Perspectives for Industrial Arts Administrators

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PERSPECTIVES FOR
INDUSTRIAL ARTS ADMINISTRATION

by
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A Project Report
Submitted to the
Faculty of The Graduate College
in partial fulfillment
of the
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Peter Gene Burke
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INTRODUCTION

This project report presents a forceful and consistent point of view of the group processes involved within any school organization, from an administrative perspective. The writer has investigated some relevant theories which may be useful to the administrator in the performance of his leadership role. Group processes serve every other member of the group as well as the functional leader in fulfilling the performance expectations from a formal point of view and from an informal point of view.

This project report is intentionally written for industrial arts leaders, whether they be officially referred to as chairman, directors, administrators, or whatever. The terms chairman and administrator are used interchangeably in this report. The writer believes that a portion of the legitimate role of the department's functional leader is to administer; that is, to manage the affairs of the department. In so doing, he should have a sound knowledge of the foundations of group processes and perspectives which give him personal insight to individual behaviors and group behaviors.

This complex subject calls for careful investigation and contemplation. A good administrator has insights into and perspectives on the make-up of the department, and has a knowledge of variables which may affect group processes. A good administrator encourages the expression and exchange of ideas. He makes it possible for others to express themselves and he indicates his
personal point of view. A good administrator has creative ability; he makes it possible also for others to release their creative energies, and he attempts to integrate various points of view. He utilizes the ideas of his staff and successfully translates them into a plan of action.

The writer believes that the vehicle for effective administration is the group process. It is hoped that the theories and perspectives investigated and presented in this project report will be useful to industrial arts administrators.
This project attempted to offer some insights and perspectives predicated on certain theoretical bases. Variables such as the quality of interpersonal relationships, attitudes of trust and openness, involvement in the group process, human motivation factors, leadership mode, and the individual perceptions of teachers, administrators, and students all were discussed as they affect the effectiveness and efficiency of an industrial arts department.

The members of an industrial arts department comprise an exclusive group which is unlike any other, yet it has operational characteristics and an interdependence and an interaction of persons base similar to all other groups. The industrial arts department, as a group, is not autonomous, and it must rely on the larger social groups within the school and the community to exist.

Basic operational concepts of the department, person to person interaction, interaction around common goals and interaction through a structure were discussed. Group dynamics theory, including consideration of formal and informal groups, emotional impact, group effects on the self, all were presented in a discussion of group climate. Factors such as attraction, leadership, norms, communication, cohesiveness, and structure also were considered.
CHAPTER I

BASIC CONCEPTS

In the first chapter of this report, the writer has investigated some basic ideas related to the composition of the industrial arts department. Departments vary according to the organization within the school and according to the socio-economic status of each community, as well as to geographic location. The group within the department is affected by such variables as interpersonal relationships, skills of communication, extent of faculty involvement in the decision making process, the ways in which staff members think about human motivation, the chairman's behavior, and the way in which students view the quality of relationships among teachers. As persons interact in the performance of the formal dimensions of the department, informal patterns of personal behavior also develop which may or may not contribute toward an effective mode of departmental operation.

The Department

Teaching, leading, and learning are complementary acts involving a host of interpersonal processes. When these processes take place in shops, laboratories, and classrooms, they are affected by the relationships which are both interpersonal and intrapersonal in nature. In some departments, the learning process is enhanced by peer relationships that actively support a productive
learning atmosphere; in others, it is inhibited by peer relationships. The chairman's leadership style, the curriculum, the teacher's feelings about himself and his academic abilities, and the nature of the interpersonal relationships in the department are major influences on this leading-learning process.

The departmental social configuration is affected by each faculty member's unique set of characteristics, and since the department is only one part of the life of each of its members, the department also is vulnerable to the influences of surrounding social forces. The departmental group is directly and indirectly influenced by the total organization of the school building, the characteristics of the district in which the building lies, and the dynamics of the community in which the district is located. The sociological factors of social class, race, and rural-urban differences, among others, create variances in the constitution of departments in differing communities.

Although departments are relatively autonomous, the school's organizational characteristics influence the group processes of each department. The processes through which all parts work together, including community and other outside forces, formal and informal relationships among faculty and students, as well as the curriculum and other academic and learning resources make up the total school's organization. School organizations are living, complex, social systems which are continually adapting to changes within them or to forces from outside the school.
In small school systems, the chairman can perform most of the necessary duties of administration. He can also appoint special purpose committees, which report either to him or to the entire faculty, since a small departmental faculty can be assembled easily and often, if necessary. In a small department, communication is easy and contacts with the chairman are daily occurrences; for this reason no formal pattern is needed to provide opportunities for teachers to make suggestions or to have them considered by the entire staff. The form of organization, then, for effective leadership, can be simple rather than complex; informal rather than formal.

In large school systems, both departmental organization and communication are more difficult. The large number of duties requires that many administrative and committee leaders be utilized. In departments with a large number of teachers, it would be very difficult for the entire faculty to meet, and even more difficult for a large body to arrive at decisions unless the control was restricted to a few individuals. Therefore, the policy-making is done through committees within groups of the department, with faculty members selected so as to assure adequate representation.

