A Study of Leadership Concepts and Their Application in Family-Life Education Training Courses in a Seventh-Day Adventist Community

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A STUDY OF LEADERSHIP CONCEPTS AND THEIR
APPLICATION IN FAMILY-LIFE EDUCATION TRAINING COURSES
IN A SEVENTH-DAY ADVENTIST COMMUNITY

by

John B. Youngberg

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of the
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Western Michigan University
Kalamazoo, Michigan
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A STUDY OF LEADERSHIP CONCEPTS AND THEIR APPLICATION IN FAMILY-LIFE EDUCATION TRAINING COURSES IN A SEVENTH-DAY ADVENTIST COMMUNITY

John B. Youngberg, Ed.D.
Western Michigan University, 1974

The purposes of this developmental study were (a) to identify concepts of leadership theory which might be functional in parent-child interaction, (b) to build a family-leadership training course from this theoretical framework, and (c) to pilot-test this curriculum in a Seventh-day Adventist community so as to investigate the relative effectiveness of two instructional methods and to study the relationships among various leadership roles in parents and children. The rationale of the investigator was that since leadership theory has made a contribution to many fields of human endeavor, an organized attempt to apply a broad scope of leadership theory to family interaction was justified. The family-leadership approach was not seen as supplanting traditional dimensions of family-life education, but as complementing them. The investigator presented a justification for "family learning" involving training of the entire nuclear family.

Over 80 leadership principles applicable to family group development from six major sources were identified. These were screened to 24 principles and amplified into a curriculum comprised of six sections: (a) leadership means relationships, (b) distributive leadership as a family goal, (c) leadership as a goal effectuation process, (d) leadership means meeting basic needs, (e) leadership
means clear mutual expectations, and (f) leadership as problem solving. The 10-12 hour curriculum included total family activities inter­
spersed with age-level activities for six to twelve year old children, teen-agers, and parents. A measurement instrument called the Family-
Leadership Interaction Analysis Categories (FLIAC) was prepared to
measure specific leadership acts within three broad areas: (a)
task and structure roles, (b) group-building and maintenance roles,
and (c) negative and non-group roles. Four pilot tests of the
curriculum were held during January and February, 1974, with a
Seventh-day Adventist population from Berrien Springs, Michigan.
Thirty-one families completed the training course.

The following hypotheses were tested:

1. "Family-leadership training courses which utilize conventional
methods plus innovative involvement methods (such as role-playing,
strategies, simulations, small group work, and worksheets) will be more
conducive to positive family interaction than will training courses
which limit themselves to conventional methods (such as lecture, dis­
cussion with the total group, questions and answers, stories, illus­
trations, and multimedia)." This hypothesis was not supported. How­
ever, there appeared to be a slight to moderate tendency-for the ex­
perimental group (innovative methods) to find the workshops more
interesting.

2. "There will be a tendency for the fathers to be more
oriented toward task and structure roles than will be the mothers." This hypothesis was not supported.
3. "There will be a tendency for mothers to be more oriented toward group-building and maintenance roles than will be the fathers." This hypothesis was not supported.

4. "There will be a negative correlation between the perceiving role in parents and negative and non-group roles in their children." This hypothesis was supported. A highly significant negative correlation was found between the fathers' encouraging role and their children's negative and non-group roles.

The investigator concluded that leadership theory has much to offer to family-life education. Both the innovative and conventional methods of presenting the Family-Leadership Training Course were successful as measured by the criteria of holding power on registrants, trainee evaluations, and staff evaluation. Significant negative correlations were found between the parents' perceiving role and their children's negative and non-group roles, and between the fathers' encouraging role and their children's negative and non-group roles.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

In an endeavor of this nature, one is indebted to many people, both professionals and friends. Without the former to channel the investigating spirit, and the latter to charm it, this work would never have been.

The writer would like to acknowledge his gratitude to the members of his doctoral committee who gave of their time to provide guidance and constructive suggestions. To Dr. Harold W. Boles, chairman, the writer is especially grateful for his painstaking labor in correcting the manuscript. It was largely his broad view of leadership as a field of study that brought the writer to Western Michigan University. His classes demonstrated that he had done his homework, and his pursuit of excellence inspired the same in the writer. Being a graduate associate of Dr. Uldis Smidchens was an "earning learning experience." His personal attention and professional competence in research design contributed immensely to this study. The writer expresses his thanks to Dr. Norman C. Greenberg for his scholarship and humanness. He was responsible for channeling sociological aspects of the investigation.

A special acknowledgement is eternally due to my wife, Millie, who believed in me and encouraged all along the way. She was both a contributing scholar and companion in this study. She oriented considerably in the areas of curriculum building and training methodology. Appreciation is expressed to Paul E. Moore who for almost a decade has encouraged the writer in youth and family leadership training programs.

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Thanks are due to others, both living and dead, to brothers and sisters, a wonderful mother who believes in her children, and to Millie's and my sons--John Nielan and Wesley Scott--our partners in on-going "family-leadership training."

John B. Youngberg
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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM AND ITS BACKGROUND

This chapter introduced the nature of the study including: (a) statement of the problem, (b) significance of the problem, (c) some pertinent beliefs characteristic of Seventh-day Adventists, (d) need for training, (e) delimitations, (f) a plan in response to the need for training, and (g) organization of the study.

Statement of the Problem

The purpose of the study was to identify concepts of leadership theory which might be functional in parent-child interaction. These concepts were selected according to the following criteria: (a) they dealt with on-going situations, (b) they dealt with face-to-face interaction, (c) they were applicable to small groups, (d) they were considered by the investigator to be applicable to the group development of the family, and (e) they were understandable to the respective age levels (parents, teen-agers, and six to twelve year old children) to which they were presented. Having established this theoretical framework, the investigator built a family-leadership training course with the purpose of helping parents to assume positive leadership roles in the home, the oldest of educational institutions, and helping children to assume family membership and participative roles in home leadership.
In general, an essential feature of the concept of leading is that influence is exerted by one individual on another, or by one or a few individuals on a larger group (Gibb, 1968, p. 91). Leader influence suggests a positive contribution toward the attainment of compatible goals (Hollander & Julian, 1964). The investigator prepared the Family Leadership Interaction Analysis Categories (FLIAC) which made it possible to establish a family leadership roles profile for the whole family, for parents, for children, or for individual family members. The profile permitted the numerical comparison of task and structure role acts, group development and maintenance role acts, and negative and non-group role acts. The study compared the effectiveness of workshops which employed innovative involvement methods (including role-playing, strategies, simulations, small group work, worksheets, etc.) plus conventional methods, as against workshops which limited themselves to conventional methods (lecture, total class discussion, question and answer, stories, illustrations, and multimedia). The study also searched for specific parent leadership behaviors which might be associated with a decrement of negative roles in their children.

Significance of the Problem

Berelson and Steiner (1964, p. 325) called attention to the fact that one of the distinctly human characteristics is that man lives his life in groups, with other people. The family itself is viewed as a group. These authors stated that in a study of a diverse sample of 250 societies the nuclear family was always recognizable [p. 313]. Kruger
(1972, p. 25) emphasized that life's most rigorous test of wisdom, patience, and judgment under fire is parenthood. Yet, strangely, most people receive scarcely any preparation for that role. Kruger went on to say that being a good father or mother is more difficult today than it was 50 years ago, and still more difficult than it was 100 years ago. In today's Western culture, children and parents are not impelled as they once were to spend most of their time together, working as a team to keep the household going. Though the children of previous generations may have found the situation painfully confining, they did get a solid grounding in what being a father or a mother was all about.

It is also plain that the role of the family group in Western society has substantially eroded over a long period of time. Berelson and Steiner (1964, p. 316) pointed out that this has happened largely through the transfer of economic activities away from the home. In simpler societies, people who are related form the major channel for a range of social activities. In the modern industrial society, new institutions emerge to take over various economic, educational, and religious functions. Merrill (1969, p. 394) pointed out that in recent times there has been a massive shift of control in society so that many responsibilities formerly incumbent on the family, the church, and economic institutions have now been transferred to the government. Boles and Davenport (1973, p. 23) hypothesized that this transfer of control, irrespective of the causes, results in the effect that "the further removed the agency that does something for the individual and the fewer the 'significant others' in an agency,
the less will be its effect on the individual." The same authors pointed out that the family has manifest responsibility for the individualization of the child, the teaching of kinship (a start toward the socialization of the child), and relating the child to the society (further socialization). When parents are unwilling or unable to vigorously fulfill these responsibilities, be it because other activities have their highest priorities, because they have never learned how to fulfill them, or for some other cause, the well-being of the family as a social institution is endangered.

Many approaches have been used to assist the family in discharging its responsibilities successfully. Guerney (1964) used "filial therapy" to strengthen the family, Spock (1968) used medical specialties, Otto (1968) and Ligon (1968) applied group dynamics to strengthening the family groups, and Ginott (1969) used applied behavioral science. The purpose of the present study was to apply leadership theory to strengthening of the family group.

Leadership theory is now better prepared to assist any social institution in achieving its goals than ever before. In the first article of Leadership in Action, Herrold (1961, p. 3) noted that scientists from many different disciplines are pooling their resources to bring mankind a greater knowledge of leadership. The behavioral sciences (such as anthropology, sociology, and social psychology), the medical sciences, the administrative sciences (business administration, management, etc.), the communication arts, and education are all making significant contributions.
The *a priori* assumption of the investigator was that just as leadership theory has contributed to formal education, government, the military, industry, and business, it has something to offer to the educational agency of the family. The family leadership approach is not seen as supplanting any of the more traditional approaches, but as complementing them and adding one more significant dimension.

The need for applying leadership theory in the home, as seen by the investigator, results from the fact that all too many parents have relinquished family leadership roles. Scott and Spaulding (1972, p. 17) pointed out that leadership may be democratic or autocratic, but never laissez-faire. While not assuming that the family can be run like a business, one can ask what would happen to business if the same lack of efficiency which characterizes family goal setting and goal realization applied on Main Street.

Leadership is a group role, assumed by persons who share activities, contribute to goals, protect ideals, interpret reality, and hold values common to the group (Myers, 1954). Leading may be said to occur only within groups, and a leader may be seen to occupy a position within a group and to fulfill a group role (Gibb, 1968, p. 91). The family itself is a group. Inability to bring about the kind of membership interaction necessary to resist divisive forces lies at the heart of many of our social problems (Bradford, 1961, pp. 1-2). Psychologically many children never join the family. Ligon and Smith (1963, pp. 231-232) stated:

A group of people, two parents and their children, in a home become a family only if they become proudly and enthusiastically
aware of the fact that they are a family. The family is much more than the sum of its parts. . . . Children and youth must join the family. A home can become great only if the children and youth in it decide to create a family in it. Many a prodigal son, nowadays, leaves the family, although he may never leave the home.

While normally it would not be expected that the child would become the "chief executive" of the family firm, yet he can be encouraged to offer family leadership according to his own uniqueness and in the areas where he is capable of making a contribution which enhances his own self-image and productive group membership. This is in accord with the distribution-of-leadership-functions concept.

Some Pertinent Beliefs Characteristic of Seventh-day Adventists

The study was done with a Seventh-day Adventist population in the locality of Berrien Springs, Michigan. No claims are made that the conclusions are applicable to the general population. In order to establish a frame of reference, the investigator found it necessary to refer to some of the beliefs and values characteristic of Seventh-day Adventists pertinent to family life. The Church Manual (General Conference of Seventh-day Adventists, 1971, pp. 36-37) referred to the expectations this church has for its members. It stated that the followers of Christ should be a godly people, and should recognize that their bodies are the temple of the Holy Spirit. "... in their entire course of conduct they should shape their lives as becometh followers of the meek and lowly Master." Believers are "... to avoid every body- and soul-defiling habit and practice."
Children are baptized into the church after they are old enough to decide on their own life purpose, usually around or after the age of twelve. Parents are admonished to have family worship with all children present morning and evening. The father is to be the "priest of the household." A typical family worship lasts from ten to fifteen minutes and includes a hymn, the study of the Sabbath school lesson (or a story or reading), and family prayers. The seventh day of each week is observed as a holy day from sunset Friday to sunset Saturday. No unnecessary secular work or popular amusement is to infringe on the Sabbath. Many families spend much of the day together in nature as a family to strengthen family ties. Divorce and remarriage are permitted only as a last resort to the innocent party whose spouse has been unfaithful to the marriage vow [p. 253].

Seventh-day Adventists share with most other fundamentalist Christians a common concern and viewpoint on family-life education based on their belief in the authority of the Bible. With regard to the particular emphasis they place on family-life education, the investigator will summarize the related teachings of Ellen G. White since her writings are authoritative, but secondary to the Bible, for Seventh-day Adventists.

Ellen G. White lived from 1827 to 1915. She wrote 4,500 articles and has 62 volumes in current English publication. These, together with out-of-print English books she authored, contain some 27,000 pages. Compilations of her writings continue to be published posthumously, and a number of them deal with the home and family. White (1942, p. 352) saw preventative and positive formation of habits and character in the
home as a hundred-fold more effective than attempting to reclaim delinquents. According to her (1954) the home is a school where children should be trained from the cradle to maturity. Parents as teachers in the home gain the most valuable lessons of their own lives [p. 26]. Parents should study parental government so as to train wisely the wills and impulses of their children [p. 31]. Parents should give the training of their children first priority and not neglect it on any account [pp. 21-22]. They should make it their first object to become intelligent in regard to the proper manner of dealing with their children so as to secure to them sound minds in sound bodies. The greatest vacuum in the educational program, said White (1903), is in the training of mothers. "The one whose influence in education is most potent and far-reaching is the one for whose assistance there is the least systematic effort [p. 275]."

White (1952) also stated that the greatest evidence of the power of Christianity which can be presented to the world is a well-ordered, well-disciplined family [p. 32]. This tells more in behalf of Christianity than all the sermons that can be preached. The mission of the home extends beyond its own members (1942, p. 352). The Christian home is to be an object-lesson, illustrating the excellence of the true principles of life. As youth go out of such homes, the lessons learned are imparted in an ever-widening circle to new homes, working an uplifting influence in the community. The restoration of humanity begins in the home (1942, p. 349). The work of parents underlies every other work. Society is composed of families, and is what the heads of families make it. The well-being of society, the
success of the church, the prosperity of the nation, depend on home influences. White stated (1942, p. 276) that "never will education accomplish all that it might and should accomplish until the importance of the parents' work is fully recognized, and they receive a training for its sacred responsibilities."

Need for Training

According to Erickson's "Stages of Man," as quoted by Shertzer and Stone (1968, p. 59), the major issue of adulthood is "generativity vs. self-absorption." Life takes on real meaning to mature adults as they recognize some measure of success in passing down their philosophical heritage to the next generation and as they see their accepted principles embodied and immortalized in the lives of their children. Anything less does not yield true self-fulfillment.

The transmission of ideals and values from generation to generation is vital to any culture or subculture, be it Christian or non-Christian. In a subculture which occupies a distinctive and minority position relative to its theological tenets and the life practices expected of its adherents, the transmission of ideals and values from generation to generation becomes not only desirable but critical to its very survival. Douglass (1971, p. 6) revealed the deep significance that the Seventh-day Adventist Church attached to maintaining its youth constituency, when he recorded that the General Conference Committee of Seventh-day Adventists had designated 1973 as "Youth/Family Life Year." During the mentioned year the church's world-wide program was to give special emphasis to youth and family involvement.
The review of literature found no evidence of training courses for the family based on the principles of leadership theory. Many excellent programs in family-life education were found; however, with few exceptions, these programs tended to focus either on parent education or on the education of the maturing child or youth in family living. Very few training courses adopted a total family cluster approach.

The investigator held that the need for training the whole nuclear family in family-life training courses could be justified on the basis of the following rationale. (a) Scott and Spaulding (1972, p. 17) stated that "program development that involves only persons of a single position is not as comprehensive or lasting as that which involves people of various positions in the organization." (b) Watzlawick, Beavin, and Jackson (1967, pp. 134-135) spoke of the principle of wholeness—that is that the behavior of every individual within the family is related to and dependent upon the behavior of all the others. Family learning would respect this principle of wholeness. (c) These authors went on to speak of the principle of nonsummativity—that is that the analysis of a family is not the sum of the analyses of its individual members. There are characteristics of the system that transcend the qualities of individual members. Many "individual qualities" believed to be characteristic only of members, are in fact particular to the system. Obviously if there were characteristics of the system which impeded family togetherness or growth toward family potential, it could be dealt with more effectively if the family were present on a whole rather than a
fractional basis. (d) Much of the ineffectiveness of learning can be related to the transfer problem. Skills and facts are learned in one setting and, hopefully, are to be applied in another. The more closely the original learning environment resembles the application environment, the less the transfer loss.

Delimitations

While the theoretical framework of leadership concepts found in the literature was broad and encompassing, those concepts actually used in the application phase of the presentation of the family-leadership training course were delimited by the geographical boundaries and the socio-economic-ideologic characteristics of the population.

The population of 223 families of the Pioneer Memorial Seventh-day Adventist Church of Berrien Springs, Michigan, with children enrolled in the Laboratory School of Andrews University, cannot be assumed to be representative of any political/geographical subdivision nor of the Seventh-day Adventist Church in either the United States or Michigan.

While the literature examined described many concepts of leadership pertaining to large social systems, this study was limited to those concepts which were applicable to the family group as screened by five specified criteria, as previously mentioned.

The limitations of time imposed by the ten to twelve hours available for training sessions placed constraints on the quantity of material which could be included.
A Plan in Response to the Need for Training

Since the literature examined evidenced no family-life training courses based on a comprehensive viewpoint of leadership theory, and since few family-life programs incorporate total family learning, the investigator built a family-leadership training course to fill a unique need. This plan was not presented to supplant any of the more traditional approaches to family-life education, but to complement them and to add one more significant dimension.

Organization of the Study

In this chapter, the purpose for the study is presented and the rationale forming the bases for its development is introduced and discussed. Chapter II presents a more complete review of relevant literature including: (a) sociological characteristics of Seventh-day Adventists, (b) family-life education, (c) concepts of leadership theory relevant to parent-child interaction, and (d) training methodology. Chapter III describes the design of the study including: (a) assumptions, (b) hypotheses, (c) description of the population and sample, (d) development of the family-leadership training course, (e) development of the assessment instrument, and (f) administrative procedures of treatment. Chapter IV reports the findings with an analysis of the results. Chapter V contains a summary of the study, conclusions reached, and recommendations.
CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELEVANT LITERATURE

The review of related literature was carried out in the areas of (a) sociological characteristics of Seventh-day Adventists, (b) family-life education, (c) concepts of leadership theory relevant to parent-child interaction, and (d) training methodology.

Sociological Characteristics of Seventh-day Adventists

No comprehensive literature on the sociological characteristics of Seventh-day Adventists was found. Apparently little research has been done in this area. The investigator put together a partial view from the available sources.

The General Conference of Seventh-day Adventists (1972) reported that the organized activity of the church extended to 193 of the 225 countries and political subdivisions recognized by the United Nations. The church was currently publishing in 179 languages and dialects and carried forward oral work in 344 more, totaling 523. World membership stood at 2,261,403. The rate of increase during 1972 was 5.42 per cent. World per capita giving was $127.75 in that year. North America's (United States and Canada) per capita giving was $452.62.

For roughly a century, since the organization of the General Conference of Seventh-day Adventists in 1863, the ethnic center of...
the movement has been the United States. In the last decade, the
ethnic center moved to Latin America, which currently is the area
where Seventh-day Adventism is progressing most rapidly. Seventy-
nine per cent of the church's membership is now outside the United
States and Canada (as of 1972).

The General Conference of Seventh-day Adventists (1972) stated
that the church operated a school system which in the world included
463 colleges and secondary schools with 6,676 teachers and 91,866
students. There were 3,769 elementary schools with 11,205 teachers
and 289,159 students.

In the United States and Canada a membership of 470,622 operated
14 colleges, nine of which offered graduate work, with a college en-
rollment of 14,628, above college enrollment of 3,225 and a special
or classified enrollment of 1,140. The report for the United States
and Canada included 83 secondary schools with 1,301 teachers and
17,724 students, and 914 elementary/intermediate schools with 3,097
teachers and a K-10 enrollment of 57,303.

