision-maker has sufficient information of District operations, policies, rules and regulations, position statements and legalities to predict the major consequences an action or decision could have on other schools).
2. Has complete authority to decide or act, but must inform someone of action.  
Same as above but the decision is such that a specific staff member(s) not assigned to that school requires information about the decision or action to do the job.

3. Has authority to act with prior approval from someone.

A principal must obtain prior approval before the decision can be enacted when the action requires resources (funds, assistance, etc.) from another school or if the action could significantly affect some other school.

4. May be consulted, but decision or direction comes from someone else.

The decision is in an area where there are either no implications or only minor areas for other schools and where responsibility for carrying out the decision is within the jurisdiction of another person either in or out of the division.

5. Seldom, if ever, participate in making these decisions.

The decision is in an area where the principal has no assigned responsibility and his operating unit will not be significantly affected by the action or decision.<sup>12</sup>

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<sup>12</sup>Ibid., p. 17.

### Receiving and Transmitting Authority

It is not unusual to find individuals within an organization who want to have authority for decision-making but who, upon receiving it, do not delegate it to the next level; e.g., a principal may have authority to select new teachers but may not delegate it to department heads or grade level chairmen, etc. Once a teacher gains authority he may not pass it on to the students. Thus, the question of how far to decentralize or centralize is met again. It makes very little difference to a teacher if decision-making has been decentralized to the school unit if he has not gained freedom to make a decision in an area that was forbidden before a decentralization decision. Decentralization can progress to the school unit, but not within the school unit, or it can progress to the teacher but not to the students, etc. Thus, decentralization may be a reality at one level but a scapegoat and fantasy at another level within the same school district.<sup>13</sup>

Middle managers of schools should be as concerned with transmitting, placing responsibility and planning for accountability of authority within their schools as they are in having authority, responsibility and accountability.

### The Proposed Organizational Structure

In North Carolina the State Board of Education provides guidelines for curriculum in the public school system throughout the State. At the local level curriculum decisions then become the choice of the local unit within the framework of State guidelines.

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<sup>13</sup>Ibid., p. 18.

In order to provide for teacher participation in the decision-making process, this writer recommends an organizational structure providing for teacher participation and governance in the area of curriculum throughout the school system, instruction techniques and methods within the classroom, curriculum policies, grading and reporting procedures, and evaluation of the instructional program and the personnel involved in the program.

According to Figure 4 on the following page, curriculum development within the school system begins at the local school level and projects upward to the Board of Education. Figure 4 illustrates the various components which comprise the decision-making system in the area of curriculum for a small administrative unit. The first of these components is the:

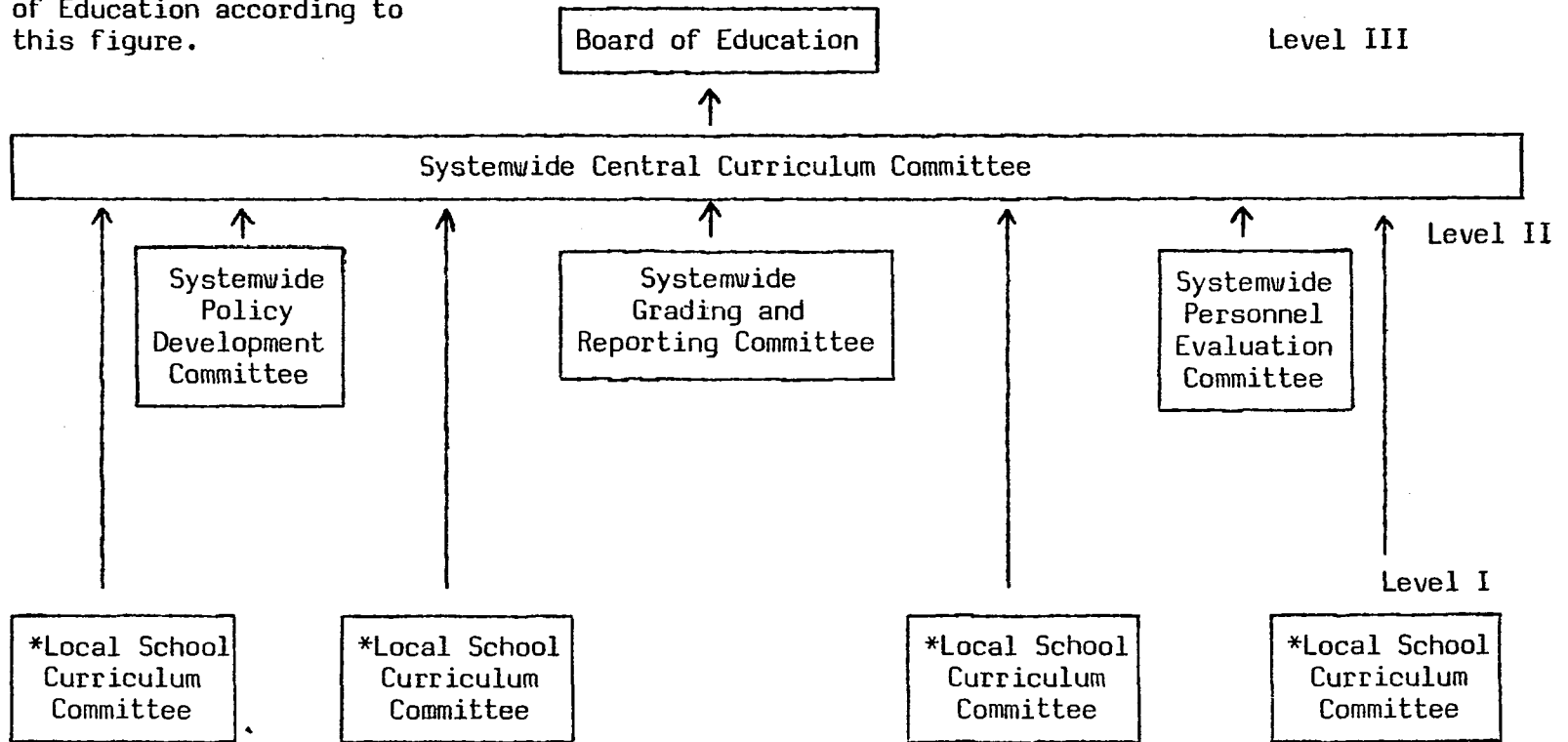
1. Systemwide Central Curriculum Committee:

a. Representation -

The Systemwide Central Curriculum Committee is made up of the following school system personnel:

- (1) The superintendent of schools who serves as chairman of the committee
- (2) One teacher representative from each school elected by the teaching faculty of that particular school
- (3) Two elementary principals elected by the principals' staffs
- (4) One high school principal elected by the principal's staff
- (5) One central office representative elected by the central office staff and

Curriculum recommendations flow from faculty to Board of Education according to this figure.



\*Also includes matters pertaining to curriculum, policy, evaluation, and grading and reporting.

Figure 4

HOW CURRICULUM RECOMMENDATIONS  
CAN BE INITIATED BY TEACHERS

(6) One representative of the Clinton City-Wide Parent-Teacher Association Council membership. The Clinton City-Wide Parent-Teacher Association Council is an executive division of the parent-teacher associations and is structured by guidelines of the parent-teacher associations of the various schools.

b. Purpose -

The purpose of the Systemwide Central Curriculum Committee is to receive collectively recommendations from the school curriculum committees and to develop recommendations regarding curriculum and instruction to be sent to the Board of Education. The recommendations include program planning, program evaluation, program implementation, innovative practices, suggested curriculum alternatives, curriculum policies, grading and reporting, and evaluation.

c. Duties -

The duties of the central curriculum committee include receiving information regarding curriculum from the various school curriculum committees, researching and studying curriculum plans, and developing and implementing these curriculum plans for the Board of Education.

d. Structure and Function Level -

The structure and function level of the central curriculum committee, as designed on the preceding chart, places the central committee members in a key position

to make recommendations to the Board of Education through the superintendent of schools.

2. Systemwide Policy Development Committee:

a. Representation -

The Policy Development Committee is made up of the following school system personnel:

- (1) One central office staff representative elected by the central staff
- (2) Two principals-at-large, elected by the school principals' staffs
- (3) One teacher from each school elected by the faculty of that particular school and
- (4) One Clinton City Parent-Teacher Association Council representative elected by the Parent-Teacher Association Council membership.

b. Purpose -

The purpose of the Policy Development Committee is to receive recommendations from the local school curriculum committee regarding curricular and instructional policies in the school system. These recommendations are received and a collective recommendation is submitted to the systemwide central curriculum committee.

c. Duties -

The duty of the Policy Development Committee is to prepare policy recommendations relative to curriculum and instruction to the systemwide central curriculum committee.

The Policy Development Committee is a branch of the central curriculum committee.

d. Structure and Function Level -

The Policy Development Committee is responsible to the systemwide central curriculum committee and to the superintendent for recommendations regarding policy.

3. Systemwide Grading and Reporting Committee:

a. Representation -

The Systemwide Grading and Reporting Committee is made up of the following school system personnel.