In formal patterns of organization, the chairman occupies the top status position, and is expected to lead. He can and should make many decisions on his own, for there are many activities he cannot delegate and must perform himself. Much of his work, however, is in developing an administrative pattern and in making policies and solving problems by means of group techniques.
Administrative duties include the maintenance and improvement of instructional conditions by employing and placing teachers, securing adequate salaries, and providing suitable working conditions. Other duties and responsibilities include items such as facilitating curriculum planning, determining means to provide for individual differences, devising plans to stimulate and improve professional growth, and developing techniques to improve teaching methods and procedures.¹

Some Variables Affecting Group Processes

At least six salient variables of departmental and other organizations can directly affect viable group processes, namely:

1. The interpersonal relationships among members of the faculty help to determine the ways teachers behave in their shops and classrooms. If teachers have feelings of comfort and rapport in their relationships with colleagues, they are supported in their feelings of self-worth and are better able to relate positively to students. Feelings of hostility, competition, or alienation lead to anxiety and to low levels of tolerance on an interpersonal basis. One simple indicator of trust and openness among the staff is the frequency with which teachers ask one another to visit their respective shops to make suggestions for improvement. If fear and anxiety pervade staff relationships, innovative and creative teaching will not be encouraged,

and feedback will not be offered. Trust and openness are necessary for sharing of ideas and improving departmental group processes. In departments where teachers are in competition or are alienated from one another, good ideas often are the property of one teacher, either because no one else knows about them or because others are reticent to acquire the ideas for their own use. The curricula of many departments will suffer if teachers cannot stimulate one another with new ideas and practices.

2. Skills of communication are necessary for constructive openness; skills such as describing behaviors of another teacher without impugning motives, being able to paraphrase what another has said, and perception-checking with another to see what he is thinking and feeling. Faculties which have such skills can help to relieve frustrations in ways that go beyond the provision of comforting shoulders. For example, in informal staff sessions, comments of others as to how they see the relationship between a teacher and a student may help the teacher to look at the nature of the relationship and see what he could do to improve it.

3. The extent of faculty involvement in the department's decision making process usually is a satisfaction factor for the teachers. In one study of participative decision making by organizational group members, it was found that members tend to feel more powerful and usually are more willing to go along with organization-
al decisions when they have influence on the decisions reached.\(^1\) It was also found that a supervisor's influence was usually readily accepted when the influence emanated from his expertise. This concept can be directly applied to the school departmental setting. As teachers feel influential and view their chairman as an expert, they feel better about the department, as well as the school, and indicate more support in their contacts with students. As teachers become more involved in departmental decision-making, they take greater initiative in designing new programs and in getting feedback from other teachers before carrying their plan to the chairman. Hence it would appear that in schools with more equalized power relationships between administrators and staff, the relationships in the shops and classrooms should also be on a very positive level.

4. The ways in which staff members think about human motivation can have an impact on classroom group processes. McGregor\(^2\) distinguished two viewpoints, which he labeled Theory X and Theory Y. Theory X stipulates that people are lazy and passive, and must be pushed and prodded to action. Theory Y argues that people are


curious and active and should be allowed freedom to find their own ways of doing things. A staff with Theory X orientation would tend to employ traditional modes of leadership characterized by authoritarianism, one-way communication, and restrictive norms. A staff with Theory Y orientation allows for more teacher freedom, is more collaborative, and employs more two-way communication. No matter how autonomous a department, it is part of an organizational system and the teacher's classroom and shop behavior will be influenced by the prevailing attitudes of the faculty, especially with regard to perspective on human motivation.

Graves\(^1\) pointed out a different view of the nature of man. The mature human being tends, normally, to change his state of psychological equilibrium as the conditions of his existence change. Thus, an adult lives in a potentially open system of needs, values, and aspirations, but he often settles into what approximates a closed system. With this concept of man, staff members are not something to be managed by a general set of administrative or leadership precepts; they should be led by the application of principles which are appropriate to each level of behavior.

Bonner\(^2\) explained the dynamic character of the group as a condition that exists because members are continually changing their relationships with reference to one another. The changes occur


because interacting individuals are in a state of tension and seek to resolve their tensions and return to equilibrium. Changes also occur because of changes in membership, internal and external pressures for change, and because the group proceeds through various levels of organization.

5. The chairman's behavior can affect group processes of the department, just as influence attempts of teachers have strong effects on classroom and shop group processes. Gross and Herriott showed that the leadership behavior of the school's principal influences staff morale, innovativeness and professional performance, and even student learning. Teachers who credit their principals with high supportive, collaborative, and helpful scores are comfortable in their school work and are stimulated and encouraged by the principal to improve.

6. The way in which students view the quality of relationships among their teachers can affect their functioning in the classroom. If relationships are seen as congenial and supportive, students will feel comfortable and will be able to focus on learning tasks. If they view their teachers in tension and conflict, an anxious atmosphere will exist; students may tend to incorporate these cues of anxiety, which could interfere with learning. Also, of course, since teachers serve as adult models, the students may tend to emulate their conflicts.

Interaction of Persons

A group is a collection of interacting persons who have some degree of reciprocal influence with one another. 1 This property of groupness excludes aggregates of persons in mere physical proximity, such as persons at a sports event, observing the sport. We should keep in mind that each person carries around within himself images of others in his peer group, as well as concepts about himself. And it is primarily images of those other persons which influence a teacher's feelings about his shop, classroom, and the curriculum.

Two theoretical approaches to characterizing the interdependence of persons in groups seem to be particularly useful for describing interaction of individuals in departments. The sociologist Parsons suggested that there are five basic interaction modes, or dimensions, for describing groups, namely: 2 (1) the affective-nonaffective mode, which focuses on the emotions involved in the interaction; (2) the self-collective, which describes whether the interaction is aimed at satisfying personal motives or at achieving group goals; (3) the universalism-particularism mode, which describes how consistently and uniformly persons in similar roles define their respective roles in the interaction; (4) the achievement-ascription mode, which refers to


whether persons gain status by performance or by some inherent characteristics; and (5), the specificity-diffuseness mode, which refers to the degree to which the interaction is focused in a content domain.