The investigator realized that one must be careful in referring
to specific characteristics of a religious subculture whose adherents
at the same time characterize other national, racial, and/or tribal
cultures. However, some common cultural strains were evident in
Seventh-day Adventists, regardless of national origin, presumably
due to the sociological influence of Seventh-day Adventist ideology.
Among these would be the great concern that members feel for the
education of their children, as manifested in the support of the
aforementioned educational system.
Bryan Wilson, Oxford religious sociologist, considered Seventh-day Adventists in his book *Religious Sects: A Sociological Study* (1970, pp. 96-103). He found this church to be an unusual sect in that it combined several distinctive features that are not normally associated. Its theology sought to reinterpret Christianity in primitive terms with a literal demand for the fulfillment of Bible promises (Wilson, 1966, p. 22), yet organizationally it was centralized and institutionalized which gave the movement an appearance much nearer to that of an institutionalized denomination (Wilson, 1970, p. 103). Wilson stated that the diversity of elements in the Seventh-day Adventist teaching facilitated the movement's adaptation to changing social conditions.

Gary Schwartz (1970) came closer than Wilson to a grassroots approach to Seventh-day Adventism. Like Wilson, he was not a Seventh-day Adventist. His sample was not representative in that his observations were made from an inner-city, largely Italian, Chicago congregation. Schwartz classified his informants as lower middle-class and as belonging to the stable working-class and lower white-collar workers [p. 44], but optimistic and aspiring in upward mobility. His informants openly admired the "solid citizen" element in the middle-class life style. They denied that an affluent style of life was the proper basis for status assessments [p. 49]. They proscribed smoking, drinking, gambling, and dancing [p. 71]. Schwartz quarreled with Wilson's inclusion of Seventh-day Adventists among the millianarian movements which are usually treated as a symbolic protest against the established secular order and, more particularly, against
the domination of the wealthy and powerful over the poor and socially disfranchised.

While Wilson called millinarian movements "religiously inspired revolutionist movements" and claimed that the common element in these diverse movements was their "collectivist, this-worldly" orientation (although he noted that Seventh-day Adventists had no immediate and specifically political aspirations), Schwartz found that their ideology was no mask for revolutionary sentiments and that they definitely abhorred any expression of truly secular revolutionary sentiment [pp. 108-109]. Schwartz stated that they held that discrepancies in material power and wealth were of little significance, because a man's worth was not necessarily correlated with his socioeconomic status. "In this religious movement, then, there is no disguised appeal to oppressed strata to overthrow those who exploit them. Quite to the contrary, Seventh-day Adventists divest their religious message of explicit class bias, they implore rich and poor alike to give up 'luxurious' modes of life which destroy strict adherence to the routines prescribed by their ideology. They reject all life styles oriented to immediate gratification of sensual impulses, regardless of whether this desire to indulge hedonistic desires is found among the working or the middle class [pp. 111-112]."

Schwartz found the Seventh-day Adventist oriented toward self-improvement so as to form the kind of character proper for Christians [p. 123]. The typical Adventist tried to live an active,
purposive, goal-oriented life. Emphasis was given to systematic saving of money [p. 130]. The conjugal pair was perceived as the unit primarily responsible for success or failure in the economic world [pp. 130-131]. Parents held high expectations for their children's ultimate place in the occupational realm, but adjusted to reality if the child did not demonstrate academic ability [p. 201]. Education and homes were thought to be the best financial investments [p. 202]. Parents said that the quality of the schools was a decisive factor in their choosing a place to live [p. 208].

Schwartz found that Seventh-day Adventists' belief systems sustained an optimistic attitude toward personal success in this world coupled with a marked cosmological pessimism. Seventh-day Adventists defined concrete obstacles to happiness in this world and provided an integrated set of practical techniques for dealing with these difficulties [p. 213]. Schwartz classified Seventh-day Adventists as a transformative movement aimed at a total change in supra-individual systems. They did not systematically disengage themselves from the larger society except on those occasions when the larger society's norms violated their moral precepts [p. 218].

Kistler (1973, pp. 100-102), a Seventh-day Adventist sociologist, wrote a book review of Schwartz's publication. He questioned Schwartz's attempt to combine research into Seventh-day Adventism and Pentecostalism when either would have been a sufficient field of inquiry. Beyond that problem he stated that Schwartz had attempted a
"most formidable research task to say the least" in trying "to show how 'dissatisfaction with the social order in sacred guise' provides the adherents of these religious bodies with a total frame of reference and a world perspective which orders even the minor affairs of life." Kistler opined that the participant observation technique as largely used in the study was very much open to question. Likewise the limiting of his informants to one congregation and more particularly to those whom he had come to know "reasonably well" was seen as a serious methodological weakness. Kistler twice emphasized that many observers do not catch the basic motivational force behind Adventist thinking and consequently narrowly classify certain outward rules as the legalistic scrupulous observance of minute details of religion in life. But, according to Kistler, the movement stands for something deeper, a better motivational force and freedom in Christ "which then leads men and women to want to serve the Master of human hearts."

Family-Life Education

Brown (1956, p. 3) stated that today's family-life education draws its root strength from two principal sources: parent education and home economics. In regard to parent education, Brimm (1959, pp. 321-346) traced its history in the United States. The year 1888 was a landmark in that it saw the establishment of the forerunner of the Child Study Association of America. This association has the distinction of being the oldest organization in the United States having a continuous parent education program and is today the
only national agency exclusively devoted to parent education. Brim stated that the American Home Economics Association was organized in 1908. Through the years it has broadened its approach, beyond the initial emphasis on dietary skills and techniques, to the point of being interested in managerial concepts as they relate to the home. Of these concepts, the most pertinent to the present study found by the investigator was that of Edwards (1970, pp. 652-655) who, writing from the point of view of a home economist, outlined a theoretical approach to goal-oriented family behavior. She adapted to home economics the sociological-economic framework of Parsons and Smelser (1965) regarding the three distinct activities which make up the goal-effectuation process—namely goal attainment, adaptation, and integration.

It was beyond the scope of the present study to trace the formal development of family-life education, which was occurred largely in this century, up to 1973, at which time it was a recognized part of the curriculum in many state school systems, with New York and California being in the forefront.

Brim (1959, p. 9) said that the field of parent education has borrowed liberally from psychiatry, psychology, education, sociology, social work, anthropology, and more lately, from the fields of group dynamics and mass communications. The present writer would extend Brim's statement to the broader field of family-life education. However, as Brim pointed out, parent education often has taken its materials and procedures much more from ill-defined fringe areas than from the solid core of tested

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scientific knowledge in the various disciplines. Thus, there is missing a solid frame of reference with regard to both theory and practice against which the soundness of parent education can be measured.

Other approaches to family-life education have made significant contributions. Ligon (1960) has attempted to operationalize, through the structure of the family, the teachings of Jesus' Sermon on the Mount, using attitude emphases. Guerney (1964) used "filial therapy." Otto (1968) applied group dynamics to strengthening the family group. The works of Spock (1968) and Ginott (1969) have had a wide distribution. Gordon (1970) organized P.E.T., or "Parent Effectiveness Training," which has spread across the United States and into foreign countries so that more than 60,000 parents had completed P.E.T. by the end of 1972. Thompson and Patrick (1970, pp. 1-2) reported that P.E.T. usually consisted of eight three-hour sessions with a maximum of twenty-five participants. Activities in the program include didactic lectures, role-playing, and the practice of specific skills in group sessions, along with outside class assignments. In content the training focuses on items such as the parents' learning of active listening skills, "i" messages (the parents' communication of feeling without blaming the child), and conflict resolution. Larson (1972, pp. 261-267) compared P.E.T. with the Achievement Motivation Program and the Discussion Encounter Group using A Self-Concept Inventory, Parent Concern Survey, A Checklist of Problems, Hereford Parent Attitude Scale,
self-report logs, and a final evaluation by parent participants as criterion instruments. He reported that parent groups profited most by the P.E.T. approach. Prunty (1973, p. 234), writing in Religious Education, recommended P.E.T. as being well adapted for a church-centered program in parent education. Bill Gothard and the Institute in Basic Youth Conflicts (circular, 1973) have held huge seminars on family living, drawing crowds of up to 20,000 and filling the largest available auditoriums in the nation's largest cities. Gothard's approach has been to apply the direct teachings of the Bible to modern everyday family living.

Lazar and Chapman (1972) wrote a state of the arts paper pointing out recent research and the status of current programs in the development of parental skills. In recent years, much of the thrust of parent education has been centered around "federally funded programs for mainstream and economically deprived families." Projects are divided into three major classifications, the first of which is omnibus programs that provide more than one pattern of service to children and parents. These programs include Head Start, Parent-Child Centers, and Follow-Through. The second classification, parent-oriented programs, includes home teaching, use of mass media for parent education, group discussion techniques, parent education in pediatric and health facilities, and training adolescents for parenthood. The third classification is child-oriented programs with a parent component that includes training parents in cognitive intervention techniques, behavior modification techniques, programs to increase parent-school cooperation,
and parent involvement in decision-making positions in programs affecting their children. Lazar and Chapman [p. 3] lamented that parent education programs, whether among the poor or the middle class, have never evoked wide attendance of parents. The vast majority of American mothers and fathers have had contact with parent education only through the mass media or an occasional PTA program. Only a small minority of all parents takes part in structured activities. More than this, parent involvement, past and present, usually means "mother involvement." Fathers are notable primarily for their absence, and one study after another discusses thwarted efforts to involve fathers.

A review of the literature evidenced that very few family-life training activities have actually tried and succeeded with training programs which encompassed the whole nuclear family. The diversity of ages and viewpoints encountered made this approach difficult. Thus, the typical high school or college approach has been to deal with the offsprings' generation. Typical parent education has dealt primarily with mothers. Among the exceptions to this general approach, the investigator found a reference by Harding (1968, pp. 169-170) to a University of Nebraska Extension Division-sponsored experimental family-life education project in which twelve families participated in a one-week camping experience at a state park. Content focused on family communication and problem solving. The main thrust was in having parents and teenagers explore family relationships, attitudes, and problems. Younger family members were involved in only a few brief
group-discussion sessions. Planners developed recreational activities intended to reinforce learning.

Many church groups organize family camps, but for the most part the experience is largely that of a recreational family vacation with an hour or two a day dedicated to timely exhortations.

The Research Center for Group Dynamics, in a report edited by Hawkinshire (1962), outlined a structure for a weekend laboratory involving parents, teachers, and teenage youth. It is not uncommon for some high school program to promote dialogue and discussion between teenagers and their parents relating to family-life education.

Sawin (1972) prepared and experimented with a new model for Christian education which she called "Family Clusters." She outlined a theoretical framework for establishing on a continuing basis an intergenerational group of families where children can relate easily to adults and adults to children. The clusters provide an opportunity for families to model for each other aspects of their family system in decision making, disciplining, interrelating, problem solving, etc.

Concepts of Leadership Theory Relevant to Parent-Child Interaction

The study sought to identify concepts of leadership theory apropos to the family setting. Concepts were selected according to the following criteria: (a) they dealt with on-going situations; this means, as stated by Watzlawick et al. (1967, pp. 129-130), that
they were important to both parties, long-lasting, and were considered vital-groups-with-histories in contrast to stranger groups or chance encounters, (b) they dealt with face-to-face interactions; this includes verbal and non-verbal communications in its broadest sense (Berelson & Steiner, 1964, p. 326), (c) they were pertinent to small groups, (d) they were considered by the investigator to be applicable to the group development of the family, and (e) they were understandable to various age levels (parents, teenagers, and six-to-twelve year old children) to which they were presented.

The principal sources of the leadership principles found have been included in an annotated bibliography. The more than 80 screened principles arrived at are listed in their entirety in the appendices. The ten to twelve hours available for sessions in the family-leadership training course and practical considerations made it necessary to retain only 24 principles which were thought to be most applicable. These principles have been grouped into six clusters because of the relationships in the ideas they set forth. These 24 principles comprise the following list and were the basis for the family-leadership training course curriculum.

The investigator used the words principle and concept as synonyms. The definition of principle employed was Scott and Spaulding's (1972): "A principle is defined as a fundamental consideration or basic rule which serves as a means of evaluating present practices or a guide to future action [p. 16]." The
selected principles probably have varying degrees of validity. For the sake of easy reference, those principles which are generally considered as substantiated by empirical research are designated with an asterisk (*) after the corresponding number, both in this shortened list and in the comprehensive list in the appendices. Certain principles were supported only by some research, and were not assumed to be completely valid. Much additional research needs to be done for further validation of these and other principles.

A. LEADERSHIP MEANS RELATIONSHIP

1. An essential feature of leading is that influence is exerted by one individual on another; more commonly, one or a few individuals influence a larger number (Gibb, 1968, p. 91).

2. "'Leading' implies a shared direction, and this, in turn, often implies that all parties to the leadership relation have a common goal or at least similar or compatible goals . . ." (Gibb, 1968, p. 91).

3. "The influence of one person or group on another varies inversely with the social distance that separates them." (Boles, 1971, p. 145).

4*. "People in a group tend to agree with the opinions of people they like (i.e., they judge the opinion by judging the advocate); and they tend to think that the people they like agree with them and that those they dislike do not." (Berelson & Steiner, 1964, p. 336).
5*. "The more stable and cohesive the group is, and the more attached the members are to it, the more influential it is in setting standards for their behavior." (Berelson & Steiner, 1964, p. 332).

6*. "The weaker the integration of the family, the more likely the members are to join in general political or social movements of a deviant character (such as juvenile delinquency)." (Berelson & Steiner, 1964, p. 316).

7*. "When caught in cross-pressures between the norms of different groups of which he is simultaneously a member, the individual will suffer some emotional strain and will move to reduce or eliminate it by resolving the conflict in the direction of the strongest felt of his group ties." (Berelson & Steiner, 1964, p. 329).

B. DISTRIBUTIVE LEADERSHIP AS A FAMILY GOAL

1. "The quality of leadership inheres, not in an individual, but in a role that is played within some specified social system." (Gibb, 1968, p. 93).

2. "... the particular role an individual member achieves within the group is determined both by the functional or role needs of the group in a situation and by the member's particular attributes of personality, ability, and skill, which differentiate him perceptually from others in the group." (Gibb, 1968, p. 95).
3*. Groups which distribute leadership functions take longer to reach decisions, but they demonstrate greater productivity and higher morale over a long period of time than do groups which have manipulative leadership. (G. Lippitt, 1961, p. 10).

C. LEADERSHIP AS A GOAL EFFECTUATION PROCESS

1. Leadership may be democratic or autocratic, but it is never laissez-faire. (Scott & Spaulding, 1972, p. 17).

2. Leaders lead to the extent that they take the initiative to achieve preferred outcomes. (Boles, 1971, p. 184).

3. Leadership becomes increasingly effective as the leader specifies his goals, ranks them, and effectuates them according to priorities (present writer's assumption).

4. Leadership becomes increasingly effective as long-range goals are transformed into intermediate and short-range goals with deadlines for their achievement (present writer's assumption).

5. While a message that does not allow for feedback is less time-consuming than one that does, the message that allows for feedback is more likely to be attended, comprehended and accepted than one that does not. (Leavitt, 1964, p. 152).

6*. "The leader will be followed the more faithfully the more he makes it possible for the members to achieve their private goals, along with the group's goals." (Berelson & Steiner, 1964, p. 343).
D. LEADERSHIP MEANS MEETING BASIC NEEDS

1. "Leadership is known by the personalities it enriches, not by those it dominates or captivates." (Tead, 1935, p. 81).

2*. There is a positive relationship between interpersonal sensitivity and leadership. "The measurement of interpersonal sensitivity or empathic ability, has been subject to much attention. Some caution is needed in attempting to summarize the 15 studies relating it to leadership, and Mann duly qualifies his summary judgment that 'there appears to be a low but clearly positive relationship between interpersonal sensitivity and leadership.'" (Gibb, 1968, p. 99).

3*. "If the small group's activities are imposed from outside, the norms set by the group are likely to be limited in character; if they are determined from within, they are more likely to take on the character of ideal goals, to be constantly enlarged and striven for." (Berelson & Steiner, 1964, p. 336).

E. LEADERSHIP MEANS CLEAR MUTUAL EXPECTATIONS

1. Other things being equal, the clearer the expectations that group members have for each other and for the group, the greater will be the progress toward desired interaction and goal realization. (This is the investigator's restatement and interpretation of Boles, 1971, p. 85).
2. Leader predictability and consistency promote security. 
Leader inconsistency promotes neurosis. "Neurotic behavior can be produced by ambiguous stimulation such that the same or very similar stimuli are sometimes rewarded and sometimes not, or sometimes rewarded and sometimes punished." (Berelson & Steiner, 1964, p. 277).

3*. "The more frequent the interaction among the members of a group, the more correctly they can judge the opinion of the group, i.e., the more predictable the group's behavior becomes to them and hence the more reliable as a guide to proper behavior." (Berelson & Steiner, 1964, p. 336).

F. LEADERSHIP AS PROBLEM SOLVING

1. In order to solve a problem, great care should first be taken to adequately specify the problem. (Kepner & Tregoe, 1965).

2. Leaders turn problems into projects. (Gothard, 1969).

Training Methodology

Since this study included the preparation of a training course designed to foster the family learning of leadership principles, the investigator reviews in this chapter the literature relevant to training methodology.

Glaser (1962, p. 5) spoke of the relationship between training and education. He found them to be two aspects of the teaching process that were not mutually exclusive. "Certain dimensions which
form the continuum along which the distinctions fall are specificity of behavioral goal, and uniformity vs. individual development."

According to Glaser, education tended more toward individual development and was based on a foundation of behavioral goals which represented approximations to the behavior it was wished that the student would eventually perform, e.g., being a creative scientist. Glaser found a great deal of overlap between the two processes and said that in the various definitions of the two verbs "to train" and "to educate" the underlying similarity was "to develop or form by systematic instruction."

Gagné (1965) stated that learning is a change in human disposition or capability which can be retained and which is not simply ascribable to the process of growth. He mentioned these distinguishable classes of performance change (learning) that might be described as the conditions of learning: (a) signal learning, (b) stimulus-response learning, (c) chaining, (d) verbal association, (e) multiple discrimination learning, (f) concept learning, (g) principle learning, and (h) problem solving. Gagné emphasized that the important question which should be asked when designing instruction was, "What kind of capability is to be learned?"

Albert (1962, pp. 249-253) summarized the learning theories which he considered to be most applicable to parent education as follows: (a) repetition is helpful to learning, (b) the learner responds best to material which is meaningfully organized, with the relationships clearly established, (c) the most effective learning situation requires that the trainee be "set" for it in terms of
general attitude, previous knowledge, and immediate orientation, (d) the more active the intent to learn, the greater the likelihood of success, (e) some form of reward is desirable, (f) extraneous data may impair learning, but understanding may grow in proportion to the compact unity of organization of the material offered, (g) learning techniques are most likely to be successful in proportion to the clarity with which they make apparent the "gaps" in the whole which the learner needs to fill, (h) material most appropriate to the learner's established needs and attitudes is most likely to be absorbed and incorporated into his cognitive structure, (i) the usefulness of learned material (in terms of its recall availability when needed) is affected by the presence or absence of barriers erected by individual personal needs, (j) group learning is unlikely to succeed without appealing to attitudes and viewpoints sufficiently familiar to be accepted by the majority, and (k) the most effective implementation of newly learned material occurs when the situation requires an expressed commitment to its use by the learner.

Pine and Horne (1968, pp. 54-59) reported on learning principles useful in the group process and in the helping relationship. They stated that learning is an experience which occurs inside the learner and is activated by the learner. Thus, no one directly teaches anyone anything of significance. Postman and Weingartner (1969, p. 140) concur. According to Pine and Horne, learning is the discovery of the personal meaning and relevance of ideas and is a consequence of experience. Thus for effective learning, giving information is not
enough. Pine and Horne declared that learning is a cooperative and collaborative process in which people invest themselves in collaborative group approaches and develop a firmer sense of their own identity. Again, they saw learning as an evolutionary process requiring time, patience, and perhaps pain. These authors stated that one of the richest resources for learning is the learner himself. The process of learning is emotional as well as intellectual, and when people's feeling and thoughts are in harmony, learning is maximized. Finally, they considered that the processes of problem solving and learning are highly unique and individual. As people become more aware of how they learn and solve problems and as they become exposed to alternative models used by other people, they can refine and modify their personal styles so that these can be employed more effectively.