- (1) One central office representative elected by the central office staff
- (2) Two principals-at-large elected by the principals' staffs
- (3) One teacher representative from each school elected by the faculty of that particular school and
- (4) One Clinton City Parent-Teacher Association Council representative elected by the Parent-Teacher Association Council membership.

b. Purpose -

The purpose of the Grading and Reporting Committee is to receive recommendations from the local schools regarding grading and reporting procedures throughout the school system and to ensure that the grading and reporting system within the school system is relevant and pertinent to current trends and practices.



c. Duties -

The duties of the Grading and Reporting Committee are to receive recommendations from the local school, research and develop plans regarding grading and reporting, and submit recommendations to the system-wide central curriculum committee. The Grading and Reporting Committee is a branch of the central curriculum committee.

d. Structure and Function Level -

The Grading and Reporting Committee is responsible to the systemwide central curriculum committee and to the superintendent for recommendations regarding grading and reporting.

4. Systemwide Personnel Evaluation Committee:

a. Representation -

The Systemwide Personnel Evaluation Committee is made up of the following school system personnel:

- (1) One central office representative elected by the central office staff
- (2) Two principals-at-large elected by the principals' staffs
- (3) One teacher representative from each school elected by the faculty of that particular school
- (4) One Clinton City Parent-Teacher Association Council representative elected by members of the Parent-Teacher Association Council.

b. Purpose -

The purpose of the Evaluation Committee is to make recommendations to the central curriculum committee regarding evaluation.

c. Duties -

The duties of the Evaluation Committee are to receive information, data, and make recommendations regarding a continuous updating of the personnel evaluation program in the school system.

d. Structure and Function Level -

The Evaluation Committee is responsible to the central curriculum committee and the superintendent of schools.

5. Local School Curriculum Committee:

a. Representation -

The Local School Curriculum Committee is made up of the following local school personnel:

- (1) Three teachers elected by the faculty of the school
- (2) One representative of the Parent-Teacher Association elected by the Parent-Teacher Association membership
- (3) The principal of the school.

b. Purpose -

The purpose of the Local School Curriculum Committee is to present recommendations to the systemwide central curriculum committee regarding curriculum.

c. Duties -

The duties of the Local School Curriculum Committee are to coordinate curriculum activities within the

schools, gather facts and receive information from the faculty relative to potential curriculum programs and evaluation of present curriculum programs, and to develop recommendations for the systemwide central curriculum committee regarding curriculum programs, curriculum policy, grading and reporting, and personnel evaluation.

d. Structure and Function Level -

The Local School Curriculum Committee is responsible through the principal to the systemwide central curriculum committee. The faculty is responsible to the Local School Curriculum Committee relative to curriculum programs.

### Committee Procedures

The following procedures apply to the operation of the committees within the school system:

1. The committees meet together a minimum of two times per year.
2. The chairman is elected by members of the particular committee, except for the systemwide curriculum committee, which is chaired by the superintendent.
3. The systemwide central curriculum committee holds its first meeting with its branch committees, the systemwide policy development committee, the systemwide grading and reporting committee, the systemwide personnel evaluation committee, and the local school curriculum committee. The purpose of this meeting is to outline plans regarding curriculum

development in the school system for the particular school year.

4. The second meeting held toward the end of the year is the follow-up meeting between the branch committees, the local school curriculum committee, and the systemwide central curriculum committee.
5. Any meetings held between the two joint meetings are initiated by each committee for planning purposes. Each committee may meet as often as desired for the purpose of committee representatives receiving input from faculty. The branch committees listed above receive information and recommendations from the local school faculty.
6. Further explanation of the representation on the various committees:
  - a. Local School Curriculum Committee -  
Representatives are elected by the faculty. The principal automatically serves.
  - b. Branch Committees (Grading and Reporting, Evaluation, and Policy Development) -  
These are made up of one representative elected from each school. These representatives are separate from the Local School Curriculum Committee and the Systemwide Curriculum Committee.
  - c. Systemwide Curriculum Committee -  
Teacher representatives come from the Local School Curriculum Committees, one representative from each local committee and elected by committee members.

The Board of Education of the particular administrative unit would address and take action on all changes occurring as a result of recommendations from the superintendent of schools. The Board of Education will make all policies, direct action to be taken, and in effect, have the final decision-making authority in the school system regarding curriculum.

#### Inservice and Staff Development Provision

A yearly inservice and staff development program is recommended to provide staff (teachers, principals, and systemwide administrative and supervisory personnel) with training sessions in group and committee involvement, management and leadership techniques, and quality curriculum programs.

Industrial and university consultants and local resource people would be called upon to guide the inservice and staff development. The small administrative unit would utilize joint governance in determination of inservice and staff development needs and activities. The joint governance between teachers and administrators is necessary because different people in the system have very different perspectives on what teachers' and administrators' needs are. A program decision structure that incorporates varying perceptions about teachers' and administrators' needs is more likely to receive the support and commitment from all those involved.

## CHAPTER V

## SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The traditional approach to management of human organizations has been to emphasize the role of the leader as determiner of what shall be done--where, how fast, how economically, and by what method. Decision-making has often centered upon the leader, and his leadership has been autocratic and authoritarian in many cases. Official sanction had to be rendered to relationships and communications of various kinds. In some cases the traditional leader felt that the personnel were indolent and uncooperative, and he relied heavily in many cases on fear as a motivator.