The industrial arts department can be examined in terms of these five dimensions. In some cases, expressions of feelings are welcomed and supported, but in many others teachers are encouraged to keep feelings of happiness or displeasure to themselves. In some departments, teachers are self-oriented; while other departments may enter into many activities where teachers are asked to achieve group tasks. In some departments, the chairman treats all teachers alike, supporting them and expecting uniform performances and behavior; other chairman try to point up the relevance and importance of individual differences by expecting different performances and behaviors from various persons.

One's status within the department is achieved by dint of personal effort, but the characteristics which one has, such as sex, social class, and skin color, no doubt influence the status eventually assigned to the individual by the department as a group. Hollander\(^1\) researched and developed a group interaction process which he termed "Idiosyncrasy Credit." Conformity to group expectations at the onset of group interaction serves to maintain or increase status, particularly as it is seen to be combined with contributions to the

group. For this expected and group-useful behavior, the individual amasses credits. For poor performance or deviations from expectations, he loses credits. If he exhausts his credit balance completely, pressures are applied to remove him from the group, or he is no longer perceived to be a member. At the other extreme, if he continues to amass credits, he attains a level that permits deviations from common expectations, but with constraints imposed by individually differentiated expectations. However, an abundance of credits does not necessarily lead to the exercise of influence.

A second theoretical system for describing modes of interaction in groups was developed by Schutz. His theory assumed that group activities are predictable from knowledge of the person's interpersonal needs and the principles governing his interaction. He computed compatibility scores for pairs of persons in terms of their needs for inclusion, control, and affection. The faculty can have involvement problems if inclusion responses are lacking, power problems if teachers are either competitive or apathetic about expressing influence, and emotional support problems if too little warmth and love are expressed.

Implications for the Administrator

The individual needs four basic factors to function to his fullest

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capacity, according to Wiles;\(^1\) security, recognition, participation, and self-respect. The industrial arts administrator and the department as a group should try to provide each individual with these vital elements in order to make him feel that he is part of the group and at the same time a unique individual of worth. The group has greater power than the individual, and if it does not supply the individual with opportunities to fulfill these four needs, the group can destroy the individual and possibly cause him to perform contrary to his own or others' best interests.

If the group refuses to meet many of the individual demands, it becomes, or tends to become, autocratic. In this sense, the group takes freedom from the individual and dictates that the individual serve the group, when the group should be serving the individual. The capable industrial arts administrator should recognize not only that each personality is important to the group, but also that the group can demolish the individual unless care is exercised.

Individual differences have to do with personality, with values, with social experience and awareness, with standards, with a sense of personal security, and with the individual's ability to perceive abstractly. If these individual differences are not utilized creatively within the group, the potential contribution of each member of the group may not be achieved.

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As the industrial arts administrator attempts to integrate each of these differences to serve the institution as well as the individual, he should see himself as a leader of teachers; and he should attempt to enrich the student-teacher relationship. His innovativeness and creativity should be used to bring together these factors while enhancing both the individual and the group.
CHAPTER II

GROUP DYNAMICS THEORY

In this chapter, the present writer discusses some of the group effects on the self concept, the emotional aspects of small group interaction, and the informal and formal aspects of group interaction. A group is usually conceived as being sociologically as well as psychologically more powerful than the individual. Thus, as the individual gives to the sum total of group power through participative interaction, he also takes from the group certain satisfiers of his personal needs. Interaction within a group may either threaten or enhance the self concept, and in so doing, tend to cause an equilibrium or an imbalance of interactive forces from the individual to the group and vice versa.

Group Effects on the Self Concept

According to Cooley, human beings develop in a sequential and systematic manner, not because of the gradual unfolding of instinctive tendencies, but because people experience a regular sequence of interpersonal interactions in their lives. The family, the peer group, close friends, brief and prolonged formal and informal contacts, marriage, parenthood, and an ever-changing array of other people

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offer substance from which the self is formed and reformed. Everyone's self-concept is influenced strongly by his perceptions of his daily interactions. Unfortunately, those who receive unfriendly reactions from others develop poor views of themselves, and negative self-concepts can have debilitating effects. The way a person feels about himself is an important determinant of his behavior toward others. The person who holds negative feelings about himself tends to hold negative feelings toward others, and his aggressive reactions toward them may cause the others to again react negatively.

A person must be honest to himself as well as to others. Honesty is a positive quality, which involves more than neither telling lies nor deliberately deceiving others.¹ To care for one's self, one must be able to experience one's self as other— one must be able to see himself from the inside as he appears from the outside, and at the same time he must feel at one with himself rather than cut off and estranged from himself.²

A person is authentic in that degree to which his being in the world is unqualifiedly in accord with the giveness of his own nature and of the world.³ Authenticity characterizes a way of being in the

²Ibid., p. 35.
world in which one's being is in harmony with the being of the world itself. Authenticity is not adaptation, adjustment, resignation, or conformity. The attributes of an authentic person include being fully aware of each moment; choosing what possibility he will invest with his life, with actuality and with each moment; taking responsibility for the choice he has made while yet recognizing the imperfection of his awareness and the fact that his choice gave that alternative actuality. He recognizes that tragedy is always a potential and that neither his limitations of awareness, nor his good intentions, nor his suffering, nor his virtue, nor any other extrinsic circumstance, can change that fact.

A person should also take into consideration that all decisions or choices result in dissonance to the extent that the alternative not chosen contains positive features which make it attractive also, and the alternative chosen contains features which might have resulted in rejecting it. After making a decision or choice, people seek evidence to confirm the wisdom of their decision and so reduce dissonance. Dissonance is psychologically uncomfortable, and will motivate the person to try to reduce dissonance and achieve consonance; and in addition to trying to reduce dissonance, the person will actively avoid situations and information which would likely increase the uncomfortable feeling.