Pine and Horne [pp. 59-66] also spoke of the conditions which facilitate learning. They found learning to be facilitated in an atmosphere that encouraged people to be active, that promoted the individual's discovery of the personal meaning of ideas, that emphasized the uniquely personal and subjective nature of learning, in which difference was good and desirable, that consistently recognized people's right to make mistakes, that tolerated ambiguity, in which evaluation was a cooperative process with emphasis on self-evaluation, that encouraged openness of self rather than concealment, in which people were encouraged to trust in themselves as well as in external sources, in which people felt they were respected and accepted, and that permitted confrontation.
Multimedia instruction

Brown, Lewis, and Harcleroad (1969, pp. 593-594) defined multimedia as "methodology based on the principle that a variety of audio-visual media and experiences correlated with additional instructional materials reinforce the value of each other. Some of the materials may be used to motivate interest; others, to communicate basic facts; still others, to clear up misconceptions and deepen understanding." Multimedia is now rated as more than a mere aid to learning. Kemp (1968, p. 7) stated, "Media are not supplementary to or in support of instruction, but are the instructional input itself." Brown, Lewis, and Harcleroad (1959, p. 139) upheld the belief that a combination of stimuli produced learning results superior to those obtained from one of the media alone. Torkelson (1968, p. 18) suggested that some individuals learn best verbally while others profit more by non-verbal instruction. Multimedia attempts to provide something for everyone.

Wittich and Schuller (1967) pointed out that the exclusive use of one medium and the corresponding disuse of other media resulted in a reduction of learning and a decrease of efficiency [pp. 16-17]. Since the instructor is competing with the mass media of communication, learning must be kept alive with a variety of methods of instruction. Attractive communication techniques must be used [p. 30]. In a voluntary program such as family-life training courses, a multimedia approach may well mean the survival of the program. The school teacher will always get a hearing, because the
law requires attendance up to a certain age, but the would-be-instructor of a family-life training course lays his success squarely on the line according to the merits of the instruction and the attractiveness of the approach.

Methods which stimulate participant involvement

Broadwell (1970, p. 70) stated that if an instructor desired to captivate the interest and motivate the audience, then the heart of the matter was involvement. In order to change individual behavior, that is to teach the individual to do things he is now unable to do, the instructor must involve him in the change. The individual must become aware that the things going on around him relate to him and affect him. Observer status is not enough. He must become a part of the activity as a participant.

Questioning techniques. Hunkins (1972) found that only since approximately 1955 has there been extensive research into questioning strategies. He suggested that questioning can be a powerful instrument in the heuristic method, and recommended that more questions be asked toward the higher levels of Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, Cognitive Domain.

Strategies. Simon, Howe, and Kirschenbaum (1972) presented 79 different strategies that an instructor could use to help others clarify their values. These authors encouraged teachers to rise above the fact level, and aspire to the conceptual and values levels of instruction. The strategies involved a rank ordering, voting, either-or forced choice, incomplete sentences, brainstorming, strongly-agree or
strongly-disagree statements, etc. These authors suggested that the instructor should not impose his values, but lead the participants to a critical examination of those beliefs which they themselves prize, choose and act on.

Handouts. Broadwell (1970, pp. 125-126) mentioned that instructors differ on the best time to distribute handout material. The course guide or outline should be given out at the beginning of a course. Handout material should be relevant enough so that it promotes activity and becomes an assignment, and not just be "interesting reading" which most likely will go unread. During meetings which the investigator attended in 1973, he found that Gothard provided his trainees with a loose-leaf notebook to which he kept adding material during the sessions of the Institute in Basic Youth Conflicts. Handout material was voluminous and well organized. Sometimes the handout proceeded the corresponding topic and other times it was distributed afterwards, thus encouraging notetaking. Some of Gothard's handouts were partially completed charts or diagrams which the trainee could fill in during the presentation of the subject.

Worksheets and checklists. The New York State Education Department (1970) effectively used worksheets as feedback instruments in Parent Education and Family Life lesson plans for adult basic education. Sometimes the worksheet consisted only of a picture with a single question, e.g., the picture showed a mother helping her son clean up his messy room. The caption on the picture was—"Is mother doing the right thing?" Other worksheets had perhaps
five simple multiple choice questions or sometimes true or false and completion questions. Checklists and inventories were commonly used by other authors to serve a summarizing and evaluating function.

**Case studies.** Bass and Vaughan (1966, p. 55) mentioned that the case discussion method can be used effectively as a participative technique to reduce resistance to innovation. The learner need not be threatened personally by the problem of a party he does not know, and thus he can view the problem more objectively. Lawrence and Seiler et al. (1965) used the methodology of first presenting an introduction in which the student was prepared to look for certain things. The authentic case study followed. Class opinions were encouraged during this second stage. The third stage was the presentation of concepts and research findings. Thus, the problem was not left in a haze of ambiguity, but scientific findings were used to arrive at suitable conclusions.

**Parent interviews.** Langdon and Stout (1960) interviewed parents in more than 4,000 homes over a period of twelve years. Their book summarized helpful hints for home happiness in the language of the parents. The present investigator found that parents and families enjoyed real-life incidents that illustrated principles of successful family living.

**Games and exercises.** Buikema and Many (1969, pp. 78-118) compiled several group exercises applicable to the family. The NASA exercise [pp. 82-83] demonstrated that group decisions tend to be "better" than the mean of the decision scores of the individual
members of the group. In the paraphrasing exercise [p. 90], any group contributor must first paraphrase correctly what the last person said before he can add any new ideas. The co-operation exercise [pp. 107-110] looks for the interpersonal dynamics and cooperation involved in completion of the task of forming squares out of cut cardboard pieces. Osmand (1970) considered the rationale for simulation games relating to family-life education and introduced a dating-simulation game.

Role-playing. Johns and Glovinsky (1970) presented the theory behind role-playing, along with fifteen situations in paraprofessional training which can be role-played. They saw role-playing as a technique that enables trainees to learn from vicarious experience. Janis (1973) in his "Groupthink" pointed out that group members sometimes become more concerned with retaining the approval of the fellow members of their work group than with coming up with good solutions to the task at hand. Role-playing permits the trainees to break free from the social pressures, both unfavorable and favorable, that develop in cohesive groups and to objectify their behavior. Roles are assumed that are different from those the individual usually fills. The make-believe situation frees trainees to focus on problems without apprehension in a non-threatening atmosphere and can give them valuable insights which they can carry back with them to their real-life situations.

"Family projects". Ligon (1968) completed the publishing of seven projects which a family can work on to discover its unknowns.
To complete a project, total family participation is needed. The group process is used to strengthen the family. A Family Appreciation Project, one of the set, has each family member write an appreciation note to every other family member. The receiver collects and analyzes his notes, describes insights gained, and then makes a plan to use what he has learned. Otto (1968, pp. 77-85) further developed the strength bombardment technique for helping a family achieve its potential.

Feedback. Kemp (1968, p. 11) stated that effective communication depends on the receiver being active. He reacts by answering, questioning, or performing, mentally or physically. There is then a return or response loop of this cycle, from receiver to sender, which is termed feedback. Feedback enables the originator to correct omissions and errors in a transmitted message and to immediately reinforce positive learning behavior. Learning is increased by knowledge of results [pp. 12-13]. Leavitt (1964, p. 152) stated that a message not allowing for feedback was less time-consuming than one that did, but that the one allowing for feedback was more likely to be attended, comprehended, and accepted.

Practice. Popham (1969, p. 324) stated that the learner should be informed as to what was expected of him, and then given a chance to practice the behavior, followed by immediate feedback on the accuracy of response. "Common sense suggests that the learner should be provided with practice relevant to the desired terminal behavior . . . [p. 323]." As reported by Bass and Vaughan (1966, p. 49), McGeoch found that periodically-distributed practice was more effective than
concentrated practice when the material to be learned was difficult and of little meaning. Conversely for meaningful simple material, concentrated practice was superior to distributed practice. The talented, experienced trainee found moderate massing of practice preferable. McGeoch stated that material learned by some form of distributed practice was retained longer than material learned by massed practice. He considered this last principle to be of major significance in increasing the effectiveness of study. Bass and Vaughan (1966, p. 49) summarized the research on practice. They stated that the advantages of spaced practice generally outweighed its disadvantages. Spaced practice was associated with less work decrement than massed practice because it permitted accumulated-response fatigue to dissipate. However, if interfering materials were learned during the intervals between practice, distributed practice was found to be ineffectual. Bass and Vaughan found massed practice more efficient than distributed practice in short learning assignments and in assimilating newly organized but familiar material. The greater efficiency of distributed practice often was evident only when total work time was considered.

Instruction guidelines

The literature suggests many guidelines which can be useful to the instructor in a training situation.

Clear expectations. Boles (1971, p. 85) referred to the importance of group members having a clear understanding of mutually-held expectations for each other and for the leader. It was hypothesized that, other things being equal, the clearer the expectations
the greater the progress toward desired interaction and goal realization. The trainer, if this is true, must make clear what he expects of trainees as well as what they can expect of him and of each other. Kemp (1968, p. 24) found that motivation and learning were enhanced when the purpose for learning was set forth in a preinstruction period. He advocated cueing the trainee to what he is expected to learn, thus facilitating successful output after instruction.

Attention getters. Kemp (1968, p. 39) said that the first stage of instruction was an introduction which captures the attention of the audience. Berelson and Steiner (1964) stated that curiosity acts as a motive and induces purposive behavior [p. 252]. Novel or changing stimuli tend to command more attention and examination than familiar ones [p. 245].

Change of pace. Broadwell (1970, pp. 67-68) suggested that one of the surest ways of keeping interest, aside from continued trainee participation, was to keep the pace changing during the sessions. Even useful routines get monotonous after a while. Variation could be introduced by changing media, by physical stretching, by a recess, by breaking long presentations with a prepared list of short questions to be asked at intervals, etc. Berelson and Steiner (1964, p. 249) found that "... there is a tendency to resume interrupted mental tasks that are being done without extrinsic reward, and, under certain conditions, to remember the interrupted tasks better than complete control problems." Thus, occasionally the trainer might purposely leave an anecdote unfinished at a high interest
point as a "teaser." Berelson and Steiner also reported that searching for new experience could operate as a strong motivation for human beings [p. 246].

"Flip chart" and "strip chart." Brown, Lewis, and Harcleroad (1969, p. 170) recommended the use of the "flip chart" to show sequential steps in instruction, and of the "strip chart" to present data in sequence by progressive disclosure.

Overhead transparencies and other visuals. Brown, Lewis, and Harcleroad (1969, p. 549) named several important advantages of the overhead projector, among them these: the trainer can face the audience, the overhead projector can be operated in a lighted room avoiding interruptions and the loss of eye contact, the trainer can maintain complete control of sequence, timing, and manipulation of material, and the trainer can point, write, or otherwise make indications on the transparency. The use of overlays and the progressive disclosure technique allow the trainer to separate complex ideas into elements and to present them in step-by-step order [p. 241]. These authors presented abundant material about the multiple uses of slides, film, tape recordings, realia, etc. to help training come alive. The present investigator presented the rationale for the use of these and similar materials under the section "Multimedia Instruction."

Lecture. Bass and Vaughan (1966, pp. 94-95) spoke of the lecture as "... the old standby--the traditional method of transmitting information to others in a classroom setting." They referred to the lecture as the most widely used of all the techniques,
despite its serious limitations. The great disadvantage of the lecture was stated to be that it consists of one-way communication with minimal feedback, practice, or involvement. These authors stated that a skillful lecturer can be fairly successful in transmitting conceptual knowledge to a group of trainees who are ready to receive it, but all the evidence available indicates that the lecture situation is a poor means of promoting attitudinal or behavioral change.

Microteaching. Allen and Gross (1965, pp. 25-26) reported on a new method of student teacher training, inaugurated in the summer of 1964 at Stanford University, called microteaching. Short lessons (five to twenty minutes) were taught, and supervisory teachers furnished feedback using interaction analysis and/or the video-tape recorder. Borg, Langer, and Kelley (1970, pp. 232-238) praised the Stanford technique as successful and introduced a slightly modified approach they called the "minicourse." The basic difference from the microteaching method was that the minicourse was self-contained and was usable in any school where a video-tape recording system was available. The minicourse relied heavily on self evaluation and/or peer interaction instead of supervisory feedback. Both systems lend themselves to what this investigator would call "single concept learning" in which the trainer introduces, presents, and obtains feedback on a single concept in a period of three to fifteen minutes. Avery (1969) referred to the use of single concept films in family-life education. This method would be based on "rifle shot" teaching as distinguished from "buck shot" teaching.
Humor. Broadwell (1970, pp. 110-111) advised natural humor which would fit appropriately into the training situation, but which never ridiculed the trainees. Anecdotes were seen as potentially most helpful. Broadwell found that occasional humor provided a good change of pace and released tension, opening the way for new instruction.

Catch phrases. The investigator found several catch phrases which could convey considerable meaning in a family-life training course. The following four phrases are illustrative of the many which can be found in the literature. Gothard (1969) spoke of problem solving with the phrase "turning problems into projects." Lewis and Freedle (1972) employed a rather sophisticated but expressive phrase as a title—"Mother-Infant Dyad: The Cradle of Meaning." Fraiberg (1964) used the title phrase "The Magic Years" to refer to childhood development from infancy to adolescence. Burnham (1957) paraphrased a common expression and gave it a new twist in the title phrase "Boys Will Be Men."

The process of training

Watson (1966, pp. 193-195) spoke of the S-P-A model, which is applicable to learning situations. The model suggests that in order to change attitudes, first a new structure may be introduced, which in turn will give rise to new process, which will yield new attitudes. According to this author, a change of structure forces the individual into new positions and roles which, hopefully, produce new attitudes and learnings. The model also functions in a
reverse direction, but according to Watson, in our Western society the stronger tendency is S-P-A.

Glaser (1962, p. 6) set forth a model for the component phases of an instructional system (see Figure 2-1). The instructional goals constituted the objective to be accomplished and the purpose for which the system was designed. The main input into the system, on which it was designed to operate, consisted of the entering behavior of the student. The next phase constituted the actual instructional procedures and experiences which were employed to guide and modify behavior. The final phase was some sort of "quality control." Feeding into all phases were the results of research and development. Glaser recognized that the model showed only the main flow of the instructional system, and that in reality it could have many feedback loops and subsidiary inputs.

Nadler (1968, p. 4) outlined the general steps of the training process in a model (see Figure 2-2). He stated that developing job standards meant defining what the trainee is expected to do, and at what level of success or output he is expected to perform [p. 5]. Job standards minus what the individual already knows equals training needs. Needs can be ascertained by means which include observation, questionnaire, interview, performance tests, or group self-analysis [pp. 6-7]. In a next step, those responsible for training decisions must narrow the field to those needs which take priority. This is done by the process of selectivity taking into account the limitations of time, energy, and budget. Behavioral
Figure 2-1. The Component Phases of an Instructional System

Source: Glaser (1962, p. 6)
7. Conduct Training

6. Obtain Instructional Resources

5. Select Methods and Materials

4. Develop Curriculum

E V A L U A T I O N A N D F E E D B A C K

3. Determine Objectives

2. Identify Needs

1. Develop Job Standards

Source: Nadler (1968, p. 4)

Figure 2-2. A Process of Training

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objectives should be stated [pp. 7-8]. The curriculum is the content or subject matter organized in a meaningful sequence. The objectives of the previous step must be supported by appropriate content. An understanding of underlying learning theories is important in relation with this and subsequent steps. Methods and materials should be selected which support the curriculum. Function determines form [p. 9]. Next, the instructional resources should be obtained. Budget limitations, available personnel, and physical resources are important. During the actual training itself, careful preparation and supervision are necessary. According to Nadler's model, evaluation and feedback should be interacting with all seven stages of the training process [pp. 13-14].
CHAPTER III

DESIGN

This investigation was a developmental study. The first phase consisted of establishing a theoretical framework. The second phase built a curriculum from that framework. The third phase consisted of pilot-testing the curriculum and of measuring certain selected variables by interaction analysis.

This chapter described the design of the study including: (a) assumptions, (b) hypotheses, (c) description of the population and sample, (d) development of the family-leadership training course, (e) development of the assessment instrument, and (f) administrative procedures of treatment.

Assumptions

For the task of designing a family-life leadership curriculum, the investigator assembled certain research findings and other generally accepted theoretical concepts. The curriculum also reflects several assumptions about the family and training.

Assumptions about the family

1. The family is the most important small group in society. The well-being of society is posited on the well-being of the home.
2. Control is necessary in the family. A principal goal of child training should be the development of self-control in the
child. The more self-control exercised, the less external control is necessary.

3. Too much parental control is as bad as too little.

4. Family interaction is basically different from that of the T-group or the leaderless group in that family interaction involves authority figures and a component of task-oriented behavior.

5. Positive family living is enhanced by an integration of task-oriented role and group maintenance role functions. These differentiated roles complement each other and ideally they should blend into an overall pattern.

6. Other things being equal, those parents who frequently demonstrate positive initiation acts in the family will tend to exert more influence in the family group than those parents who infrequently demonstrate such behaviors. Positive initiation acts by parents will also tend to promote positive group syntality and to encourage shared direction among family members toward compatible goals.

7. Other things being equal, those children who frequently demonstrate positive initiation acts in the family will tend to identify themselves with the family group, to contribute relevant abilities and resources to the group, and therefore to exert influence on the family, helping it to achieve group goals.

Assumptions about training

1. Learning is the discovery of personal meaning and the relevance of ideas.
2. People are able to learn and to make far-reaching changes in life patterns if they perceive the changes to be enhancing to the self and to group syntality.

3. To accomplish such learning and change, sufficient motivation is necessary. The trainer acts as a catalyst for learning and change.

4. Information and facts are necessary in teaching, but teaching becomes increasingly effective as it goes beyond the fact level to the conceptual level and to the values level.

5. What people get out of training will be directly proportional to their personal, intellectual, physical, spiritual and emotional investment in the process.

6. Changes in family interaction will be facilitated if the entire nuclear family becomes involved in the training program. Wholistic family involvement is to be preferred to dealing with family members on a fractional basis.

Hypotheses

Within the design of the present study, there was the purpose of building a curriculum and of subsequently implementing the curriculum in the form of a family-leadership training course so as to test the following hypotheses:

1. Family-leadership training courses which utilize conventional methods plus innovative involvement methods (such as role-playing, strategies, simulations, small group work, and worksheets) will be more conducive to positive family interaction
than will training courses which limit themselves to conventional methods (such as lecture, discussion with the total group, questions and answers, stories, illustrations, and multimedia).

2. In the population studied, there will be a tendency for the fathers to be more oriented toward task and structure roles than will be the mothers.

3. In the population studied, there will be a tendency for mothers to be more oriented toward group-building and maintenance roles than will be the fathers.

4. The pattern of interaction occurring in one-parent families will be different from that occurring in two-parent families.

5. In the population studied, there will be a negative correlation between the perceiving role in parents and negative and non-group roles in their children.

Description of the Population and Sample

The community studied was basically a local church community more than a precisely delimited geographical community. The study population was those families of the Pioneer Memorial Seventh-day Adventist Church that had children enrolled in the Andrews University Laboratory School. The aforementioned church is on the campus of Andrews University in Berrien Springs, Michigan. Berrien Springs is some 90 miles northeast of Chicago and 21 miles north of South Bend, Indiana. It is located on U.S. Highways 31 and 33 about midway between Niles and the twin cities of Benton Harbor—St. Joseph,
Michigan. The investigator attempted to describe the population by focusing progressively on county, township, and local characteristics.

**Berrien County**

The 1970 Census of Population stated that Berrien County comprised 580 square miles in the extreme southwest corner of Michigan. Total population was 163,875 with an average density of 282.5 per square mile. Of the population 46.4 per cent was urban. The Village of Berrien Springs (population 1,951) was included within the category of the 13,132 inhabitants of the county who lived in places of 1,000 to 2,500 inhabitants. Since most of the Seventh-day Adventists lived outside the village limits in newer housing subdivisions, they would largely be included in the 74,731 county inhabitants classified as "other rural." The two bordering Michigan counties both showed considerably greater gain in population since the 1960 census. Cass County increased 17.3 per cent and Van Buren County increased 16.1 per cent, while Berrien County showed a 9.3 per cent increase. However Berrien County surpassed both its neighbors with its 16.2 per cent of rural population increase. Obviously the cities within the county were not booming. Benton Harbor, 15 miles north of Berrien Springs, had been the scene of racial unrest. Its population was 16,481 of which 9,687 was classified as negro. This area had been the target for numerous federal programs to assist the disadvantaged.