Traditional leaders tended to regard the formal relationships of responsibility, authority, and accountability as emanating downward through a highly centralized, pyramidal managerial hierarchy. Most public educational institutions qualified as being highly centralized, having pyramidal organizational structures characterized by a downward flow of authority, an unwillingness to share decision-making, and little delegation of authority and responsibility. Teachers in the public schools were generally excluded from administrative decision-making, and students were generally excluded from teachers' decision-making.

In recent years more and more writers have advocated that education move from what they regarded as the autocratic extreme toward a more participative leadership. The purpose of the participative leadership approach is to:

1. Regain relevance within the educational decision-making process in order to provide more understanding at all personnel levels.
2. Prevent negative results which occur from a sense of loss of self-determination of individuals within the organization.
3. Improve the learning climate in the public school system.
4. Conserve human assets and promote improved human relations.

If education is to move from the autocratic extreme along the continuum toward a participative approach in management, then it must move according to the following determinants:

1. The degree of perception by the members of the system of the need for reform.
2. The magnitude of the discrepancy between what the members regard as acceptable leadership behavior and how the leaders actually perform.
3. The degree of willingness on the part of all members to modify attitudes and behaviors when such discrepancies are demonstrated.

The demand by organized teachers to increasingly participate in the formulation of School District policies which concern them is

one of the most salient problems confronting public education today. Local Boards of Education and administrators appear confused concerning what teachers really want and seem even more confused by the power play which militant teacher organizations have initiated. Although it has been assumed that organized teacher groups desire to negotiate collectively on salaries and conditions of employment, very little work has been done to identify what teachers really consider to be the important policy areas requiring their participation and determination of essential areas of disagreement and policy formation between administration and teacher organizations.

The organizational structure proposed in Chapter IV is recommended in order to facilitate teacher participation in curricular and instructional decision-making.

Further recommendations are submitted by the writer for leaders of small administrative units in the field of public education to consider in developing a management style inclined toward involving teachers in the governance and decision-making process regarding curriculum and instruction:

1. Teachers should be given the opportunity to elect colleagues, whose competence is accepted by their peers, to participate in the decision-making process involving the curriculum for the entire school system and at the local school level the instructional school program which they participate in daily.
2. Institutions which prepare school administrators should utilize public school systems in developing in-the-field



workshops and projects aimed at assisting the school system in developing management programs which provide for appropriate levels of participation on the part of the faculties in the particular system.

3. Decentralization of decision-making requires that confidence be placed in individuals to make decisions. Sometimes a basic assumption is made that educators are competent, that they are knowledgeable and have the necessary problem-identification and problem-solving skills. This assumption should not be made automatically; rather an extensively planned and implemented in-service design should be formulated to provide training for school personnel in decision-making processes.
4. In-service programs should be implemented for Board of Education members as well. When the various local schools have options in regard to the instructional program in that school and teachers within that school have alternatives and options available to them in regard to the instructional program in their isolated classrooms, then diversity is likely to develop. The Board of Education must be well-informed and must well understand that this diversification is one of the results of teacher participation in the decision-making process in the curricular and instructional area.
5. In addition, the community must be informed of the process being implemented in the school system. This can sometimes

be done through an effective parent-teacher association, particularly if that association has a development council as part of its executive guidelines.

6. There should be a definite process involved in the management plan of receiving and transmitting information and of receiving and transmitting authority. It is not unusual to find individuals within a school organization who want to have authority for decision-making but who, upon receiving it, do not delegate it to the next level. The same principle applies to receiving and transmitting information.
7. The formulation of long-range goals and objectives designed for the continued improvement of the instructional program in the school system should be implemented. This formulation is the beginning point in the translation of the educational aims into the school system and into the community. This formulation will also provide some direction for the various local schools and the various units of operation (such as a central curriculum committee) for operation.
8. The development of a study by an interested educator could be made regarding the implementation and follow-up of the structure designed in this study. This is a suggested proposal which may or may not be feasible for other administrators to consider.
9. The modification of the proposed organizational structure for use in a larger administrative unit may be feasible.

Participative management and decentralization of decision-making are not panaceas to solve all problems in a school or district. They will not automatically change an autocratic administrator into one who is more democratic. They will not automatically change a laissez-faire administrator into an efficient leader utilizing the best concepts of democratic participation. Participative management and decentralization of decision-making can, however, provide a structure which stimulates creative participation. There is no one form of reorganization for decentralization that is guaranteed to be best. The greatest value is in participation and the process of studying the concept and developing a plan.

Decentralization of decision-making and participative management are tools that can be utilized to bridge the gap between teachers and management, between management and the Board of Education, between the Board of Education and the people. It is a tool which can be effectively utilized to build accountability into education.

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