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Emotional Aspects

Another aspect of group dynamics theory emphasizes the deeply emotional tone of face-to-face relationships in small groups. Bion\(^1\) expressed this aspect by his stress on the unavoidable affective nature of all interpersonal relationships. The childhood and developmental interpersonal relationships a person experiences in the family are saturated with feelings and it is from the family setting that a person learns basic ways of relating with other persons. Affective interpersonal ties are to be expected within a group of people who meet and interact on a regular basis.

Emotional identification of one person with another with whom he is interacting may be said to be empathic. Emotional identification not with the other person but only with one's self may be called non-empathic. These states of being have nothing to do with giving or receiving. The point is whether one gives or receives in terms of not only one's need but also one's ability to perceive the other person's needs as well. When this is the case, one is in the realm of deep emotions which may be empathic. When the individual's needs are a fundamental criterion, these same emotions are utilized in the non-empathic realm.\(^2\)


As a person interacts with others within a group, he shifts from empathic emotional needs to non-empathic emotional needs. He may at times even appear to be indifferent to self needs or to the needs of others. The normal person unconsciously tends to be indifferent many times and in many ways. In personal contact, however, indifference tends to destroy interpersonal relations because it indicates that the existence of the other person has been temporarily ignored.

Informal and Formal Aspects

Cooley's\(^1\) sociological theory emphasized the reciprocal influences between the intimate, informal aspects of a group on the one hand, and the formal role requirements, performances, and goals of the organization on the other. The formal aspects have to do with the ways in which various members work toward carrying out the official or specified goals of the department. In the industrial arts group, if one goal is to teach the students how to use small hand tools properly in respect to a particular job, then the manner in which each teacher accomplishes this goal with his students becomes a formal aspect of the group.

The informal aspects of a group involve the personal ways in which each member relates to other members as persons. Within the department, an informal feature would be the way affection, or

\(^1\)Cooley, \textit{op. cit.}, pp. 1-13.
teachers' friendship for one another, is distributed. These informal relationships often have an important bearing on the way in which the formal processes are carried out. Many informal processes, such as the amount of friendship members have for one another or their willingness to help and support one another, may be thought of as positive and enhancing to the departmental group.

These two pulls in group life reflect a philosophical debate concerning man's rational and emotional natures. In sociology, rationality is emphasized in those processes through which a group solves the problems of adaptation to its environment. By rationally generating a structure and role definitions, a group is better able to use the knowledge and skills available to make an adjustment to the external world. Supportive empathy is the medium through which a group maintains its internal viability with a minimum of strain and tension.

Bany and Johnson\textsuperscript{1} advocated that the management of classroom groups take into consideration the feelings and the informal interpersonal relationships of its members. They maintained that some affective relationships among persons are inevitable in any formal organization and that if the formal organization does not take informal relationships into consideration, discord, strife, and conflict will appear at the formal level of functioning.

\textsuperscript{1}\textit{Bany and Johnson, op. cit., p. 44.}
Implications for the Administrator

The individual's need for status within the group is a significant factor in his development. The pressure for acceptance by the individual of the needs of the group leads to a sort of conformity. It is a conformity willingly assumed if the group has great meaning to him. The conformity, however, does not mean that he loses his right to be uniquely himself.

Authenticity in a personal dimension of interaction with other persons may be more readily achieved than authenticity related to the organization. The department's formal role requirements, performances, and goals of the organization may occasionally appear to be in conflict with a person's authenticity. In such a situation, the chairman and his group should pool their resources to attempt to modify and resolve the conflicting situation.

There are several factors in the group interaction process of which the industrial arts administrator should be aware. One is the need for an ability to accept one's own weaknesses. With this realization should come an awareness of the limitations of relying upon theoretical abstractions. In practical usage, theoretical abstractions, whatever they may be, must be accompanied with insight and intelligence. A second factor related to empathic interaction is acceptance of the significance of the individual. If the administrator accepts the fact that weaknesses are universal, he is better able to perceive the importance of the individual as an existing reality.
Another factor is the need for recognition of others' strengths. The industrial arts administrator should be able to recognize that strength and resilience also are human characteristics. Identification with individuals cannot be based solely on weaknesses, but must also encompass areas of strength, for people have worth because of both their strengths and their limitations.
CHAPTER III

GROUP PERSPECTIVES

Among the inherent aspects of groups are the group climate, interpersonal attraction, leadership forces, established norms, cohesiveness, communication lines, and developmental stages. In this chapter, the present writer discusses some of the aspects of these perspectives which he believes may be useful and significant for the industrial arts administrator.

Climate

Much group research corroborates the view that a positive social climate in the peer group enhances a person's self esteem and his professional performance. The support, encouragement, and respect which teachers express for one another facilitate the development of high self esteem and a fuller utilization of abilities. The interpersonal power that teachers feel in relation to their peers, or the levels of skill and competence a teacher sees in himself also encourage positive feelings about teaching and increased involvement in professional duties.

McGregor\(^1\) considered the atmosphere in a work situation to be a major factor affecting the security of individuals; this, he

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believed, affects standards of performance. The atmosphere is created not by what the leader does, but by the manner in which it is done, and by the leader's attitude toward the individuals. McGregor believed that the atmosphere has to reflect genuine approval for the individuals; when it does not, there is no security for the individuals. When the atmosphere is equivocal, or disapproving, group members have no assurance that their needs will be satisfied. In the absence of a genuine attitude of approval, members are fearful and insecure, and even neutral and innocuous actions of the superior may be regarded with suspicion; effective discipline may be impossible, high standards of performance difficult to maintain, and resistance, antagonism, and ultimately open rebellion may be the consequences.