The median earnings in 1969 of persons in the experienced civilian labor force for selected occupation groups for those 16
years old and over with earnings, was as follows: Berrien County (male) $8,103, (female) $3,563; Cass County (male) $7,972, (female) $3,597; Van Buren County (male) $7,352, (female) $3,284. Berrien County contained several large industries including the home offices of the Clark Equipment Company, the Whirlpool Corporation, and the Heath Company.

Of those 25 years old and over in Berrien County, 52.0 per cent of the males and 52.2 per cent of the females had graduated from high school. These figures were slightly higher than those of bordering Michigan counties. Andrews University in Berrien Springs, Lake Michigan College in Benton Harbor, and extension divisions from Michigan State University and Western Michigan University at Benton Harbor were available to help meet higher education needs within the county.

Oronoko Township

A large majority of the members of the church community studied live in Oronoko township. In 1960 the population of this township was 6,397. The 1970 Census of Population stated that the township's population had grown to 8,482, a gain of 32.6 per cent. The increase can largely be accounted for by the presence and growth of Andrews University. In 1970 the township had a population of 4,170 males and 4,312 females. The Census Bureau classified 7,967 inhabitants as white, 344 as negro, and 171 as from other races. The median age was 24.1 years. A total of 30.9 per cent of the population was under 18 years of age and 7.3 per cent was
65 years and over. The township contained 2,390 households which had a population of 7,611. In group quarters there were 871 persons. There was an average of 3.18 persons per household. Of the above mentioned households, 104 were negro and other races, with a population of 367 and an average of 3.53 persons per household.

**Locality of Berrien Springs**

According to the 1970 Census of Population, the Village of Berrien Springs had 1,953 inhabitants in 1960 and 1,951 inhabitants in 1970. This represented a decrease of 0.1 per cent. Until 1894 Berrien Springs had been county seat, but with the growth of the Benton Harbor—St. Joseph area to the north, Berrien Springs lost this honor to St. Joseph. The village and adjoining unannexed territory have three Seventh-day Adventist Churches. The Pioneer Memorial Church is on the campus of Andrews University. Its membership as of September 30, 1973 was 2,715. The Berrien Springs Church, commonly called the "Village Church" had 971 members and operated its own elementary school with grades 1-6 and 176 students. In 1972 the Spanish Church was organized and as of September 30, 1973 it had a membership of 55. The total Seventh-day Adventist membership of these three churches was 3,741, being equivalent to approximately 44 per cent of the population of Oronoko Township. However exact statistical comparisons of the Seventh-day Adventist Church population of Berrien Springs and the total population of Oronoko Township are not possible, because a small number of
Seventh-day Adventists commute to the churches in Berrien Springs, although they live outside of Oronoko Township.

**Andrews University**

In 1874 the first Seventh-day Adventist college was founded in Battle Creek, Michigan. The *Andrews University Bulletin* (1973-1974, p. 18) stated that in 1901 that institution was moved to Berrien Springs and was given the name of Emmanuel Missionary College. In 1959-1960 the Seventh-day Adventist Theological Seminary and the School of Graduate Studies functioning in Washington, D.C., as Potomac University, were relocated in Michigan and were united under one charter with the former Emmanuel Missionary College, thus forming Andrews University with an integrated Board of Trustees, administration, and faculty.

Hammill, university president, stated (1973) that as of the Fall quarter of 1973 university enrollment was 2,276, an increase of 7.4 per cent over the previous fall's total. Hammill reported an undergraduate college enrollment of 1,595, in the School of Graduate Studies 310, and 286 in the Seventh-day Adventist Theological Seminary. Students hailed from 44 states, Puerto Rico, the Virgin Islands, and 63 other countries. Among the United States, Michigan was represented by the largest number of students, 787. It was followed by Illinois, 193; New York, 112; Wisconsin, 95; Indiana, 91; and California, 90 [p. 1]. As for racial or ethnic groups, 0.2 per cent of enrollees were American Indians, 1.6 per cent Orientals, 2.6 per cent Spanish, and 9.4 per cent American blacks [p. 9].
The *Andrews University Bulletin* (1973-1974, p. 19) stated that the University is accredited by the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools to confer degrees at the Bachelor's, Master's, and Doctor's degree levels. The American Association of Theological Schools has granted accreditation to the Master of Divinity, Master of Theology, and Doctor of Ministry degrees. According to the bulletin and a 1973 brochure on the Doctor of Education Program, library holdings totaled approximately 300,000 volumes plus 21,612 volumes on microfiche. The subscription list of 2,600 periodicals covered all major fields of knowledge. One hundred seven faculty members held doctoral degrees as of November 1, 1973.

**Laboratory School**

The University operated an elementary school (Pre-K to 6) with 326 students enrolled as of November, 1973. The junior academy (7-8) had an enrollment of 145, and the academy (9-12) had 288 students enrolled. Thus the overall laboratory school enrollment was 759. Van Duinen, elementary school principal, estimated that during the 1972-1973 school year there were some 800 children enrolled in the laboratory school and the church school operated by the Berrien Springs Seventh-day Adventist Church. Approximately 50 children of Seventh-day Adventist families attended public school, that is about 6 per cent. Comparable figures were not available for the 1973-1974 school year, but it was evident that a larger per cent was attending public school, presumably because of increases in
tuition rates. The 1973-1974 tuition rates ranged from a pre-kindergarten low of $220 a year to $520 for grade eight, up to an academy high of $1,020.

The elementary and junior academy are housed in a $900,000 complex completed in 1969. The Pioneer Memorial Church financed over $400,000 of this building program. In March, 1973, a four year $1,250,000 development campaign was launched for the building of a new academy. The Pioneer Memorial Church was expected to raise $300,000 of the total. By October 20, 1973 the Pioneer Memorial Church had raised $47,375.63. Many of the families had pledged 2 per cent of their income to this project and more than $1,000 a week was coming into the fund.

Pioneer Memorial Church

The Pioneer Memorial Church claims to be the most cosmopolitan church of the Seventh-day Adventist denomination. Students studying at Andrews University from scores of countries worship in it weekly. The seating capacity of the church building is 2,100 and it has 32,000 square feet of floor space. Completed in 1959, the building bears the inscription over its entrance "An House of Prayer for All People." The church has six pastors and as of September 30, 1973 it had 2,715 members.

During 1972 this church forwarded to the Michigan Conference of Seventh-day Adventists and other higher echelons of the regional and world-wide work a total of $943,490.79. The Michigan Conference
paid the salaries of the pastors. During 1972 a total of $199,900.45 was donated by members for local use.

In March of 1973 as the church organized for the new academy development campaign, the records showed that there were 808 member families which could be solicited. This number excluded students in the dormitories and laboratory school students whose parents were not members of the Pioneer Memorial Church.

Seventh-day Adventists believe in returning to God ten per cent of one's income as a "tithe." Although tithing is not a test of fellowship, it is considered to be a Biblical duty and privilege. Pastor T. I. Rush, church treasurer, estimated that the local congregation is about 80 per cent "faithful" in its tithe paying. This estimate made it possible to project what the average 1972 family income was in the church. The actual tithe paid in 1972 was $832,461.26. This would represent an income of ten times that amount, or $8,324,612.60. If the 80 per cent "faithfulness" estimate were applied, then the total probable income for the 808 supporting families was approximately $10,405,766. The average yearly income per family in the church was thus estimated to be $12,878.42, as of 1972.

The life style of the church and university community could be described as conservative, yet open. The university expects modesty in dress and required a number of long-haired freshmen to visit the barber shop before completing 1973 fall registration. Attendance at chapel assemblies and daily residence hall worships is required. There is no smoking on campus. Coffee, tea, and
meat are absent from the food service menu. However, an abundant nutrition is available and most students apparently appreciate the food. Dating and social standards are conservative. It is recognized that the school years provide a favorable opportunity for the formation of lasting friendships and Christian homes, but the general expectation is for prudence and respect between the sexes. New residence hall freshmen must deposit their license plates with the appropriate authorities and use their cars only with permission until they have proved themselves. In-coming and out-going campus traffic is controlled after 9:00 P.M. at a check-gate.

The spiritual concerns of the community are high-lighted during two annual "Weeks of Prayer." Small prayer circles in the residence halls and in the community are frequented by hundreds on a continuing weekly basis. Spiritual and family retreats have become an expected and appreciated part of the church program. During the 1970-1971 school year the campus concern retreat resulted in a marked spiritual revival on campus, especially among undergraduate students. Students of Andrews University carried this revival to other Seventh-day Adventist colleges. Religious living was unmistakably the greatest concern on campus, and well may still be.

The Adventist community also has its problems and internal differences. Needless to say, not all persons of the "new generation" subscribe to the institutional life style. The investigator's subjective analysis would be that one of the greatest problems is that some people feel marginal to the culture and progress of the university social systems. Parents who move to Berrien Springs to
educate their children sometimes feel like "nobodies" in a community where many neighbors hold higher degrees. The high school student or high school graduate tends to feel a loss of identity. This problem is especially acute since the high school does not yet have its own complex and still holds classes on the university campus proper. The church's family retreat program which reached some 400 adherents during 1973, has been planned to help meet the need of showing every family that even a big church cares about each of its component families and has a heart.

**Study population**

The investigator compared the October 31, 1973 membership list of the Pioneer Memorial Church with the November, 1973 enrollment records of the Andrews University Laboratory School. The Pioneer Memorial Church had a membership of 2,715, the elementary school (Pre-K to 6) had an enrollment of 326, the junior high (7-8) had an enrollment of 145, and the high school (9-12) had an enrollment of 288.

The study population chosen was all families of which at least one parent was a member of the Pioneer Memorial Church having one or more children enrolled in the Andrews University Laboratory School. A name by name comparison revealed a total of 223 families which constituted the study population. Because of the design of the study, separate lists were made of the 211 two-parent families and of the 12 one-parent families of the population.
Sample

Participant families for the pilot studies of the family-leadership training course were chosen by random sampling. Four training courses were held. It was desired to have from nine to twelve families registered for each training course. An effort was made to include three one-parent families in each training course so as to have heterogeneous grouping. The investigator hoped to study the one-parent family sector of the population in or near its totality, depending on how many of the twelve families to be invited actually chose to attend. In reality only two one-parent families registered and a third mother dropped by for one session. This particular pattern of non-participation will be considered further in Chapters IV and V. Of the 211 two-parent family population, 35 registered for the training courses, constituting a 17 per cent sample of the corresponding population.

Development of the Family-Leadership Training Course

As mentioned in Chapter II, the theoretical phase of this developmental study identified over 80 leadership principles applicable to the family. These in turn were screened to the 24 which the investigator considered to be most suited to reach the objectives of the training course within the constraints of the ten to twelve hours available. By inspection of these principles the investigator found that they could be categorized logically under the
following six general headings: (a) leadership means relationship, (b) distributive leadership as a family goal, (c) leadership as a goal effectuation process, (d) leadership means meeting basic needs, (e) leadership means clear mutual expectations, and (f) leadership as problem solving. These became the six sections of the emerging curriculum.

Simplified family leadership principles

The investigator thought it would be relevant to the character of the anticipated audience to rephrase most of the leadership principles in simplified language. For teaching purposes some of the original principles were combined and several related concepts and truisms were added so as to fill in certain gaps and to give a more comprehensive unity to the curriculum. The resulting list contained the following 28 points classified under the six general headings:

A. LEADERSHIP MEANS RELATIONSHIP

1. LEADERSHIP is INFLUENCE that one family member has on another or on the whole family group. It implies a shared direction toward common or at least similar goals.

2. Some parents may exercise HEADSHIP without leadership. Some family members may exercise LEADERSHIP without headship. Ideally parents should be both heads and leaders.

3. The warmer a parent is toward a child, the more influence he will exert in his life.
4. Children tend to agree with people they like. While young they try to enhance themselves by copying others they admire (hero worship), and they uncritically accept the beliefs and values of those they like (introception).

5. Successful relationships with other people are based on how the individual sees himself, and this in turn is affected by the individual's perception of his relationship with the universe.

6. The more attached the children feel to the family group, the more influence it has in setting standards for their behavior.

7. The stronger the spirit of "FAMILINESS," the less likely the children are to join deviant political or social movements (such as juvenile delinquency).

8. When caught in cross-pressures between the standards of the family group and the standards of a peer group, the individual will suffer conflict and will tend to resolve it in the direction of the strongest felt of his group ties.

B. SHARED LEADERSHIP AS A FAMILY GOAL

1. Every member of the family may be a leader. One may be an initiator, another a helper, limit setter, organizer, perceiver, encourager, harmonizer, or a follower, etc. These different gifts help unite the family circle. The gifts help the family "share" leadership.
2. Children should learn leadership skills in the home which they can apply later at school, in the church, on the job, and in their own future homes.

3. The consensus of a mature group will tend toward a better decision than will the opinion of the average single individual within that group.

4. A mature individual should not conform unthinkingly to a majority position (Remember the story of Caleb and Joshua's minority report!).

5. Taking into account long-range effects, shared leadership increases family morale and productivity (getting things done).

C. LEADERSHIP MEANS SETTING GOALS AND GETTING THE JOB DONE

1. Leadership may be democratic or autocratic but it is never laissez-faire.

2. Leaders lead to the extent that they take the initiative to achieve preferred outcomes.

3. Leadership becomes increasingly effective as the leader specifies his goals, ranks them, and carries them out according to priorities.

4. Leaders transform long-range goals into bite-size or short-range goals and make deadlines for their achievement. (Write them out!)

5. While a one-way communication consumes little time, a communication that allows for feedback is more likely to be
attended, comprehended, accepted, and to achieve desired or planned outcomes.

6. Children will help work toward family goals more cheerfully when parents take into account the children's personal goals.

D. LEADERSHIP MEANS MEETING BASIC NEEDS

1. Leadership means ENRICHING THE LIVES of others.
2. Leadership means being sensitive to the basic needs of others.
3. Self-chosen goals and rules will be internalized more than goals and rules imposed by others.

E. LEADERSHIP MEANS CLEAR MUTUAL EXPECTATIONS

1. Family relationships will be more harmonious when goals, rules, routines, and principles are clearly understood.
2. Parent predictability and consistency promote security in the home.
3. The more meaningful things a family does together, the greater will be the tendency for family values to become a deep-rooted, predictable, and reliable guide to the children's behavior.
4. There must be control. The greater the self-control, the less need of external control.

F. LEADERSHIP MEANS PROBLEM SOLVING

1. "A problem well-defined is a problem half solved."
2. Obstacles and adverse circumstances only strengthen a true leader's iron-willed determination to reach high goals. Leaders turn problems into projects.
Youth family leadership principles

In order to meet the needs of youth from age 13 through high school, the investigator rephrased the principles from the viewpoint of that particular audience. The following list, which was put into the hands of the youth group, reflects the ideology of the group. This statement of the leadership principles represents an effort to move away from abstract thinking toward concrete thinking.

A. LEADERSHIP MEANS RELATIONSHIP

1. Every youth has been entrusted with a gift of leadership. We lead when we influence others to go the same way we are going.

2. You can be a leader in a club even though you're not the president of the club. You can be a leader at home although you're not the father or the mother. Some youth may have an important job but not be leaders at all.

3. We usually lead others more when we are FRIENDLY, and less when we are cold. We can be the greatest influence on our brothers and sisters when we are warm to them and understanding. Who likes to follow a grouch?

4. We tend to agree with the people we like, and usually we think that the people we like agree with us, and that the people we dislike don't agree with our ideas.

5. The youth who has a strong relationship with God will tend to see himself as somebody who is valuable and important,
and others will see him the same way. Believing in God and in himself as a child of God, he will usually have more satisfying relationships with his parents, his brothers and sisters, and others.

6. The more tightly knit our home, the more it will be able to guide us as we set out in life to build a home of our own.

7. As youth pull together with the other family members, they are less likely to get mixed up in juvenile delinquency or crime.

8. When friends pull one way and the home influences pull another way, the youth will show what he considers to be his first allegiance.

B. SHARED LEADERSHIP AS A FAMILY GOAL

1. Every member of the family may be a leader. One may be the best lawn-mower, another the best at sewing, or at mechanics, model building, dishwashing, etc. One may be the idea man, another a helper, organizer, listener, encourager, harmonizer, or follower. These different gifts help unite the family circle and help the family "share" leadership.

2. Youth should learn leadership skills at home which they can apply later at school, in the church, in a good job, and in their own future homes.

3. The joint opinion of the family group will usually be better than will be the opinion of the average single individual within that family group.
4. A red-blooded leader won't just do something because everybody else is doing it! Is the majority always right?

5. In the long run, shared leadership increases family morale and gets the job done.

C. LEADERSHIP MEANS SETTING GOALS AND GETTING THE JOB DONE

1. Sometimes leadership may mean giving exact instructions, and sometimes it may mean making plans together. Leadership never means to just let everybody "do his own thing" when and how he wants to.

2. Leaders can lead only if they know where they are going.

3. You'll get more done in life if you write down your goals, decide which ones are the most important, and then PUT FIRST THINGS FIRST!

4. Leaders break up big goals into small bite-size goals and set a time limit to get each part done. When each little goal is done, PRESTO, the whole big goal has been reached!

5. Astronauts need to correct their course by listening to "feedback." Wise leaders keep tuned-in for feedback and correct their plans accordingly.

6. Leaders expect followers to help the group reach group goals. Wise leaders also help the followers reach their own personal goals.

D. LEADERSHIP MEANS MEETING BASIC NEEDS

1. Leadership means HELPING OTHERS TO BE SUCCESSFUL.

2. Leadership means BEING TUNED-IN TO THE NEEDS OF OTHERS.
3. If you choose a goal yourself you will be more apt to reach it than if somebody else chooses it for you.

E. LEADERSHIP MEANS CLEAR MUTUAL EXPECTATIONS

1. Family life goes better when duties and rules are clearly understood.

2. When we can predict the sure results of the way we behave, we feel more secure and happy.

3. Sometimes a family works together and sometimes it plays together. The more meaningful things that parents and children do together, the more the home will be a guide for the future when the children will have homes of their own.

4. There must be control. The greater the self-control, the less need of outside control.

F. LEADERSHIP MEANS PROBLEM SOLVING

1. "A problem well-defined is a problem half solved."

2. Obstacles won't keep a leader from reaching high goals. They only strengthen his iron-willed determination.

LEADERS TURN PROBLEMS INTO PROJECTS.

Teaching leadership to children

Children ages six to twelve were not expected to understand most of the leadership principles expressed in abstract terms. The investigator planned the children's curriculum around concrete operations as opposed to abstract operations. Thus key words,
stories, illustrations, activities, puzzles, and games like follow-the-leader, were employed. The children's instruction was based on the same leadership principles, but adapted to their developing mentality.

The family-leadership curriculum

The family-leadership curriculum outline was built around the original 24 leadership principles. To support the outline, four looseleaf notebooks were prepared: (a) the parent and general curriculum, (b) the youth curriculum, (c) the children's curriculum, and (d) the master three-level curriculum. Some 300 pages of resource material were brought together in these notebooks so that leaders of the different level programs would have general guidelines and readily available sources. A curriculum coordinator was appointed to coordinate learning activities on the different levels.

The family-leadership curriculum outline has been included in the appendices because of its length. The following codes have been used to identify which levels would be using which processes:

(1) - Used by all (parents, youth, and children)
(2) - Parents or adults
(3) - Adults and youth
(4) - Youth (ages 13 through high school)
(5) - Youth and children
(6) - Children (ages 6-12)
Development of the Assessment Instrument

The investigator desired to assess the effectiveness of the Family-Leadership Training Course. This was done by utilizing several approaches. A log was kept of families who were invited and who chose not to attend together with the reasons and excuses offered. Records were also kept of those who registered but failed to complete the training course. These records made it possible to search for patterns of participation and non-participation. Each family completing the training course filled out an evaluation form on which the parents gave an overall rating to the workshop (poor, fair, good, or excellent) and on which they reported which of their needs it met, what they liked, what they didn't like, and what major ideas were gained. The evaluation form also solicited any other trainee comments about the workshop. The investigator also kept a log of his impressions as well as some of the comments of the staff concerning the various sessions.