Flanders\(^1\) investigated the student responses that were elicited by various kinds of teacher behavior. The conclusions indicated that teacher behavior characterized as directive, demanding, or deprecating, elicited student behaviors of hostility, withdrawal, apathy, aggressiveness, and occasional emotional disintegration. Teacher behavior characterized as acceptant, problem-oriented, evaluative or, in general, student supportive, elicited student behaviors of problem orientation, decreased anxiety, integration, and occasionally, emotional readjustment.

It was concluded that the group centered pattern of leadership created an atmosphere or climate most conducive to learning because there was a greater degree of group interaction. Where there was little interaction, the group climate might have seemed outwardly serene, but many individuals would give indications of feelings of insecurity.

Interpersonal Attraction

Manifest interpersonal attraction and hostility are primary forms of social behavior. At least three relevant and related theories from social psychology may shed light on interpersonal liking processes. Pepitone\(^{1}\) maintained that people have a drive for "cognitive validation," that is, seeing reality as it really is. Each of us wishes to read the external world correctly and to behave in appropriate social ways because such reality oriented behavior will facilitate effective survival. One seeks to know and to check and recheck his attitudes by comparing them against what is outside. If a part of the real world tells him that he is worthy and that he has value, then he will be attracted to that part of reality. If interpersonal events show him that he is worthless and without value, then he will feel hostile. Persons tend to feel hostile toward those who demean them in the eyes of others or of themselves; and

conversely, persons are attracted to those who assign them positions of high status or who help them to feel secure.

Zajonc's research on "balance theory" focused on twosomes as well as on one person's thoughts concerning his relationship with another, and the present writer believes that a basic understanding of the balance theory concept can contribute to the understanding of departmental liking relationships.

The assumption stipulated by balance theory assumes that when behavioral systems are in states of imbalance, forces tend to arise to restore balance. Imbalance tends to occur between two people when they are attracted to each other but hold discrepant or differing attitudes. Persons tend to like those people who agree with them and to like especially those who hold similar attitudes and values. Conversely, persons are not attracted to those whose values are quite different from their own, and they may feel hostile toward people who confront or upset their well-organized perceptions of the world. Balance theory emphasizes the need to achieve psychological consistency among one's cognitions and attitudes, as well as a social balance between one's view of reality and the views of those with whom one interacts.

Balance theory differs from cognitive validation in its emphasis on internal consistency within the mind. Validation theory leads to an analysis of the social inputs from one's environment. Balance

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theory focuses on the need to organize thoughts, beliefs, attitudes, and behavior in a psychologically consistent manner.

Schutz\(^1\) argued in his "need complementarity theory" that persons relate in terms of inclusion, control, and affection needs. His need complementarity theory states that persons become attracted to each other as their psychological needs are gratified in an interlocking complementary manner. Attraction occurs between two persons when each satisfies the other's needs in some area. For example, an assertive person may be attracted to a submissive one.

Leadership

For years the study of leadership was concentrated on identification of the traits or personality characteristics that would distinguish leaders from nonleaders. Criticisms of the trait approach point out that such studies do not indicate the relative importance of different traits, that the trait approach does not prove various traits to be mutually exclusive, and that there does not appear to be any differentiation between traits consistently necessary to leadership and traits essential merely for attaining positions of leadership.\(^2\) Conflicting studies have indicated that leaders have been successful and effective even though they have exhibited

\(^1\) Schutz, *op. cit.*, pp. 168-177.

strikingly dissimilar traits. The ability to lead successfully appears to involve more than just a simple set of personality characteristics.

A second approach to the study of leadership has maintained that leadership is determined not by the characteristics of individuals, but by the requirements of social situations. This view has held that leadership is a product of relationships in social situations, and that leaders in different situations may show dissimilar characteristics. It follows that leaders in one situation may not be leaders in other situations where circumstances and social factors are different.

The second approach is usually labeled functional or situational leadership and involves variables such as social prestige, the holding of legitimate authority, the performance of duties in a role, and even the emotional relationship between leader and followers. The significant point about this perspective is its emphasis on a transactional process between the person exerting leadership and those who accept his influence attempts.

Group members can influence one another in many different ways, but two general categories of group functions, task and social-emotional, appear to be necessary for group effectiveness.¹

Task functions carry forward the work-oriented, subject matter requirements of the department, while social-emotional functions help the group with its internal cohesion and interpersonal feelings.

Functional leadership emphasizes the transactional nature of the group process in the department. The meaning of any leadership act, or the execution of any group function, arises out of the interpersonal relationships among group members as well as the nature of the acts themselves. The group member who is disliked or who is viewed as being incompetent may not be able to execute a group function successfully even if he completes the function well and with a demonstration of competence. A perceptual screen which seems to exist between the disliked person and other group members tends to negate his competency. The most popular group may be ineffective in his influence if he performs a group function at the wrong time or does not perform clearly and competently.

An analysis of the bases of interpersonal influence may be helpful in understanding leadership in a department. French and Raven developed a useful set of categories concerning the bases of influence.¹ The set includes expert power, or the extent of

knowledge that person is viewed as possessing; referent power, or the extent of identification or closeness that others feel toward a person; legitimate power, stemming from internalized values that others have in relation to the right of a person to be influential; reward power, the extent to which a person is viewed as having ability to give rewards; and coercive power, the extent to which a person is viewed as being able to punish others.

Legitimate authority of the administrator has three of the bases of interpersonal influence described by French and Raven: legitimate, reward, and coercive powers. The significant issue is not that the administrators have authority, but how their authority is used interpersonally. The present writer believes that successful administrators develop sound bases of referent and expert power through continued interaction with their staff members, and that the bases of legitimate, reward and coercive power are vested in the formal role of the chairman or administrator.

Norms

Norms influence interpersonal relationships by helping individuals to know what is expected of them and what they should expect from others. A definition of norms must emphasize sharing; norms occur in groups and are not psychological processes alone. Webster's New World Dictionary defines a norm as a predisposition
to think, feel, and act in certain specific ways. Norms are individuals' attitudes that are shared in a group. When a norm exists, each group participant knows that his expectation is also held by others and that the others expect him to behave accordingly.

Norms have been categorized as either static or dynamic, depending on the extent of active interpersonal influence; and as either formal or informal, depending on how codified or traditional they are. Static norms make up a part of an unconscious awareness of groups. They are those norms with which persons abide without much interpersonal pressure being exerted. For example, the shared expectation that every teacher have teaching objectives for each class taught is a static norm in many schools.

Dynamic and informal norms are of special interest to teachers and administrators. In most school systems, for instance, a norm exists which specifies that teachers should not teach from a common lesson plan, but each should prepare his own. If fellow teachers take action to discuss the content of what a particular lesson should or should not include, they are actively supporting maintenance of the norm through their interpersonal influence. A contrasting norm may exist in some departments—that of helping one another with the maintenance of specialized equipment used for teaching and viewing it as a valuable activity. Such a norm probably would not be sustained without the active support of a large part of the departmental faculty.
In general, group norms are influential when the group is a highly cohesive unit, the norm is highly relevant or intense, the group is crystallized so that individuals know where the group is going and have shared opinions, the group is a source of gratification for the individual, or the situation facing the group is ambiguous to the members. The personality attributes that a person brings to a group situation also help to determine how much he will conform. In a study of the personality characteristics of conformists, Crutchfield found conforming persons less able to make decisions, more anxious, and less spontaneous as compared with persons he called independents. He found that conformists had pronounced feelings of inadequacy, low self-confidence, and unrealistic pictures of themselves. The independents had high ego strength, positive self-esteem, and realistic images of themselves. Conformists were more conventional and moralistic; independents showed greater tolerance for differences and ambiguities in their world views. Conformists also tended to be dependent and passive in their human relations, compared with the independents.

Communication

Verbal and nonverbal messages constitute core ingredients of communication. Although words are the principal means of

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communicating, the meaning of the verbal message is not based on words alone. It depends upon the receiver's interpretation of the words as they are augmented by such nonverbal cues as bodily gestures, intonations, situational factors, and previous relationships with the communicator.¹

Some parts of communicative acts are obvious and easily understood, while other parts are covert or ambiguous. Different levels of feelings, motives, thoughts, and intentions exist simultaneously. Some comments and behaviors are easy to understand, but others represent underlying messages in the lives of the persons. Schmuck and Schmuck suggested the following four levels of communications.²

1. Spoken-Unspoken Messages. For communication to be clear, the spoken and unspoken messages should be consonant. If they are in conflict, confusion and unclear messages may result.

2. Surface-Hidden Intentions. Departments are constituted of people with a variety of personal goals, some of which may be in conflict. Competitive persons, for instance, may communicate a surface intention of performing well but may be accompanied by a hidden intention to do better than others. Both intentions will be communicated, but in much different ways; a preference for high


²Ibid., pp. 89-90.
performance may be communicated directly, while a wish to be better than others could be revealed in offhand negative remarks about them.

3. Work-Emotional Activities. Feelings about work influence ways in which the work is accomplished. Long periods of inaction in improving feelings about work can lead to apathy and resistance toward performing the work.

4. Task-Maintenance Functions. Communications can be directed toward moving persons along on related tasks, or toward keeping members of the group working together smoothly in order to maintain the cohesiveness of the group.

Communication emanates from individuals' needs, motives, and desires; it involves the sending of messages about personal intentions, whether they be desires for control, information, love, or anger. Effective communication exists between two persons when the receiver interprets the sender's message in the same way as the sender intended it. The bridging of gaps between separate individuals involves congruence among intentions, behaviors, and interpretations.

Effective communication occurs in departments where trust and empathy reside. The person who attempts to communicate directly by discussing his feelings and who listens to descriptions of persons' feelings has a good chance of engaging in effective dialogue. On the other hand, persons who fashion false impressions encourage others to play a game of impression-forming, and increase the probability that the others' interpersonal relations will be meaningless ritual. A person's warmth, concern, and acceptance...
help to facilitate interpersonal trust as long as these feelings are communicated in a genuine sense. To behave as though he is consistently accepting when a person truly feels annoyed or angry presents a phony facade which, over a period of time, will lead to less trust between the persons interacting. Authenticity is more important than apparent warmth and acceptance which have the ring of dishonesty.

Cohesiveness

Cohesiveness as defined by Bonner is a system of interlocking roles initiated and sustained by standards either already existing or evolved by members of a group in the course of striving for a common goal. Cohesiveness also has been referred to as integration, which in turn is defined as the ability to maintain structure and to maintain function.

Cohesiveness should result from many situational and psychological forces acting on administrators and teachers to make them feel that they are parts of the department. Some situational forces that enhance cohesiveness are dispersed influence and attraction, as well as norms that support individual differences. Included in the psychological forces are positive attitudes toward others, and high self-esteem. Cohesiveness includes the sum of individual feelings held by all members for other members within the group.