While it was recognized that objective measurements of curricula are very difficult to obtain, yet it was felt that there should be an objective measure to assess some dimension of the workshop. The opportunity of having dozens of family units under intensive instruction was also considered too precious to let go by without attempting to study the family interaction and behavior of the sample and to measure certain variables. While all these variables were not integrally related with the effectiveness of the workshop per se, more information concerning them would permit
the accumulation of knowledge concerning family interaction patterns in the population.

Originally the investigator had hoped to measure the families by some standardized leadership scale. However, a search of Buros' *Personality Tests and Reviews* (1970) is quite unrewarding if one is looking for a valid leadership scale. Gibb (1968, p. 91) pointed out that the term "leadership" is general and ambiguous. It lacks the specificity and precision necessary to scientific thinking and measurement. Thus, while "leadership" is as yet impossible to measure validly and reliably, yet "acts of leading" are measurable by interaction analysis.

The problem of the investigator was to find or create an instrument which would be sensitive in some degree to the principles on which the Family-Leadership Training Course was built. The six category system of Wilson (1971, pp. 433-438) was considered. Wilson codes thus: (1) positive social-emotional, (2) negative social-emotional, (3) task oriented, (4) task irrelevant, (5) positive task morale, and (6) negative task morale.

Flanders' (1970) ten and twenty-two category systems were considered. Flanders' system was considered by the investigator to be excellent for its intended purpose, that of teacher-student classroom interaction. However, it was thought to be inappropriate for small group and family interaction, and not suited to reflect the importance of the task dimension.

The twelve category system of Bales (1950, p. 59) was considered by the investigator to be well-adapted to small group interaction.
Bales theoretical framework [pp. 30-40] presents a rationale for the interaction analysis process. However, a more flexible category system was sought by the investigator to permit inclusion of some leading acts dimensions reflected in the 24 principles of the present training course. Several interaction analysis systems were compared point by point with the various leadership principles. So as to maximize the measurement of principles embodied in the training course, the investigator finally decided to create his own instrument.

Leadership has been widely considered to have two significant dimensions: first the task function, and second the group-building and maintenance function. These two dimensions are clearly evident in the following definition of leadership: "Leadership is going somewhere and taking people with you." G. Lippitt (1961, p. 10) stated: "There appear to be two main classifications of leadership needs in groups: the achievement of the group goal and the maintenance or strengthening of the group itself."

The most complete theoretical framework which the investigator found for the categorization of the functional roles of group members was that of Benne and Sheats (1961, pp. 53-55). The investigator used this framework considerably in the creation of his own interaction analysis role categories. Benne and Sheats differentiate the following roles: (a) group task roles, (b) group-building and maintenance roles, and (c) non-group roles. Within these three general classifications twenty-seven specific roles are mentioned. For the purposes of this study, the investigator
broadened the first general classification to "task and structure roles." Benne and Sheats included standard setting as a part of group-building roles, but the present investigator included this concept as limit setting under the task and structure roles. The present investigator broadened Benne and Sheats' third general category to "negative and non-group roles." This included the negative task and negative social-emotional categories borrowed from Wilson, and retained the non-group roles of Benne and Sheats. The investigator did not view this third general category as being intrinsically undesirable. On the contrary, he estimated that a limited, but not predominate, component of negative task and perhaps of non-group roles would be indispensable for any individual who is able to choose selectively from given alternatives. The stable features of the consequent interaction analysis instrument are the three general classifications under which any group behavior can be categorized and the fact that the general classifications must include catch-all categories. Other categories may vary to different specific leading roles as may suit the needs of any particular study.

Table 3-1 presents the Family Leadership Interaction Analysis Categories (FLIAC) which was prepared by the investigator to be used as the measurement instrument in this study.

Clarifying the content of the categories

The value of an interaction analysis process depends upon the precision and standardization of the categories. The investigator attempted to define the categories precisely. Cross reference was
# Table 3-1

Family Leadership Interaction Analysis Categories (FLIAC)

(For use with family groups or other small groups of up to 10 members)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Role</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>GROUP TASK AND STRUCTURE</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. The initiator-contributor.</td>
<td>Suggests or proposes a preferred outcome.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. The option seeker.</td>
<td>Suggests options. Provides or asks for alternatives and invites participation in decision making.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. The limit setter.</td>
<td>Refers to standards, rules, or norms. Sets limits.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Other group task roles not classified as 1, 2, or 3.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>GROUP-BUILDING AND MAINTENANCE</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. The perceiver.</td>
<td>Hears or solicits feedback. Overt acts which show attentive listening skills. Accepts and clarifies an attitude or feeling tone of others in a non-threatening manner.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. The encourager.</td>
<td>Shows solidarity, raises status of others, gives help, rewards. Suggests resources to make other group members successful.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. The harmonizer and other group building roles not classified as 5 or 6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>NEGATIVE AND NON-GROUP ROLES</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Negative task.</td>
<td>Negative attitudes about the task or situation as an object.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Other non-group roles not classified as 8 or 9.</td>
<td>Negative silence.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Subscripting: The ten categories are to be subscripted with the code number of the participant. Thus, father as initiator would be 1₁, Jack as disagreeer would be 9₃, mother as harmonizer would be 7₂, etc.
made to where Benne and Sheats' subcategories would fit into the present system.

1. **Initiator-contributor.** Suggests or proposes a preferred outcome. Energizer. The idea has creative or novel content and is not just routine. Active helping in children.

2. **Option seeker.** Suggests options. Provides or asks for alternatives and invites participation. Related to category 5, but when perceptivity is present, 5 takes precedence. Includes component of openness. "Where do you want to go?" "We could pick strawberries or oranges."

3. **Limit setter.** Refers to standards, rules, or norms. Sets limits. Routine reading or restatement of the task would be category 4. Limitations of time, money. Limiting the wild ideas of others by appealing to "Let's be reasonable about this." Structuring by limitation. Evaluator-critic.

4. **Group task catch-all.** This includes information seeker, information giver, opinion giver, elaborator, summarizer.

5. **Perceiver.** Hears or solicits feedback. Overt acts which show attentive listening skills. Accepts and clarifies an attitude or feeling tone of others in a non-threatening manner. "I know how you feel." Keeps communication lines open.

6. **Encourager.** Shows solidarity, raises other's status, gives help, rewards. Suggests resources to make another group member successful. Agrees.

7. **Group-building catch-all.** Harmonizer, compromiser, follower, etc.
8. **Negative task.** Negative attitudes about the task or situation as an object. Blocker. Sarcasm toward task.


10. **Other non-group roles.** Other non-group roles not classified as 8 or 9. Recognition-seeker, show off, playboy, more or less studied forms of "out-of-field" behavior, self-confessor, help-seeker, special interest pleader, dominator. Negative silence--silence because of embarrassment.

**The test**

The test situation was comprised of five minutes of recorded family interaction on a group-task, that of planning a family vacation. During the first workshop one written statement of this task was used. However, the task was found to be too agreeable for it produced almost no negative interaction or conflict, and consequently failed to bring out the harmonizing and other group-building roles. This data collected from the first workshop was disqualified and a second statement of the task was prepared so as to include more potential for conflict in order to bring out a greater spectrum of roles. The following task statement was used:

Your family is planning a vacation trip for this coming summer. The trip should include a stop-over at one of the in-laws and at least one day should be spent picking fruit.
for canning or eating. The length of the vacation and where you go depend on if each family member is willing to chip in at least two or three weeks of his or her earnings. Decide which relative you will visit and how long you will stay. What fruit will you pick? How much money is each willing to chip in? What would the family like to do on the vacation? (Where you want to go, etc.)

As was expected from a contrived task situation, the majority of the interactions were task and structure centered. However, the group-building and negative roles also appeared in sufficient quantity to permit comparisons of the relationships between the frequency of these acts in various members of the family. The investigator was not particularly interested in the relative frequency of task and structure roles in family analysis. However, on this given task, the investigator was interested in seeing if fathers or mothers were more task and structure oriented, and to study the relationship between perceiving or encouraging parental acts and negative children acts, etc. Undoubtedly unperceived observation of uncontrived family situations would be more enlightening than the present contrived situation. However, families are justifiably jealous of family privacy and confidentiality. The investigator used no subterfuge and was open about all data-gathering techniques. With but few exceptions, the data gathered appeared to be genuine, and to reflect to a substantial degree accustomed family interaction patterns.

Reliability of the data

A trained graduate student recorded the interactions at three second intervals. An electric signaling device was used to indicate
each three second period. A second observer concurrently marked on a form which family member was speaking at each signal so as to permit a double check on the first observer's data. The interaction, signals and all, was also tape-recorded. The first observer's data were carefully rechecked by both him and another observer on the tape-recording. Up to two and three hours were sometimes spent on five minute segments of interaction. Experience demonstrated that the more subtle interactions could be best recognized and categorized by repeated re-running of small five or six second segments of the tape. The final version of the family interaction report was arrived at by the consensus of two observers.

Profiles of leading acts

After the data were cleaned up, the number of acts under each category were totaled for each individual. The total of each category divided by the individual's grand total, divided by 10, gave the individual's profile index. The total of an individual's profile indices was always 10. Likewise it was possible to accumulate category indices within the three broad areas and thus give each individual a general profile score. For instance a 7 - 2.5 - 0.5 individual would have those indices in the task and structure roles, group-building and maintenance roles, and the negative and non-group roles respectively. Combined parent indices on given categories were calculated and the statistical relationships with combined children indices on determined categories were examined.
Administrative Procedures of Treatment

The treatment consisted of approximately thirteen and one-half hours of family leadership instruction given in each of four separate workshops called "Operation Family." These workshops were held during a one-month period from January 5 to February 5, 1974. The Saturday sessions of six and one-half hours of instruction were held at Camp Warren, seven miles north of St. Joseph, Michigan, and the three evening sessions of each workshop were held at the investigator's home to permit a family atmosphere.

Sampling procedures

The investigator implemented procedures to try to insure the representativeness of the sample. The two-parent family population was numbered from 001 to 211 in alphabetical order. Numbers were drawn from tables of random numbers and assigned to make up about 20 families for each of the four workshops. A general back-up list of numbers was also provided in case 9-12 attending families could not be obtained from the 20 family list. The lists were switched so the investigator had no idea of the numbers, much less of the names of those chosen for the one control group. A secretary made the original mailing of invitations to the training courses without the investigator knowing the identity of the numbers which had been drawn.

The workshops were given the name "Operation Family" and received the official sponsorship of the Lay Activities Committee of the Pioneer Memorial Church. The first mailing for each workshop
went to about 15 families. It was anticipated that at least 5 families would not be able to attend. As the secretarial follow-up indicated that less than the desired number were planning to attend, the next names on the list were contacted. No public advertisement of the workshops was made and those who heard about the workshops from friends and asked permission to attend were not permitted to do so unless their numbers had been randomly drawn.

The secretary sent out the invitation form letter together with a map and a cover letter signed by the superintendent of the Andrews University Laboratory School. (Copies of the letters are included in the appendices.) About five days after the mailing, the secretary began telephoning the invited families. Some accepted immediately, some had to be contacted several more times until definite arrangements were made, and others offered reasons or excuses why they could not attend. The reasons expressed ranged from "I'm not interested" to overpowering reasons of time conflict, other appointments, and illness. A log of the reasons and excuses was kept for subsequent analysis.

In some cases replacements for last minute dropouts had to be contacted first by telephone and this followed-up by the letters because of the time factor. In every case, without exception, all the families who registered for any of the workshops were chosen by the aforementioned random process.

The investigator assumed that each workshop would be a progressive learning experience for the staff and that the last workshops
well might function more smoothly than the first. Thus the one control group was scheduled for the third workshop, while workshops one, two, and four constituted the experimental treatment.

Experimental and control groups

The workshops numbers one, two, and four employed the experimental treatment of maximizing the use of the following innovative involvement methods: role-playing, strategies, simulations, small group work, and worksheets. The instructors also could use any of the conventional methods used in the control group. In the experimental groups approximately one-third of the instruction time involved use of the above mentioned innovative involvement methods.

Workshop number three, held from January 26-29, 1974, was designated as the control group. It employed conventional methods of instruction, here defined as lecture, illustrations, stories, discussion with the total class, questions and answers, and audio-visual methods (including overhead transparencies, filmstrips, and flip charts). None of the experimental innovative methods were used for the control group.

Operationalizing the hypotheses

Hypothesis 1. The investigator hypothesized that the experimental group would show higher composite positive interaction indices than the control group. This meant that the combined group task and structure roles index and the group-building roles index would be
higher because of the experimental treatment. Stated inversely it meant
that the experimental group would show a lower negative and non-
group roles index. In the statistical treatment of the data the
investigator compared the composite positive family indices of the
experimental group with those of the control group by means of a
t test for uncorrelated means. On this main hypothesis the in-
vestigator assumed that a significance of .05 would be required to
definitely support the hypothesis. (On the secondary hypotheses—
hypotheses 2, 3, 4, and 5—the investigator assumed that a signifi-
cance of .1 would show support.)

Hyposis 2. The investigator hypothesized that, in the
population studied, there would be a tendency for the fathers to be
more oriented toward task and structure roles than would be the
mothers. Operationally this meant that the mean of the task and
structure roles index for all the fathers studied should be higher
than the mean of the task and structure roles index for all the
mothers studied. The fathers and mothers were compared by a one-
tailed t test for dependent means. The investigator assumed that
a significance of .1 would show a moderate tendency of support
for this hypothesis.

Hypothesis 3. The investigator hypothesized that, in the popu-
lation studied, there would be a tendency for the mothers to be more
oriented toward group-building and maintenance roles than would be the
fathers. This hypothesis was closely related to hypothesis 2 since
the group-building roles index will dependently vary with fluctuations
hypotheses 2 and 3 to either both be supported or both be un-supported by the data. Operationally this hypothesis meant that the mean of the group-building roles index for all the mothers studied should be higher than the mean of the group-building roles index for all the fathers. The statistical test and significance level expected would be similar to that of hypothesis 2.

**Hypothesis 4.** The investigator hypothesized that the pattern of interaction occurring in one-parent families would be different than that occurring in two-parent families. A two-tailed \( t \) test for dependent means would be used to compare the indices of different categories, searching for any interesting differences.

**Hypothesis 5.** The investigator hypothesized that there would be a negative correlation between parent perceptivity and their children's negative and non-group roles. Operationally this meant that the paired indices of the parents' perceiving role (category 5) and their children's negative and non-group roles would tend to be negatively correlated when compared by the product moment correlation coefficient. Since the hypothesis was directional, a one-tailed \( t \) test would follow. The investigator assumed that a significance of .1 would show a moderate tendency of support for this hypothesis. The investigator also searched for other negative correlations between specific group-building and maintenance role indices in fathers or mothers and the negative and non-group roles indices in their children.
CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

Following the preparation of the Family-Leadership Training Course, the curriculum was pilot-tested with four different groups during the months of January and February, 1974. Each workshop started on Saturday in a camp setting about seven miles from St. Joseph, Michigan. Six and one-half hours of instruction were scheduled on Saturday morning and afternoon. There was also socializing at the noon pot-luck dinner. On Sunday, Monday, and Tuesday nights the workshops continued from 7:00 to 9:00 P.M. in the home of the investigator. On two occasions the four groups met together for motion pictures on the subjects of discipline and self-image. The total duration of the workshop for any given group was about thirteen and one-half hours. Table 4-1 presents an overview of participation in the workshops.

Participation of Two-Parent Families

In a possible sub-population of 211 two-parent families, a total of 119 contacts were attempted. With 15 of these no contact was confirmed, leaving a total of 104 confirmed contacts. Sixty-nine of these families did not participate. They presented various reasons, excuses, or simply did not show up. Thirty-five of the two-parent families registered for the training course and

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Table 4-1
Workshop Participation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Workshop No.</th>
<th>Registered</th>
<th>Completed</th>
<th>Interaction Data</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>07</td>
<td>06</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>08</td>
<td>05</td>
<td>05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>09</td>
<td>09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

31 completed the instruction and filled out the evaluation form. The investigator disqualified the interaction analysis data of six partici­pant families because of an alteration in the experimental treatment. Thus, usable interaction analysis data was obtained from 25 families.

Participation of One-Parent Families

In a presumed sub-population of 12 one-parent families, it was found that one family had been included by mistake. Another mother had remarried, was buying a house, and was too involved to attend. This left a net sub-population of 10 families. All were family units composed of the mother and dependent children. No con­firmed contact was made with two of the ten families, leaving eight. Of those eight families, four presented the following responses:

1. The mother was getting remarried. She said the course sounded good, but that she didn't have time.
2. The mother said she was going to attend. Excuses followed. She never showed up.

3. The mother stated that the children weren't interested and she didn't want to leave them alone.

4. The son wanted to come. The mother said it was winter and too cold.

The remaining four families had the following relationship with the training course:

1. The mother alone attended one session, a week after the course she was scheduled to attend.

2. The mother came Saturday morning with her two children. She left after dinner and didn't return.

3. The mother brought her two teen-aged sons on Saturday despite a serious family quarrel over the sons not wanting to come. The sons demonstrated non-involvement, but gradually appeared to warm as the day went on. The sons did not return for the evening sessions. The mother attended all except the last session which she missed because of a distant doctor's appointment for one of the sons.

4. The mother seemed to be very close emotionally to her daughter (grade 3). The mother and daughter attended all the sessions and apparently integrated well. The mother was too emotionally moved to take part in the interaction analysis or the other evaluation.

In summary, the investigator obtained no interaction analysis data from the one-parent segment of the population.
Experimental vs. Control Groups

Table 4-2 presents the positive leadership roles index for the experimental (innovative plus conventional methods) and the control group (conventional methods). The one-tailed $t$ obtained was not significant at the required .1 level.

Table 4-3 presents the trainee family evaluations of the family-leadership training course. (Poor = 1, fair = 2, good = 3, excellent = 4.) The one-tailed $t$ obtained was not significant at the desired .1 level.

Task and Structure Roles Index of Fathers vs. Mothers

Table 4-4 compares the task and structure roles index of fathers and mothers. The one-tailed $t$ obtained was not significant at the required .1 level.

Group-Building and Maintenance Roles Index of Mothers vs. Fathers

Table 4-5 compares the group-building and maintenance roles index of the mothers with that of the fathers. The one-tailed $t$ obtained was not significant at the required .1 level.

Relationship Between Parents' Perceiving Role Index and Children's Negative and Non-Group Roles Index

Table 4-6 presents a paired comparison of the parents' perceiving role index and their children's negative and non-group roles

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Table 4-2
Positive Leadership Roles Index Analysis for Experimental and Control Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Range</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>St. Dev.</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Obtained t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>6.70-10.00</td>
<td>9.035</td>
<td>1.070</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>-0.340</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>7.39-09.93</td>
<td>9.167</td>
<td>0.809</td>
<td>11</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

with 23 df

Table 4-3
Trainee Family Evaluations of the Family-Leadership Training Course

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Range</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>St. Dev.</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Obtained t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>3-4</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>0.5130</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>1.217</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>3-4</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>0.4671</td>
<td>11</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

with 29 df
### Table 4-4

Task and Structure Roles Index of Fathers vs. Mothers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Range</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>St. Dev.</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Obtained t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fathers</td>
<td>5.71-9.64</td>
<td>8.1032</td>
<td>1.0839</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>0.8063</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mothers</td>
<td>5.39-9.64</td>
<td>7.8384</td>
<td>1.2215</td>
<td>25</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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### Table 4-5

Group-Building and Maintenance Roles Index of Mothers vs. Fathers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Range</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>St. Dev.</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Obtained t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mothers</td>
<td>00-4.42</td>
<td>1.7404</td>
<td>1.1993</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>0.7635</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fathers</td>
<td>3-3.18</td>
<td>1.5364</td>
<td>1.0116</td>
<td>25</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Table 4-6

Relationship Between Parents' Perceiving Role Index and Children's Negative and Non-Group Roles Index

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parent Perceiving Roles Index</th>
<th>Children's Negative and Non-Group Roles Index</th>
<th>Correlation Coefficient</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.760</td>
<td>.870</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.280</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.000</td>
<td>5.730</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.530</td>
<td>.625</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.245</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.600</td>
<td>1.345</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.655</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.180</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>.240</td>
<td>2.640</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.480</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.460</td>
<td>3.330</td>
<td>Product-moment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.460</td>
<td>3.960</td>
<td>correlation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.365</td>
<td>1.690</td>
<td>coefficient of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.525</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>-0.2725</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.235</td>
<td>1.110</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.355</td>
<td>1.445</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.520</td>
<td>.790</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.215</td>
<td>.620</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.770</td>
<td>1.830</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.000</td>
<td>4.800</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.000</td>
<td>4.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.365</td>
<td>1.110</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.830</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.145</td>
<td>.800</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>.535</td>
<td>1.501</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>St. Dev.</td>
<td>.591</td>
<td>1.650</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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index. The product-moment correlation coefficient when tested by a one-tailed t was significant at the required .1 level. (If curvilinearity were assumed, the resulting F would reach easily the required level of significance.)