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1 Bonner, op. cit., p. 69.
The perceptive administrator can make note easily of individual behaviors that indicate how cohesive the department is. He can note the number of times plural pronouns are used in contrast to singular pronouns. Departmental groups in which "we" and "us" are heard are usually more cohesive than those in which "I" and "me" are more often expressed. Members of cohesive groups see themselves, not so much as individuals set apart from other teachers, but rather as being parts of the department. The chairman also might encourage teachers to offer and accept help from one another. Generally, cohesive groups have cooperative relationships internally and competitive relationships externally.

Another indication of a group’s cohesiveness is its internal flexibility. Teachers in a cohesive department take pride in the group, and can work easily with a variety of other teachers. Schedules for teaching can be changed easily; members take each others' places when substitutes are needed, and teachers want to fill in where they can be helpful. Another indication occurs when teachers participate with other teachers in out-of-classroom activities; for example, when they participate in athletic leagues, have lunch together, share transportation, and attend professional development courses together. Helpful, friendly, cooperative relationships with colleagues both inside and outside of the department are indications of cohesiveness. Competitive situations outside the department will find members of the cohesive group upholding and supporting one another.
Developmental Stages

Groups, like individuals, move through developmental stages as they mature. According to Erikson, the individual faces a series of problems during his lifetime, problems which must be resolved before he can achieve maturity. A person's psychological growth is viewed as being sequential and successive; each stage follows another in time, and solutions to problems at any single stage are dependent on the resolutions that were made during prior stages. Departmental groups also pass through sequential and successive stages toward the development of both formal and informal relationships. Group growth can be arrested at one stage of development as, for example, when the department cannot effectively carry out an activity requiring cooperative behavior because it has neither developed interpersonal trust nor established open, two-way communication. If a department never develops basic interpersonal trust, it will have difficulty developing to more advanced stages because distrust will close off communication.

While individual and group development both are sequential and successive, they are also cyclical, with the same development issues arising in new situations. Even though certain psychological problems seem to accrue more to specific times in life than to others, individuals continually face many of the same problems throughout their lives.

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Gibb's major themes were that groups mature only after a resolution of interpersonal trust, and that groups in which trust is not established do not encourage individual members to grow in a healthy fashion. His theory proposed four basic concerns for the group and its members as they develop.

The first concern is that of acceptance and involves the formation of trust and confidence in the self and in the group. One's feelings of adequacy and self-esteem are at issue on the personal side. Concerns of membership and trust in others are not prominent for the group. The second concern involves data-flow. During this stage, individuals become aware of what is going on in the group and how they feel about it. Decision making patterns begin to emerge for the group. Groups lacking high degrees of acceptance and trust also lack free and open communication during decision making. Decisions may be made, but without deep commitments of the members. The third stage involves goals and norms. Personal direction becomes important for individuals. Norms about desired outcomes and procedures to follow become prominent at the group level. Gibb describes the fourth and final concern at the control stage. Individuals feel independent and autonomous

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provided earlier concerns have been resolved successfully. Norms for regulating interpersonal behaviors are agreed upon by the group, and the group is able to change itself.

Implications for the Administrator

A positive, supportive climate appears to be one of the most important factors for effective group performance. All living things are dependent upon their environment for their existence. If the environment is hostile to the well being of the person, adjustments are usually made to cope with the discomfort; if the non-supporting climate persists, the person usually removes himself from the uncomfortable situation after perhaps making other attempts to correct the non-supporting climate. Certain happenings or situations may cause temporary unwholesomeness in a department. The administrator is expected to contribute toward a positive, supportive climate which is conducive to academic productivity and positive staff relationships.

All groups can influence attitudes and standardize the behavior of members to a certain degree. This capability exists in groups in varying amounts, but all groups tend to make their members conform to the aims and values approved by the group. Both overt and subtle pressures operate to influence individual behavior. Conformity may be achieved if an individual desires to be approved and accepted by others. This kind of pressure is so subtle that most individuals are unaware that it is operating, and they do not recognize the changes that are made in their behaviors. Other pressures may be
more obvious, and can be applied in a more direct fashion. They may range all the way from mild teasing to strong ridicule and, eventually, ostracism if the group member fails to conform. Overt or subtle as the method of applying pressure may be, the result is a certain amount of conformity to group standards and values. Individuals within the group tend to modify to some degree their own personal value systems. They tend to approve those things that the group sanctions and discard those it condemns.

In terms of cognitive validation, a person within a group can be helped to feel secure and to have value to himself as well as to the group by accentuating his good points, especially when other members of the group are present. Balance theory suggests that forces are constantly and continuously in motion to maintain an equilibrium within the group and between persons within the group. The astute administrator utilizes the concepts of balance theory in making teaching assignments and in the hiring of new staff.

When several persons interact for a period of time, some cohesiveness develops. This feeling of belonging reinforces bonds of fellowship and sets the members apart from non-members. Schutz's complementarity theory points out that persons relate in terms of inclusion, control, and affection needs. Thus, as group members develop these levels of inclusion, a cohesive group develops. Even though the membership of the group shifts, changing with the passage of time, every group is exclusive and has varying degrees of cohesiveness.
It is possible that the increased liking of one person for another is due, not to the need to maintain or achieve status or security, but rather to the tendency of the individual to make his evaluations valid. Changes in the attractiveness of the self and of others are essentially reflections of a drive toward consistency and the seeking of reality.

As a person matures, he becomes self-sustaining and so is able to become more involved in the group democratic process. Positive climates nurturing the person's and group's development reinforce trust, authenticity, and performance.

The communication pattern not only determines the frequency, duration, and direction of member communications, but in many instances may restrict the content. What is said, how it is said, and to whom it is said are determined by the communication pattern. The administrator may find that two-way written communications are quite effective in maintaining clarity of certain messages. Crisis usually gives sensitivity to the need to listen and understand the position of the other, thereby generating a good learning situation, if one is willing to look objectively at what is happening.

If a group sets up goals that are realistic in terms of the group's ability to reach the goals and then succeeds in reaching them, these experiences of success affect the probabilities that the group will accept similar goals in the future. If, on the other hand, the group sets goals that are too high and the group
efforts are not rewarded by success, the chances are that the group will be less inclined to accept other goals. The administrator should learn to praise groups for their successful achievements, for success plus recognition fosters a feeling of prestige and high status. This tends to heighten initiative and the desire to maintain this status.

The administrator needs to develop an appreciation of the art and science of problem solving. In the face of contemporary demands for goals, objectives, and accountability, he cannot afford to neglect the skills needed for decision analysis, creative innovation, and idea generating techniques. The decision making process should not be conducted in a spirit of compromise, it should be conducted in a climate of intellectual inquiry.
CHAPTER IV

SUMMARY

The formal pattern of organization of a department is dependent upon size of the department within a school system and on the location of the school itself. The status leader of the industrial arts department may be given the title of chairman, head, director, coordinator or some other official title.

Some of the variables affecting group processes include the interpersonal relationship of the faculty, skills of communication, the extent of faculty involvement in the department's decision making process, human motivation factors, the chairman's leadership style and behavior, and student perceptions of faculty relationships.

A group is a collection of interacting persons who have some degree of reciprocal influence with one another. Two theoretical systems for describing modes of interaction in groups are Parsons' approach, consisting of five basic interaction modes; and Schutz's approach, which assumes that group activities are predictable from knowledge of the person's interpersonal needs and the principles governing his interaction.

Everyone's self concept is influenced by his perceptions of his daily interactions. A person must be honest towards himself and he must make an attempt to be honest in his dealings with others. A person should strive for authenticity, but authenticity is neither
adaption, adjustment, resignation, nor conformity. Dissonance results from viewing the alternative not chosen as having some desirable features which the chosen decision does not have.

One aspect of group dynamics theory emphasizes the deeply emotional tone of face-to-face relationships in small groups. Emotional identification of a person with another with whom he is interacting may be said to be empathic. When a person has the ability to perceive another person's needs as well as his own personal needs, the first has empathy.

Cooley's sociological group theory emphasizes the reciprocal influences between the intimate, informal aspects of a group and the formal role requirements, performances, and goals of the organization. The formal aspects deal with the ways in which the various members work toward carrying out official or specified goals of the department; the informal aspects of a group involve the personal ways in which each member relates to other members as persons. The managers of departments and organizations should take into consideration the feelings and the informal interpersonal relationships of their members. If the formal organization does not take informal relationships into consideration, discord, strife, and conflict may appear at the formal level of functioning.

A positive social climate in the peer group tends to enhance a person's self esteem and his professional performance. A positive climate for the staff includes supportive norms, clear communication, and workable goals. Leader behavior greatly affects the climate of
Attraction and hostility are primary forms of social behavior. Pepitone's theory of validation maintains that people have a drive for seeing reality as it really is. One seeks to know and to check and recheck his attitudes by comparing them against what is outside. Balance theory stipulates that when behavioral systems are in states of imbalance, forces tend to arise to restore balance. Balance theory emphasizes the need to achieve psychological consistency among one's cognitions and attitudes. Schutz's need complementarity theory argues that persons relate in terms of inclusion, control, and affection needs. Thus, the need complementarity theory developed by Schutz stresses that people relate to each other in order to complement their needs in terms of strengths and weaknesses.

The ability to lead successfully appears to involve more than just a simple set of personality characteristics. Functional leadership stresses that leaders are determined not by the characteristics of individuals but by the requirements of social situations. Functional leadership involves such variables as social prestige, the holding of legitimate authority, the performance of duties in a role, and even the emotional relationship between leader and followers. A useful set of categories concerning the bases of interpersonal influence was developed by French and Raven. The set includes expert power, or the extent of knowledge that a person is viewed as possessing; referent power, or the extent of identification or closeness that others feel toward a person; legitimate power, stemming from
internalized values that others have in relation to the right of a person to be influential; reward power, extent to which a person is viewed as having the ability to give rewards; and coercive power, the extent to which a person is viewed as being able to punish others. The capable administrator develops a sound basis of interpersonal power and uses it effectively.

Norms influence interpersonal relationships by helping group members to know what is expected of them and what they should expect from others. When a group norm is established, each group participant knows that his expectation is also held by others and that the others expect him to behave accordingly. In general, group norms are influential when the group is a highly cohesive unit, the norm is highly relevant or intense, the group is crystallized so that individuals know where the group is going and have shared opinions, the group is a source of gratification for the individual, or the situation facing the group is ambiguous to the members.

Verbal and nonverbal messages constitute core ingredients of communication. Four levels of communications are suggested: The spoken-unspoken messages, surface-hidden intentions, work-emotional activities, and task-maintenance functions. Effective communication exists between two persons when the receiver interprets the sender's message as the sender intended it.

Cohesiveness is defined as both a system of interlocking roles and as the ability to maintain structure and function. Cohesiveness
refers to the sum of individual feelings held by each member toward other members of the group.

Groups, like individuals, move through developmental stages as they mature. Gibb's theme stresses that groups mature only after a resolution of interpersonal trust. His theory proposes four basic stages for the group and its members in a sequential development: establishment of trust and confidence, an exchange of data-flow, the setting of group goals and norms, and control. In the fourth state, norms for regulating interpersonal behaviors are agreed upon by the group, and the group is able to change itself.
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