Figure 4-1 presents a scattergram of the paired relationships between the parents' perceiving role index and their children's negative and non-group roles index.

Table 4-7 presents a paired comparison of the fathers' encouraging role index and their children's negative and non-group roles index. The product-moment correlation coefficient of -0.3875 when tested by a one-tailed t was significant at the .03 level. (If curvilinearity were assumed, the resulting F would reach easily the required .1 level of significance.) When the mothers' encouraging role index was compared with their children's negative and non-group roles index, the correlation coefficient was much less marked, being only -0.0307.

Figure 4-2 presents a scattergram of the paired relationship between the father encouraging role index and his children's negative and non-group roles index.
Figure 4-1. Scattergram of Paired Relationship Between Parents' Perceiving Role Index and Children's Negative and Non-Group Roles Index
Table 4-7
Relationship Between Fathers' Encouraging Role Index and Children's Negative and Non-Group Roles Index

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fathers' Encouraging Roles Index</th>
<th>Children's Negative and Non-Group Roles Index</th>
<th>Correlation Coefficient</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.670</td>
<td>.870</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.210</td>
<td>5.730</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.625</td>
<td></td>
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<td>2.440</td>
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<tr>
<td>.560</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>.000</td>
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<tr>
<td>.000</td>
<td>2.640</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>Product-moment correlation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.000</td>
<td>3.330</td>
<td>coefficient of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.000</td>
<td>3.960</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.050</td>
<td>1.690</td>
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<tr>
<td>1.500</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>-0.3875</td>
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<tr>
<td>1.360</td>
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<tr>
<td>.190</td>
<td>1.445</td>
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<td>.950</td>
<td>.790</td>
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<td>2.890</td>
<td>.620</td>
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<td>1.830</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>.310</td>
<td>4.800</td>
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<td>.000</td>
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<tr>
<td>1.500</td>
<td>1.110</td>
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<td>.730</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>.550</td>
<td>.830</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.800</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>.742</td>
<td>1.501</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>St. Dev.</td>
<td>.849</td>
<td>1.650</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 4-2. Scattergram of Paired Relationship Between the Father Encouraging Role Index and Children's Negative and Non-Group Roles Index

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CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter presents (a) a summary of this developmental study, (b) conclusions reached, and (c) recommendations for further study and extended use of the curriculum.

Summary

The purposes of this study were (a) to identify concepts of leadership theory which might be functional in parent-child interaction, (b) to build a family-leadership training course from this theoretical framework, and (c) to pilot-test this curriculum in a particular Seventh-day Adventist population so as to investigate the relative effectiveness of two instructional methods and to study the relationship among various leadership roles in parents and children.

In his review of the literature, the investigator found no evidence of family-life training courses based on a comprehensive scope of leadership theory. In the six major sources on leadership that the investigator primarily drew upon, more than 80 leadership principles were identified. The principles included in this master list met the following criteria established by the investigator: (a) they dealt with on-going situation, (b) they dealt with face-to-face interaction, (c) they were pertinent to small groups, (d) they were considered by the investigator to be applicable to
the group development of the family, and (e) they were understand-
able to various age levels (parents, teen-agers, and six to twelve
year old children) to which they were presented. From the master
list of over 80 leadership principles, the investigator selected
24 which seemed to be the most pertinent for the desired ends of
the training course. Upon inspection it was found that these were
classifiable into six general areas: (a) leadership means relation-
ship, (b) distributive leadership as a family goal, (c) leadership
as a goal effectuation process, (d) leadership means meeting basic
needs, (e) leadership means clear mutual expectations, and (f)
leadership as problem solving.

A very few references were found in the literature concerning
family-life training courses which used a global approach including
the entire nuclear family. The investigator presented a rationale
which endeavored to justify the global family approach and he made
"family learning" a cornerstone of the Family-Leadership Training
Course. Training methodology was reviewed so as to maximize the
learning possibilities by using appealing tested approaches.

A flexible curriculum was built which could be adapted either
to short eight to ten hour training courses or easily lengthened to
twenty hours. The four pilot tests which were conducted required
thirteen and one-half hours of instruction for each one.

Measurement instrument

The investigator prepared a Family Leadership Interaction
Analysis Categories instrument (FLIAC) based largely on the theoretical
model of Benne and Sheats. FLIAC permitted a classification of family interaction into (a) task and structure roles, (b) group-building and maintenance roles, and (c) negative and non-group roles. The recording of family interaction made it possible to construct a profile of the roles of each family member. The investigator believes that the creation of the instrument was one of the most valuable aspects of the present study. It permits the scientific measurement of the three general classifications or of sub-categories according to the needs of a particular investigation. Despite limitations imposed by a contrived problem, the investigator found the recorded interaction, on the whole, to be genuine.

The pilot tests

The four pilot tests of the family leadership curriculum demonstrated both the difficulties and the rewards of a global cross-generation approach to family-life education. The population was found to be strongly oriented toward peer level activities. Children, youth, and parents appeared to be kept very busy by school and church activities, most of which were peer-centered. This led the investigator to make the purposely-exaggerated statement that "if the church and school had deliberately set out to divide the nuclear family by their activities, they could not have done a better job!" Initial resistance by teen-agers to the cross-generation approach was encountered. Nevertheless, the youth component of the workshops was considerably greater than expected. More youth of ages thirteen and up attended than children ages six
to twelve, presumably as a curious result of the random selection process. The training course demonstrated that it had power to help integrate the family and to hold the youth once they arrived.

Programming and staffing were important considerations. Most sessions required a staff of about seven or eight to keep all phases of the program going. It was initially planned to have three age levels of activity: parents, youth (ages 13 and up), and children (ages six to twelve). In reality it was necessary to add two more levels: an essentially story-telling and baby-sitting activity for children up to the age of five, and a separate activity for staff children. A loyal staff was recruited without remuneration. Three staff members held doctoral degrees and two others were in the final stages of writing their doctoral dissertations. The investigator served as director when all the groups were together and of the parents' group. The workshop secretary played a key role, and took full responsibility for getting the sample families to the sessions. This was an immense job which required perhaps 160 hours of sending correspondence, confirming by telephone, and doing paper work in the sessions. The investigator, assisted by a curriculum coordinator, prepared an almost minute-by-minute schedule for families meeting together, interspersed with age-level activities. The curriculum coordinator was a resource person who supervised the program of the different levels.

The investigator did a subjective analysis of the reasons and excuses offered by the 69 two-parent families who were invited but did not attend the workshops. Apparently 14 families were not
interested (sometimes the mothers wanted to come but could obtain no family support for attending), 28 families presented apparently-valid reasons such as time conflicts, sickness, etc., and the remaining 27 fell somewhere between the other two groups.

The idea of grouping to include both two-parent and one-parent families did not work. Several possible explanations are offered for the failure of the workshops to attract one-parent families, namely: (a) The workshops dealt with a sensitive issue for some which they would rather not discuss in the presence of two-parent families. (b) Divorced or separated parents may feel that some members of the subculture are judgmental toward them. (c) The more "in thing" in the subculture is to be married. (d) Mothers who are, alone, attempting to raise dependent children live a life burdened with extra responsibilities and a heavy work program which make it difficult for them to attend many gatherings.

It was interesting to note that all of the ten one-parent families in the population consisted of mothers with dependent children.

The families who completed the workshops were generally very appreciative. The evaluation sheets indicated that in the opinion of the trainees the workshops had dealt with family "togetherness," family leadership, happier family living, how to foresee and avoid family problems, the home as the basic training unit preceding the importance of school and church influences, the necessity for more planning and programming to make parents and children better people, family priorities, the unique leadership roles that every member of the family may play, etc.

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The need for varied methods and media was evidenced in the fact that some trainees found least useful what others found most useful. A multimedia approach made it possible to have something for everyone. The most common trainee suggestion for bettering the workshops was to have more time for in-depth discussions of their own family experiences and problems. This is what the parents really wanted—to discuss their successes and problems with other parents and to have the assurance that their families were not singular, but that they underwent approximately the same kinds of tensions and problems as other families.

A unique feature of the workshops was that the evening sessions were held in the investigator's home. The 10 or 11 trainee families plus the staff families usually comprised a group of about 40 to 45 people. Although a private home did not offer the spaciousness of a public facility, yet the personal family atmosphere provided may have been one of the keys of the workshops' success.

Ample indications were found that family leadership is a promising dimension to the burgeoning field of family-life education.

Summary related to hypotheses

Hypothesis 1. "Family-leadership training courses which utilize conventional methods plus innovative involvement methods (such as role-playing, strategies, simulations, small group work, and worksheets) will be more conducive to positive family interaction than will training courses which limit themselves to conventional methods (such as lecture, discussion with the total group, questions and answers,
stories, illustrations, and multimedia)." This first hypothesis was not supported. However, there seemed to be a slight to moderate tendency for the experimental group to find the workshops more interesting. It should be pointed out that the staff did its best with both the experimental and the control groups, since the reputation of the program in the local social system was at stake in both groups.

In practice it was found that the use of strategies, simulations, etc., were quite time-consuming and that they did not guarantee increased interaction. In the absence of the "innovative involvement" methods, the control group had more time for further exploration of content areas and for meaningful total group discussion. The control group, although it did not use role-playing, strategies, simulations, the small group method or workshops, still had access to audio-visual methods which were extensively employed. It should be noted that since only eleven families participated in the control group workshop, when these families were separated in their age level activities, their numbers in the largest sectional group were not much greater than what is usually considered to be a small group. In general it can be said that the use of "innovative involvement" methods in the pilot tests did not appear to be associated with a tendency toward increased learning, but did appear to be associated with a tendency to enjoy the workshops.

Hypothesis 2. "In the population studied, there will be a tendency for the fathers to be more oriented toward task and structure roles than will be the mothers." Although the fathers'
task and structure roles index was 8.1032 as compared to 7.8384 for the mothers, showing a slight tendency for the fathers to exceed the mothers in this dimension, yet the difference was not marked. Thus the second hypothesis was not supported.

The above findings are congruent with those of O'Neill (1971) who reasoned that differentiation of leadership roles in the nuclear family may or may not occur and that it may or may not occur along lines of sexual identity. O'Neill stated [pp. 2-3] that three broad categories of factors influence role differentiation or the measurement of role differentiation: (a) the impact of individual differences and the presence of different personality variables in the family members, (b) the effect of differences in family composition and membership, and (c) the influence of variations in situation context, and manner of assessment of the families. Bronfenbrenner (1961), as reported by O'Neill [p. 5], found that as fathers ascended the educational ladder, they demonstrated less role differentiation than less educated fathers. Thus educated fathers were more likely to assume integrative as well as adaptive functions. Bronfenbrenner, as reported by O'Neill [p. 6], found fathers to be more task-oriented toward sons and social-emotional toward daughters, while the opposite held true for mothers, who were task-oriented to their daughters and social-emotional toward sons. Leik (1963), as reported by O'Neill [p. 8], found a negative relationship between intimacy and familiarity on one hand, and role differentiation on the other. The critiques which O'Neill refers to do not attempt to invalidate the differentiation
concepts of Parsons and Bales (1955), "but rather demonstrate the richness and the complexity of the variables and their interactions [p. 1]."

Hypothesis 3. "In the population studied, there will be a tendency for mothers to be more oriented toward group-building and maintenance roles than will be the fathers." Although the mothers' group-building and maintenance roles index was 1.7404 as compared to 1.5364 for the fathers, showing a slight tendency for the mothers to exceed the fathers, yet the difference was not marked. Thus the third hypothesis was not supported.

As was previously stated, hypotheses two and three were dependent on each other and the lack of support for hypothesis two virtually meant a lack of support for hypothesis three. O'Neill's discussion referred to above is applicable here also.

Hypothesis 4. "The pattern of interaction occurring in one-parent families will be different from that occurring in two-parent families." The virtual non-participation of one-parent families made it impossible to test this hypothesis.

Hypothesis 5. "In the population studied there will be a negative correlation between the perceiving role in parents and negative and non-group roles in their children." This hypothesis was moderately supported. The t obtained was significant at the .095 level.

The investigator also searched for other negative correlations between specific group-building and maintenance roles indices in fathers or mothers and the negative and non-group roles indices in
fathers or mothers and the negative and non-group roles indices in their children. A strong negative correlation was found between the fathers' encouraging role and their children's negative and non-group roles. The product-moment correlation coefficient was -0.3875, which had a one-tailed significance at the .03 level. However, as may be noted in Figure 4-2, the two highest father-encouraging role indices seem to indicate a positive association with children's negative and non-group responses. While the limited sample does not permit any generalization to the total population, it does raise a question as to whether there might be an optimum level for the encouraging role. An excess of encouragement, given perhaps for things that the child inwardly realizes do not merit commendation, may be associated with negative reactions.

The mothers' encouraging role gave a product-moment correlation coefficient of only -0.03 with their children's negative and non-group roles, which was not considered significant. Thus, when the fathers in the population sample studied demonstrated the encouraging role (encouraging, agreeing, raising status), it was associated with a minimizing of children's negative and non-group roles much more strongly than was the mothers' encouraging role.

Conclusions

In this study, pertinent concepts of leadership theory were identified which were considered to be functional in parent-child interaction. A family-leadership training course was built from
this theoretical framework with the idea of offering instruction on family-life education for the entire nuclear family based on comprehensive leadership theory. Pilot studies of the curriculum were run in a Seventh-day Adventist community.

A one-third time component of innovative involvement methods (strategies, simulations, role-playing, small group work and worksheets) plus a two-thirds time component of conventional methods (lecture, illustrations, stories, total group discussion, question and answer, and multimedia) was not found to be associated with higher positive family leadership roles indices than were the conventional methods alone, as measured by interaction analysis at the end of the training course. However, trainees showed a slight tendency to prefer the innovative involvement methods.

The study did not show any support for stereotyping fathers as more task and structure oriented than mothers, nor for stereotyping mothers as more group-building and maintenance oriented than fathers. The parents' perceiving role was found to be negatively correlated (significant at .095 level) with their children's negative and non-group roles. The fathers' encouraging role was found to be negatively correlated (significant at .03 level) with their children's negative and non-group roles.

The Family-Leadership Training Course proved successful as judged by the criteria of: (a) holding power on registrants, (b) the evaluations of trainees, and (c) subjective analysis by the staff. There were ample indications that the family leadership approach offers a promising dimension to family-life education.
Recommendations for Further Study and Extended Use of the Curriculum

1. In a further study, the measurement instrument could be refined, other categories closely related to leading behavior could be added or substituted, and the categories could be defined with greater precision.

2. A problem situation could be developed to use with the instrument which would bring out a greater proportion of group-building and maintenance roles and perhaps of negative and non-group roles.

3. On separate occasions different types of problem situations could be presented to the same family and their influence on the differentiation of leadership roles in the nuclear family could be studied.

4. A stronger statistical procedure could be sought for dealing with certain kinds of variables. Profile analysis would be one possible approach.

5. This study dealt only with the totals of different categorized acts of the various family members. Another study could be done using the same raw data to examine relationships in the sequence of different categorized acts among family members. In other words, what kind of act tends to follow what kind of act?

6. A further investigation could study role differentiation in the nuclear family using parent educational background as the breakdown variable. As a starting place for any research concerned with family role differentiation, the investigator would recommend

7. The significance of negative correlation between the father encouraging role and children's negative and non-group roles could be confirmed or rejected by studying other populations. If the universal presence of such a relationship were confirmed, an investigation would be profitable to try to determine why the father encouraging role apparently is much more strongly associated with positive children leadership roles than is the mother encouraging role. If the father encouraging role is found to be a key factor in positive family interaction, then it would be useful to undertake the preparation of a curriculum to teach fathers the effective use of the encouraging role.

8. Since the family-leadership training course proved to be ineffective in reaching the one-parent family segment of the population for grouping with the two-parent families, this curriculum could be pilot-tested in homogeneous grouping of one-parent families. Alternate or modified programs, geared to the unique needs of one-parent families, might be sought.

9. The effectiveness of the general family-leadership curriculum could be pilot-tested among non-Seventh-day Adventist populations.

10. For extended use in other Seventh-day Adventist communities, a shortened eight to ten hour program for use during
one week-end and for the benefit of more than twelve families could be pilot-tested both in a church setting and in a camp retreat setting.

11. In a university community the family-leadership training course could be offered for credit. Credit could be given on the graduate, undergraduate, high school, junior high, or elementary level, according to the classification of each family member. This could reflect institutional commitment to "family learning."

12. Considerably more work could be done in the area of multimedia preparation to enhance oral presentation of the curriculum. Overhead transparencies, using overlays for progressive disclosure, are seen as being especially useful.

13. Extensive notebook handout material and worksheets for each of the three age levels could be prepared to support the curriculum.

14. If any extended church, private, or public educational use were to be made of this curriculum or of a modification of it, an instructors' guide would need to be prepared. Potential instructors could be trained while they helped instruct in a family-leadership workshop, and the supervised practicum could be supported by appropriate theoretical offerings in areas such as training methodology, leadership, and sociology of the family.
APPENDIX A

CONCEPTS OF LEADERSHIP THEORY RELEVANT TO PARENT–CHILD INTERACTION
The study sought to identify concepts of leadership theory apropos to the family setting. Concepts were selected according to the following criteria: (a) they dealt with on-going situations; this means, as stated by Watzlawick et al. (1967, pp. 129-130), that they were important to both parties, long-lasting, and were considered vital-groups-with-histories in contrast to stranger groups or chance encounters, (b) They dealt with face-to-face interaction; this includes verbal and non-verbal communications in its broadest sense (Berelson & Steiner, 1964, p. 326), (c) they were pertinent to small groups, (d) they were considered by the investigator to be applicable to the group development of the family, and (e) they were understandable to various age levels (parents, teenagers, and six-to-twelve year old children) to which they were presented.

The investigator used the words principle and concept as synonyms. The definition of principle employed was Scott and Spaulding's (1972): "A principle is defined as a fundamental consideration or basic rule which serves as a means of evaluating present practices or a guide to future action [p. 16]." The selected principles probably have varying degrees of validity. For the sake of easy reference, those principles which are generally considered as substantiated by empirical research are designated with an asterisk (*) after the corresponding number. Certain principles were supported only by some research, and were not assumed to be completely valid. Much additional research needs to be done for further validation of these and other principles.

In the following comprehensive list, the investigator reports
the more than 80 principles of leadership theory found in his review of the literature which met the five selection criteria mentioned previously. From this master list, the 24 principles (see Chapter II) were chosen which formed the basis of the Family-Leadership Training Course.

1. An essential feature of the concept of leading is that influence is exerted by one individual upon another, or more commonly, that one or a few individuals influence a larger number. (Gibb, 1968, p. 91).

2. "Status or dominance hierarchies are exhibited in every known human society, and are even observed in lower animals such as dogs, goats, cows, and hens." (Berelson & Steiner, 1964, p. 253).


4. "Individuals attach themselves to social systems, whether in organizations or in informal groups, because they wish to find or utilize means for satisfying their individual wants and needs." (Boles, 1971, p. 125).

5. "Leadership may be democratic or autocratic but never laissez-faire." (Scott & Spaulding, 1972, p. 17).


7. "Leadership is known by the personalities it enriches, not by those it dominates or captivates." (Tead, 1935, p. 81).
8* "The more people associate with one another under conditions of equality, the more they come to share values and norms and the more they come to like one another." (Berelson & Steiner, 1964, p. 327).

9* "... a single individual tends not to hold out against the weight of an otherwise unanimous group judgment, even on matters in which the group is clearly in error." A small minority may withstand the weight of the group judgment. (Berelson & Steiner, 1964, pp. 335, 336).

10. Cohesive groups tend to exert social pressures toward conformity with the effect that some individuals become more concerned with retaining the approval of the fellow members of the work group than with coming up with good solutions to the tasks at hand. (Janis, 1973).

11. An individual's value-orientation will reflect those institutions to which he acknowledges allegiance and from which he gains a sense of security. (Boles, 1971, p. 73).

12* To a surprising extent, the available evidence suggests that all other influences on values are dwarfed or even negated by forces that operate in early childhood. The author summarizes the findings of Davis, Dollard, Gardner, Havighurst, Hollingshead, Loeb, the Lynds, Warner, and others. (Perkins, 1955, pp. 223-242).

13. The stronger the emotional ties that one person feels for another person or group, the greater will be his tendency to internalize the ethical standards and values of that person or group. (This is the investigator's restatement and interpretation based on

15. "There is little doubt that communication and perception are the keys to motivation." (Boles, 1971, p. 27).

16*. "... curiosity, in the most general sense of that term, acts as a motive; that is, it induces purposive behavior which leads either to its satisfaction or to tensions when frustrated." (Berelson & Steiner, 1964, p. 252).

17*. Human beings seem to derive a natural satisfaction from solving problems pursued simply for fun—or at least without any demonstrable extrinsic reward. "Lower animals as well as human beings exhibit intrinsic interest in puzzles, problems, and other mental or physical exercises." (Berelson & Steiner, 1964, p. 249).

18*. One motive which operates on human beings and other animals is searching for new experience. "Animals will expend energy to introduce variability into an otherwise constant or consistent situation, even when there is no extrinsic reward." (Berelson & Steiner, 1964, p. 246).

19. "... it seems agreed among psychologists that coping behavior (striving, goal-seeking) is caused, is goal directed, and is motivated." (Boles, 1971, p. 66).

20*. Internalization is maximized when both affection and discipline are high. After summarizing various studies, Bronfenbrenner (1962, p. 558) stated that "... the internalization of moral standards is a function of the degree and ratio of parental affection
and discipline. Specifically, internalization appears to be maximized when both affection and discipline are high.

21*. There is a positive relationship between interpersonal sensitivity and leadership. "The measurement of interpersonal sensitivity, or empathic ability, has been subject to much attention. Some caution is needed in attempting to summarize the 15 studies relating it to leadership, and Mann duly qualifies his summary judgment that 'there appears to be a low but clearly positive relationship between interpersonal sensitivity and leadership.'" (Gibb, 1968, p. 99).

22*. "The leader will be followed the more faithfully the more he makes it possible for the members to achieve their private goals, along with the group's goals." (Berelson & Steiner, 1964, p. 343).

23*. "Leaders of small groups tend to direct the group's activities along lines at which they themselves are proficient and away from those areas where they are less competent." (Berelson & Steiner, 1964, p. 343).

24. Leaders lead to the extent that they take the initiative to achieve preferred outcomes. (Boles, 1971, p. 184).

25. Leaders function to the degree that there are people who submit to their influence, recognize their authority, or accede to their power. (This is the investigator's restatement and interpretation of Boles, 1971, p. 24).

26. Leaders function to the extent that they possess influence
which others perceive can reduce their uncertainties; and/or to the extent they possess authority in situations where others feel a need to be dependent; and/or to the extent they control the means of satisfying the needs of others (power). (This is the investigator's restatement and interpretation of Boles, 1971, pp. 21, 22).

27. "When leaders totally withhold or lose control of the means of needs satisfaction, they destroy their effectiveness as leaders of the persons from whom the means are withheld. When or if the leaders withhold the means of need satisfaction from a sufficient number of followers, they cease to function as leaders." (Boles, 1971, p. 22).

28. A leader leads to the extent that he can alter the thoughts and actions of others. (This is an interpretation and restatement of Zaleznik, 1966, p. 2).

29. An individual is driven toward leadership to the extent that he possesses or is possessed by the following need-dispositions: (1) structuring his or her own activities, (2) taking responsibility for self and others, (3) enjoying the exercise of authority or power, (4) standing for something, and (5) empathizing. (Boles, 1971, p. 222).

30. "'Leading' implies a shared direction, and this, in turn, often implies that all parties to the leadership relation have a common goal or at least similar or compatible goals . . ." (Gibb, 1968, p. 91).

31. Leaders may be identified by the extent of influence they
exercise (in a shared direction) over other individuals. "A second approach seeks those who exercise influence (in a shared direction) over other individuals. It has been shown [Gibb 1950] that leaders may be reliably identified in terms of the extent of such influence, and this form of definition has been employed frequently." (Gibb, 1968, p. 92).

32*. "When caught in cross-pressures between the norms of different groups of which he is simultaneously a member, the individual will suffer some emotional strain and will move to reduce or eliminate it by resolving the conflict in the direction of the strongest felt of his group ties." (Berelson & Steiner, 1964, p. 329).

33*. "The more stable and cohesive the group is, and the more attached the members are to it, the more influential it is in setting standards for their behavior." (Berelson & Steiner, 1964, p. 332).

34*. "Small groups tend toward uniformity in attitudes and actions, in values and behavioral norms--i.e., in the 'right' way to think and act--under the following conditions: (1) The greater the attractiveness of the group for its members, as compared to other groups, the more important its goals or other properties (e.g., provision of companionship) are for the individuals in it, and the stronger is the member's desire to remain in the group or his dependence on it. (2) The more pressures for uniformity there are within the group, especially when it is united by a broad ideology . . . (3) The more important the issue at hand is for the group, or the members' perception of its importance . . . (5) The
more visible the member's opinion or action is to the group, or theirs to him (in which case 'corrections' can be seen and made more readily)." (Berelson & Steiner, 1964, p. 338).

35*. "When groups have established norms, it is extremely difficult for a new leader, however capable, to shift the group's activities. If he tries very hard, he won't be a leader very long." (Berelson & Steiner, 1964, p. 343).

36. "The primary function of a social system, as of a physical system, is to make possible a process, an interaction of parts, by means of which inputs, including human efforts, are converted to outputs. In the process, something is achieved by the group members as a system that could not be achieved by any one individual within the group or by all of the individuals acting independently." (Boles, 1971, p. 46).

37. The principle of wholeness: The behavior of every individual within the family is related to and dependent upon the behavior of all the others. All behavior is communication and therefore influences and is influenced by others. (Watzlawick, Beavin, & Jackson, 1967, pp. 134-135).

38. The principle of nonsummative: The analysis of a family is not the sum of the analyses of its individual members. There are characteristics of the system, that is, interactional patterns, that transcend the qualities of individual members. Many "individual qualities" believed to be characteristic only of members, are in fact particular to the system. (Watzlawick, Beavin, & Jackson, 1967,
pp. 134-135). In other words, the whole is not equal to the sum of its parts. The difference is presumably due to the interaction effect.

39*. He who controls the purse strings will tend to dominate decision making. "That spouse will dominate family decisions who is most closely tied to the prestige of kinship or to the material support of the family." (Berelson & Steiner, 1964, p. 315).

40. "The quality of leadership inheres, not in an individual, but in a role that is played within some specified social system." (Gibb, 1968, p. 93).

41. "... role differentiation, including that complex called leadership, is part and parcel of a group's locomotion toward its goals and, thus, toward the satisfaction of needs of individual members." (Gibb, 1968, p. 95).

42. "... the particular role an individual member achieves within the group is determined both by the functional or role needs of the group in a situation and by the member's particular attributes of personality, ability, and skill, which differentiate him perceptually from others in the group." (Gibb, 1968, p. 95).

43. "... inter-personal designation of leaders varies in any group from time to time as goals, tasks, and internal structure change." Members of a group often distinguish between those they like as friends and those they would wish to have as leaders. (Gibb, 1968, p. 94).

44*. "Across societies, the husband is more likely to provide material support and at least de jure authority within the family..."
and the wife is more likely to provide affection and moral support." This in essence is role differentiation within the small group. The father provides for advancing tasks (instrumental-adaptive) while the mother provides for keeping the members happy, for morale and cohesion (integrative-expressive). (Berelson & Steiner, 1964, pp. 314, 344, 345).

45*. "... leaders and followers frequently exchange roles [Hollander 1961], and observation has shown that the most active followers often initiate acts of leading." (Gibb, 1968, p. 93).

46*. "If the small group's activities are imposed from outside, the norms set by the group are likely to be limited in character; if they are determined from within, they are more likely to take on the character of ideal goals, to be constantly enlarged and striven for." (Berelson & Steiner, 1964, p. 336).

47*. "The weaker the integration of the family, the more likely the members are to join in general political or social movements of a deviant character (such as juvenile delinquency)." (Berelson & Steiner, 1964, p. 316).

48*. "Both the effectiveness of the group and the satisfaction of its members are increased when the members see their personal goals as being advanced by the group's goals, i.e., when the two are perceived as being in harmony. When members push their own needs, both satisfaction and effectiveness decline." (Berelson & Steiner, 1964, p. 352).

49*. "The more compatible the members are, in norms, skills,
personality, status, etc., and the more the procedures of the group are accepted and understood, the more effective the satisfying is the performance of the group in its tasks." (Berelson & Steiner, 1964, p. 353).

50. "Commitment is a function of concern with the outcome of a given situation, participation in the decision-making process, proximity, and giving something." (Youngberg, 1972). This is summarized by the formula: \( C = f(C_o, P, P_r, G) \).

51. "... the type of leader attitude required for effective group performance depends upon the degree to which the group situation is favorable or unfavorable to the leader." (Fiedler, 1964, p. 164).

52. Other things being equal, the clearer the expectations that group members have for each other and for the group, the greater will be the progress toward desired interaction and goal realization. (This is the investigator's restatement and interpretation of Boles, 1971, p. 85).

53*. Leader inconsistency promotes neurosis. "Neurotic behavior can be produced by ambiguous stimulation such that the same or very similar stimuli are sometimes rewarded and sometimes not, or sometimes rewarded and sometimes punished." (Berelson & Steiner, 1964, p. 277).

54. The greater the responsibility, the greater is the accountability. (White, 1944, p. 282).

55. "... leadership equals actions that effect production
plus actions that effect organization-maintenance plus actions that provide need-dispositions plus initiatory actions, or innovation."

\[ L = p + o + n + i \]  

(Boles, 1971, p. 184).

56. "If theory is lacking, or if a system conducts no research, solicits no feedback, and is uninterested in gratuitous feedback, there is not likely to be much innovation in it." (Boles, 1971, p. 190).

57*. "Active discussion by a small group to determine goals, to choose methods of work, to reshape operations, or to solve other problems is more effective in changing group practice than is separate instruction of the individual members, external requests, or the imposition of new practices by superior authority—more effective, that is, in bringing about better motivation and support for the change and better implementation and productivity of the new practice." (Berelson & Steiner, 1964, p. 353).

58. "Integrative conflict resolution produces growth.  
(Boles, 1971, p. 67).

59*. The major factors that seem to determine selection of stimuli are: (1) intensity or quality of the stimuli, (2) anticipation of familiar things, and (3) the degree to which one needs or wants what the stimuli suggests. (Berelson & Steiner, 1964, p. 100).

60. "The influence of one person or group on another varies inversely with the social distance that separates them." (Boles, 1971, p. 145).

61. Communications networks affect the speed with which tasks
are performed, the morale of group members, the need satisfactions of group members, and the diffusion of innovations. Both the influence that a person can exert and the influence that he experiences are functions of the positions that he holds in a series of interlocking and often overlapping communications networks. (Boles, 1971, p. 132).

62. Other things being equal, face-to-face communication tends to be more effective than communication received through other media. (Boles, 1971, p. 139).

63*. "The more interaction or overlap there is between related groups, the more similar they become in their norms and values; the less communication or interaction between them, the more tendency there is for conflict to arise between them. And vice versa: the more conflict, the less interaction." (Berelson & Steiner, 1964, p. 331).

64*. "The more frequent the interaction among the members of a group, the more correctly they can judge the opinion of the group, i.e., the more predictable the group's behavior becomes to them and hence the more reliable as a guide to proper behavior." (Berelson & Steiner, 1964, p. 336).

65*. "People in a group tend to agree with the opinions of people they like (i.e., they judge the opinion by judging the advocate); and they tend to think that the people they like agree with them and that those they dislike do not." (Berelson & Steiner, 1964, p. 336).

66*. "Interaction increases as the cohesiveness of the group grows (and, . . . the increase of interaction itself tends to lead to still further cohesiveness)." (Berelson & Steiner, 1964, p. 346).
67*. "Interaction decreases as internal dissension rises in a small group of high emotional attachment, and particularly so on topics producing dissension; once the block is lifted, there is typically a quick increase in hostile communications." (Berelson & Steiner, 1964, p. 347).

68*. "Communications increase when members are in physical proximity to one another." (Berelson & Steiner, 1964, p. 349).

69. While a message that does not allow for feedback is less time-consuming than one that does, the message that allows for feedback is more likely to be attended, comprehended and accepted than one that does not. (Leavitt, 1964, p. 152).

70. "Leadership is the product of interaction, not status or position." (Scott & Spaulding, 1972, p. 17).

71. "Leadership cannot be structured in advance. The uniqueness of each combination of persons of varying interactional patterns and of varying goals and means, and of varying forces within and without impinging upon the group will bring forth different leaders." (Scott & Spaulding, 1972, p. 17).

72. "Most groups have more than one person occupying the leadership role." (Scott & Spaulding, 1972, p. 17).

73. "Program development that involves only persons of a single position is not as comprehensive or lasting as that which involves people of various positions in the organization." (Scott & Spaulding, 1972, p. 17).

74. "In a small group, authoritarian leadership is less
effective than democratic leadership in holding the group together and getting work done." (Scott & Spaulding, 1972, p. 18).

75*. Groups which distribute leadership functions take longer to reach decisions but they demonstrate greater productivity and higher morale over a long period of time than do groups which have manipulative leadership. (G. Lippitt, 1961, p. 10).

76. Leadership becomes increasingly effective as the leader specifies his goals, ranks them, and effectuates them according to priorities (present writer's assumption).

77. Leadership becomes increasingly effective as long-range goals are transformed into intermediate and short-range goals with deadlines for their achievement (present writer's assumption).

78. "The way a leader perceives his role determines his actions." (Scott & Spaulding, 1972, p. 17).


80. "Leadership is authority rendered to some who are perceived by others as the proper person to carry out the particular leadership role of the group." (Scott & Spaulding, 1972, p. 17).

81. In order to solve a problem, great care should first be taken to adequately specify the problem. (Kepner & Tregoe, 1965).

82. Leaders turn problems into projects. (Gothard, 1973).
The Family-Leadership Curriculum Outline was based on the simplified list of family-leadership principles as found in Chapter III. The curriculum outline attempted to follow a logical sequence. In the scheduling and programming phase, the order of some points was changed in order to secure a psychological sequence with proper change-of-pace and the mixing of lecture, strategies, small group work, etc.

The following codes identify which age levels used which processes:

(1) - Used by all (parents, youth, and children)
(2) - Parents or adults
(3) - Adults and youth
(4) - Youth (ages 13 through high school)
(5) - Youth and children
(6) - Children (ages 6-12)
**GENERAL CONCEPT:**  
**A. LEADERSHIP MEANS RELATIONSHIP**

**OVERALL OBJECTIVE:** To show that a warm, considerate relationship between family members will facilitate family leadership.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instructional Content</th>
<th>Performance Objectives</th>
<th>Processes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>1. Introduction:</strong> &quot;Bridging the Generation Gap.&quot;</td>
<td>Given a case study, the trainee will be able to identify the related leadership concept(s).</td>
<td><strong>(1)</strong> Flipchart micro-teaching presentation</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>2. Leadership defined</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>(2,4) Handout - Family Leadership Principles</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>a. Leadership is INFLUENCE that one family member has on another or on the whole family group. It implies a shared direction toward common or at least similar goals. (Prin. A-1).</strong></td>
<td>Given guidelines of a situation, the trainee will be able to dramatize the situation showing behavioral evidence of the related leadership principle(s).</td>
<td><strong>(2) Small group work on greatest leaders and greatest family leaders. Reports and discuss</strong></td>
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<td><strong>b. Leadership is an influence which inspires and moves people, obtaining from them the maximum of cooperation with the minimum of opposition.</strong></td>
<td>Given a problem, the trainee will present a solution applying related leadership principles.</td>
<td><strong>(5) Story: &quot;Voyager&quot;</strong></td>
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<td><strong>(6) Game: Follow the Leader</strong></td>
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<td><strong>(2) Small group discussion of Principles A</strong></td>
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<td><strong>(6) The Love Game</strong></td>
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<td><strong>(2) Summary by micro-teaching illustrated lecture</strong></td>
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<td><strong>(1) Overhead transparency</strong></td>
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GENERAL CONCEPT: A (Cont.) LEADERSHIP MEANS RELATIONSHIP

OVERALL OBJECTIVE: To show that a warm, considerate relationship between family members will facilitate family leadership.

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<tr>
<th>Instructional Content</th>
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<tr>
<td>Influence varies inversely with social distance. (Prin. A-3).</td>
<td>Given a list of 10 definitions, the trainee will be able to select those definitions which pertain to leadership.</td>
<td>(3) Overhead transparency</td>
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<td>c. Leadership is going somewhere and taking people with you.</td>
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<td>(5) Turtle story</td>
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<td>(6) Your Face - Worksheet</td>
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<td>d. Leadership is getting things done through other people.</td>
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<td>(4) Discerning Levels of Friendship - Worksheet</td>
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<td>e. Leadership is getting the important thing done, at the right time, with optimum quality, with the proper investment of resources.</td>
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<td>(4) Friendship Checklist</td>
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<td>What are the important things that families should be getting done?</td>
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<td>(3) Overhead transparency</td>
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<tr>
<td>When is the right time? Havighurst's developmental</td>
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<td>(3) Overhead transparency</td>
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| (2) Brainstorming on questions |
| (3) Story: "When Queens Ride By" |
GENERAL CONCEPT: A (Cont.) LEADERSHIP MEANS RELATIONSHIP

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<tr>
<th>Instructional Content</th>
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<tr>
<td>tasks and &quot;golden moment&quot; idea</td>
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<td>What is the quality standard we are looking for?</td>
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<td>By means of what resources?</td>
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<td>$$ Cost of raising children</td>
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<td>Cost of schooling</td>
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<td>Divine resources</td>
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<td>Human resources</td>
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<td>Scheduling, Working</td>
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<td>Perseverance</td>
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<td>Successful parents</td>
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<td>Books</td>
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<tr>
<td>f. Summary of definition</td>
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<tr>
<td>Leadership summarized in one word: --INFLUENCE.</td>
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GENERAL CONCEPT: A (Cont.) LEADERSHIP MEANS RELATIONSHIP

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<tr>
<td>3. LEADERSHIP vs. HEADSHIP</td>
<td>Given the names of two familiar personalities, the trainee will be able to recount sufficient historical narrative to identify their leadership and headship characteristics.</td>
<td>(1) Illustrated lecture using overhead transparencies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positional vs. personal authority</td>
<td>After class discussion, the trainee will be able to identify two kinds of authority and verbally or pictorially illustrate each.</td>
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<tr>
<td>4. Basic Relationships (Prin. A-5).</td>
<td>The trainee will be able to draw a diagram demonstrating the association between intra-personal relationships, and inter-personal relationships (including husband-wife, parent-child, and sibling relationships), and the trainee will be able to tell-back to a partner these associations.</td>
<td>(3) Overhead transparency with concentric spheres</td>
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<tr>
<td>a. Intra-person The Self-Concept</td>
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<td>(1) 27 min. film: &quot;Johnny Lingo&quot;</td>
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<tr>
<td>b. Husband-wife</td>
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<td>(3) Illustrated lecture</td>
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<td></td>
<td>(3) Diagram &quot;Abnormal Social Developments&quot; -Worksheet</td>
</tr>
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<tr>
<td>c. Parent-child</td>
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<td>(3) Small group discussion</td>
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<tr>
<td>People tend to agree with opinions of others they like. (Prin. A-4).</td>
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<td>(3) Posters of definitions</td>
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<tr>
<td>Introjection—The process of enhancing the self by assuming the qualities of another person such as some one towards whom a strong emotional tie exists and from whom ethical standards are learned.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Introception—The uncritical acceptance of beliefs and values of another person (usually the parents).</td>
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<td>The more cohesive the group and the more attached the members to it, the more influential it is in setting standards for their behavior. (Prin. A-6).</td>
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<td>(1) Family Appreciation Project</td>
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<td>The stronger the spirit of &quot;FAMILINESS,&quot; the less likely the children are to join deviant social movements. (Prin. A-7).</td>
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<td>(3) Small group discussion</td>
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<tr>
<td>When caught in cross-pressures between the standards of the family group and the standards of a peer group, the individual will suffer conflict and will tend to resolve it in the direction of the strongest felt of his group ties. (Prin. A-8).</td>
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<td>(3) Illustrated lecture</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>Overhead transparency with overlays -&quot;The Prodigal Son&quot; with worksheet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. Sibling Relationships</td>
<td></td>
<td>(6) Story: &quot;Washington's Regard for His Mother&quot;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
GENERAL CONCEPT:  B. DISTRIBUTIVE LEADERSHIP AS A FAMILY GOAL

OVERALL OBJECTIVE: To show that every member of the family may be a leader, and that different leader roles help unite the family circle and help the family "share" leadership.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instructional Content</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Every member of the family may be a leader. One may be an initiator, another a helper, limit setter, organizer, perceivener, encourager, harmonizer, follower, etc. These different gifts help the family &quot;share&quot; leadership. (Prin. B-1).</td>
<td></td>
<td>(3) Overview of Principles B</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| 2. Children should learn leadership skills in the home which they can apply later at school, in the church, on the job, and in their own future homes. (Prin. B-2). | | (1) Family Role Game
Ask for volunteer family (Supplementary) |
| 3. Group Task and Structure Roles | Given a list of family roles, the trainee will be able to distinguish which are: (a) group task and structure roles, (b) group-building and maintenance roles, and (c) negative and non-group roles. | Strategy on Leadership Qualities
Either/or Forced Choice
(5) Youth form (adults as audience)
(2) Adult form (youth and children as audience) |
| a. The initiator-contributor. Suggests or proposes a preferred outcome. | | (3) Handout sheet with simple definitions of family roles
(3) Role-play 2 family situations. Ask audience to identify roles |
| | | (3) Handout self evaluation and family member evaluation role cards |
### GENERAL CONCEPT: DISTRIBUTIVE LEADERSHIP AS A FAMILY GOAL

**OVERALL OBJECTIVE:** To show that every member of the family may be a leader, and that different leader roles help unite the family circle and help the family "share" leadership.

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>b. The <strong>option seeker.</strong> Suggests options. Provides or asks for alternatives and invites participation in decision making.</td>
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<td>(3) Present short case studies of well-known personalities which illustrate each role. Include negative task and negative social-emotional roles.</td>
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<tr>
<td>c. The <strong>limit setter.</strong> Refers to standards, rules, or norms. Sets limits.</td>
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<td>(3) Summarize each role with an overhead transparency.</td>
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<tr>
<td>D. The <strong>organizer</strong></td>
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<td>(3) Do the self evaluation of personal roles in the family.</td>
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<tr>
<td>4. Group-Building and Maintenance Roles</td>
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<td>(3) Have each one evaluate the roles of other members of family group present.</td>
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<tr>
<td>a. The <strong>perceiver.</strong> Hears or solicits feedback. Accepts and clarifies an attitude or feeling tone of others in a non-threatening manner.</td>
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<td>Define &quot;feedback&quot;</td>
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</table>
GENERAL CONCEPT: B (Cont.) DISTRIBUTIVE LEADERSHIP AS A FAMILY GOAL

OVERALL OBJECTIVE: To show that every member of the family may be a leader, and that different leader roles help unite the family circle and help the family "share" leadership.

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>b. The encourager. Shows solidarity, raises other's status, gives help, rewards. Suggests resources to make another group member successful.</td>
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<td>c. The harmonizer</td>
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<td>d. The follower</td>
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5. Negative and Non-Group Roles

a. Negative task. Negative attitudes about the task or situation as an object.


GENERAL CONCEPT: B (Cont.) DISTRIBUTIVE LEADERSHIP AS A FAMILY GOAL

OVERALL OBJECTIVE: To show that every member of the family may be a leader, and that different leader roles help unite the family circle and help the family "share" leadership.

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<tr>
<td>6. The consensus of a mature group will tend toward a &quot;better&quot; decision than will the opinion of the average single individual within that group. (Prin. B-3).</td>
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<td>(1) NASA Group Decision Game</td>
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<td>7. A mature individual should not conform unthinkingly to a majority position. (Prin. B-4).</td>
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<td>(1) Follow-up with discussion of Principles B-3 and B-4</td>
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<tr>
<td>8. Taking into account long-range effects, shared leadership increases family morale and productivity (getting things done). (Prin. B-5).</td>
<td>Given a diagram with unlabeled parallel representations of manipulative and distributive leadership, the trainee will be able to identify each one and compare the time factors in the decision making and implementation phases.</td>
<td>(1) Experiment quoted in Berelson &amp; Steiner, 1964, pp. 335-336</td>
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<td>(3) Dear Abbey's definition of &quot;Maturity&quot;</td>
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<td>(5) Story: &quot;Do You Always Fly the Colors of Your King?&quot;</td>
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<td>(3) Visual diagram</td>
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GENERAL CONCEPT: C. LEADERSHIP MEANS SETTING GOALS AND GETTING THE JOB DONE

OVERALL OBJECTIVE: To show that leadership means setting and achieving goals, and to disclose the interplay of group goals with personal goals in the family behavior system.

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<tr>
<th>Instructional Content</th>
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<tr>
<td>1. Leadership may be democratic or autocratic, but it is never laissez-faire. (Prin. C-1).</td>
<td>Given a role-play situation, the trainee will be able to identify democratic, autocratic, and laissez-faire styles.</td>
<td>(1) Overview of Principle C-1</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Leaders lead to the extent that they take the initiative to achieve preferred outcomes. (Prin. C-2).</td>
<td>The trainee will be able to rank some of his values according to importance.</td>
<td>(1) Values Strategy # 1</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Leadership becomes increasingly effective as the leader specifies his goals, ranks them, and carries them out according to priorities. (Prin. C-3).</td>
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<td>(1) Values Strategy # 2</td>
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<td>4. Leaders transform long-range goals into bite-size or short-range goals and make deadlines for their achievement. (Prin. C-4).</td>
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<td>(1) Values Strategy # 3</td>
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<tr>
<td>5. Components of the administrative process</td>
<td>The trainee will be able to identify 6 steps in the administrative process.</td>
<td>(2) Illustration &quot;If the Child's Right&quot;</td>
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<td>(6) Story: &quot;A Little Girl Who Killed a Giant&quot;</td>
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<td>(3) Discuss the principle</td>
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<td>(3) Overhead transparency</td>
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</table>
GENERAL CONCEPT:  (Cont.) LEADERSHIP MEANS SETTING GOALS AND GETTING THE JOB DONE

OVERALL OBJECTIVE: To show that leadership means setting and achieving goals, and to disclose the interplay of group goals with personal goals in the family behavior system.

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<tr>
<td>6. While a one-way communication consumes little time, a communication that allows for feedback is more likely to be attended, comprehended, accepted, and to achieve desired or planned outcomes. (Prin. C-5).</td>
<td>The trainee will demonstrate to other members of his family that he listens and perceives what two of their goals are for the family.</td>
<td>(1) Attentive listening skills exercise: Discussion by family groups on &quot;Two Goals I have for our Family.&quot; (Everyone must interact on the presentation of each family member, but before giving his own opinion, the contributor must first restate in his own words what the last person said.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Interplay of group goals with personal goals in the family behavior system.</td>
<td>The trainee will demonstrate to other members of his family that he listens and perceives what two of their personal goals are.</td>
<td>(1) Worksheet as homework &quot;Personal Goals of Family Members&quot;</td>
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<tr>
<td>8. Review of Principles A, B, C.</td>
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<td>(3) Summarize the principles</td>
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<td>(5) Values Whip Questions</td>
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**GENERAL CONCEPT:** D. LEADERSHIP MEANS MEETING BASIC NEEDS

**OVERALL OBJECTIVE:** To show that leadership at its best is manifested in disinterested service to others in meeting their basic needs.

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<tr>
<th>Instructional Content</th>
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<tr>
<td>1. Manipulative vs. potentializing leadership. Leadership means ENRICHING THE LIVES of others. (Prin. D-1).</td>
<td>The trainee will be able to tell experiences which illustrate the difference between manipulative and potentializing leadership.</td>
<td>(1) Overview of Principles D. (2) Small group discussion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Perception of the basic needs of others. Leadership means being sensitive to the basic needs of others. (Prin. D-2). Maslow's Hierarchy of Basic Needs</td>
<td>The trainee will be able to identify 10 characteristics of a perceptive family member.</td>
<td>(3) Small group work (3) Overhead transparencies and checklist &quot;Perceived Situation&quot; (5) Illustration: &quot;Don't Bury Your Head&quot;</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Motivation Basic needs as motivators New experience as a motivator</td>
<td>The trainees will be able to identify the 5 levels of Maslow's Hierarchy. The trainee will be able to identify 6 motivators applicable to the family group.</td>
<td>(1) Micro-teaching presentation Overhead transparency Worksheet (2) Illustrated lecture (6) &quot;The Love Game&quot; How to play, coupons, reports of results.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
GENERAL CONCEPT: D (Cont.) LEADERSHIP MEANS MEETING BASIC NEEDS

OVERALL OBJECTIVE: To show that leadership at its best is manifested in disinterested service to others in meeting their basic needs.

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instructional Content</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Duty as a motivator</td>
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<td>(5) Story: &quot;The Great Marathon Run&quot;</td>
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<td>Sense of destiny as a motivator</td>
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<td>(2) Overhead transparencies on &quot;Patterning&quot;</td>
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<tr>
<td>Intrinsic vs. extrinsic rewards</td>
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<td>(3) Discuss the principle</td>
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<td>4. Habits as need satisfiers</td>
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<td>Behavior modification in child rearing</td>
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<td>5. Self-chosen goals and rules will be internalized more than goals and rules imposed by others. (Prin. D-3).</td>
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</table>
**GENERAL CONCEPT:**  
**E. LEADERSHIP MEANS CLEAR MUTUAL EXPECTATIONS**

**OVERALL OBJECTIVE:** To show that family leadership is strengthened by clear mutual expectations and consequent predictability among family members.

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<thead>
<tr>
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</thead>
</table>
| 1. Family relationships will be more harmonious when goals, rules, routines, and principles are clearly understood. (Prin. E-1). |  | (1) Role-play a disciplinary problem  
(1) Overview of Principles E. |
| 2. Parent predictability and consistency promote security in the home. (Prin. E-2). |  | (2) Discussion of Principles E-1 to E-4 by group of fathers and group of mothers  
(2) Success experiences in raising children. Group of fathers and group of mothers. |
| 3. Rules  
   a. Leadership protects critical group norms  
   b. Rules to be few, but well-enforced | The trainee should be able to identify to the group what are some of his or her family's rules, routines, projects, rituals, and traditions. | (2) Illustrations from Langdon & Stout, 1960.  
(2) Tell-back session: "What Works in our Home" |
| 4. Routines  
   a. Relationship with habit formation  
   b. A balanced schedule |  | (1) Filmstrip "Family Give-and-Take"  
(1) Follow-up with leading questions and discussion |
GENERAL CONCEPT: E (Cont.) LEADERSHIP MEANS CLEAR MUTUAL EXPECTATIONS

OVERALL OBJECTIVE: To show that family leadership is strengthened by clear mutual expectations and consequent predictability among family members.

<table>
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<th>Instructional Content</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>c. Home duties</td>
<td></td>
<td>(1) Filmstrip: &quot;Family Togetherness&quot;</td>
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<td>d. Family projects</td>
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<td>(2) Follow-up with leading questions and discussion</td>
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<td>e. Family rituals, traditions, and family &quot;togetherness&quot;</td>
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<td>(1) Filmstrip: &quot;Family Worship&quot;</td>
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<td>(1) Follow-up with leading questions and discussion</td>
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<td>(2) Handout: &quot;How to Hold a Family Council&quot;</td>
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<td>Family worship</td>
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<td>(1) Filmstrip: &quot;Family Recreation&quot;</td>
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<td>Family council</td>
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<td>(1) Follow-up with leading questions and discussion</td>
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<td>Family night</td>
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<td>Family outings and vacations</td>
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The more meaningful things a family does together, the greater will be the tendency for family values to become a deep-rooted, predictable, and reliable guide to the children's behavior. (Prin. E-3).
GENERAL CONCEPT: LEADERSHIP MEANS CLEAR MUTUAL EXPECTATIONS

OVERALL OBJECTIVE: To show that family leadership is strengthened by clear mutual expectations and consequent predictability among family members.

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<tr>
<td>Birthdays and holidays</td>
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<td>Other family rituals and traditions</td>
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<tr>
<td>f. Flexibility toward enriching experiences</td>
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<tr>
<td>Peak experiences</td>
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5. Principles

As the child matures and habits are formed, he should be guided increasingly by the principle behind the rule.

6. Discipline
(from the word "disciple")

Effective in children when it leads them to discipleship with parent

The parent will be able to show a general acquaintance with the steps in reality therapy.

(1) Illustrations on peak family experiences
(1) Strategy and tell-back on peak family experiences
(5) Voting on real life situations
(2) 30 min. film: "Dealing with Discipline Problems"
(1) Illustrated lecture: "Authoritarian, Laissez-faire, and Democratic Discipline"
GENERAL CONCEPT: E (Cont.) LEADERSHIP MEANS CLEAR MUTUAL EXPECTATIONS

OVERALL OBJECTIVE: To show that family leadership is strengthened by clear mutual expectations and consequent predictability among family members.

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<tr>
<td>Purpose is to encourage child toward self-control</td>
<td>Given certain case studies on discipline, the parent will be able to differentiate between examples of authoritarian, laissez-faire, and democratic discipline.</td>
<td>(2) Question and answer period (2) Handout on discipline</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationship between internal and external control: There must be control. The greater the self-control, the less need of external control. (Prin. E-4).</td>
<td>The parent will be able to draw a diagram showing the relationship between self-control and external control.</td>
<td>(4) Role-play adolescent family problems (2) Diagram of inverse relationship between self-control and external control</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**GENERAL CONCEPT:** F. **LEADERSHIP AS PROBLEM SOLVING**

**OVERALL OBJECTIVE:** To show that leadership means planning so as to prevent unnecessary problems, and resolutely identifying and solving problems that do arise.

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Living in terms of life goals</td>
<td></td>
<td>(2) Short lecture presentation</td>
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<td>2. Planning as problem prevention</td>
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<td>(4) Story: &quot;Point of View&quot;</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. &quot;A problem well-defined is a problem half-solved.&quot; --Charles Kettering (Prin. F-1).</td>
<td>The trainee will be able to state 6 steps in turning a problem into a project. The parent will identify at least 3 problem areas related to the children's development and will formulate written plans to turn them into projects.</td>
<td>(5) Story: &quot;Somebody Should Clean Up This Mess&quot;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
GENERAL CONCEPT: F (Cont.) LEADERSHIP AS PROBLEM SOLVING

OVERALL OBJECTIVE: To show that leadership means planning so as to prevent unnecessary problems, and resolutely identifying and solving problems that do arise.

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5. Review and summary of family leadership</td>
<td>Given a family leadership checklist, the trainee will be able to evaluate his personal family leadership behavior.</td>
<td>(2) Family Leadership Checklist (Parent Form).</td>
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<td>(4) Family Leadership Checklist (Youth Form).</td>
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APPENDIX C

SAMPLE INTERACTION ANALYSIS TALLY SHEET

FROM FAMILY X
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Revised
RC + BB
Feb. 11, '94

Fam. # X
TAPE # 2
SIDE # 1
APPENDIX D

SAMPLE PROFILES OF LEADING ACTS
FROM FAMILY X
Dear Parents:

During the months of January and February the Lay Activities Committee of Pioneer Memorial Church will be sponsoring several innovative retreats and training sessions called "OPERATION FAMILY." Elder John Youngberg, who is finishing a doctoral dissertation study in the area of family leadership, and Dr. Millie Youngberg will be coordinating these workshops.

Through a random sampling technique, your family was chosen as one of the few which will be invited to these workshops. I would like to encourage your whole family to profit from this special opportunity. The Andrews University Laboratory School Advisory Council has approved this family leadership training course. I trust you will be able to attend.

Sincerely yours,

Richard Orrison, Director
Andrews University Laboratory School

jh
Out of the 223 families of the Pioneer Memorial Church with children in the Andrews Laboratory School, 48 families have been chosen by random sampling to participate in pilot studies of family leadership. Your family is one of the 48 families who will have the first opportunity to share in the blessings of this 10 hour course known as "OPERATION FAMILY."

"OPERATION FAMILY" will be an experience in which fathers, mothers, and children up to grade 12 can study and interact together seeking God's best in successful family living. Some training sessions will have special instruction on three levels: ages 6-12, ages 13 - high school, and parents. In other sessions all ages will meet together.

Only 12 families will be invited to participate in a given workshop. Your workshop will be from _______________ to _______________. The sessions will start at Camp Warren a few miles north of St. Joseph on Sabbath from 9:00 A.M. to 5:15 P.M. Food will be potluck. The training sessions will continue from 7:00 – 9:00 P.M. on Sunday, Monday, and Tuesday in the home of John and Millie Youngberg, 140 Greenfield Dr. Berrien Springs. There will be no charge. Dress may be casual and comfortable.

Total family participation of parents and children up through high school is required for attending families. So many times today parents are putting their work and material possessions first. We ask you to clear your calendar for these few hours on four consecutive days and put your God-given family responsibilities as your top priority. In trial runs, teen-agers have been among the most enthusiastic about "OPERATION FAMILY."

Within a few days, Mrs. Natalie Bullock, secretary of "OPERATION FAMILY" will be contacting you with additional information concerning how to get to Camp Warren, the potluck menu, etc. If you have any questions, kindly contact her at 471-3929.

Members of the pastoral staff, professors and graduate students of the Department of Education, under the coordination of John and Millie Youngberg will participate as trainers. "OPERATION FAMILY" has as its goal to help fulfill the Elijah Message of Malachi 4:5,6 in Adventist homes, turning "the heart of the fathers to the children and the heart of the children to their fathers." We will look forward to a delightful workshop with your entire family present.

Sincerely,

John and Millie Youngberg
Lay Activities Committee
Pioneer Memorial Church
SELECTED ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY
In the preparation of this study, the investigator surveyed E.R.I.C. or Research in Education from January, 1970 until June, 1973 under the following descriptors: leadership, leadership training, leaders' guides, youth leaders, training, training labs, training techniques, family life, family life education, family involvement, family relationship, family role, family structure, parent child relationship, family influence, parent education, and parent workshops. The Education Index was surveyed from July, 1970 until June, 1973 under the following key words: leadership, leadership in education, family life, psychotherapy, family, family life education and leadership training. In Dissertation Abstracts International Index search was made first in the cumulative index and then in the later volumes into 1973 under the keywords of leadership, family, and families. These sources together with numerous books have all had an input into the present document.

As major sources for leadership concepts applicable to the family and parent-child interaction, the investigator selectively leaned most heavily on six sources. Most of the more than 80 leadership principles applicable to family-life identified in this study came from these sources. These six sources are included in the following selected annotated bibliography.

Benne and Sheats classify 27 categories of roles under three broad headings: group task roles, group-building and maintenance roles, and individual roles. Group development is seen as requiring the practice of both leader and member roles. The various positive roles are seen as complementary and in assisting the group in moving toward its goals.

Benne and Sheats' ideas are basic to Section B of the Family-Leadership Training Course ("Distributive Leadership as a Family Goal") and constituted a major input into the preparation of the assessment instrument which the present investigator used to measure leading acts, namely the Family-Leadership Interaction Analysis Categories (FLIAC).


The authors collaborated in selecting, condensing and organizing 1045 findings on human behavior. In their "inventory of findings," Berelson and Steiner act as reporters of studies that have been done in the behavioral sciences, and have attempted to translate and evaluate those findings. The scope of the work is comprehensive.

Of particular application to the present study were the chapters on the family, face-to-face relations in small groups, and organizations (which included a section on leaders and members). The present investigator identified more pertinent leadership findings from this source than from any other.

Harold Boles, Ph.D. Ohio State University, 1957, has been professor of education at Western Michigan University since 1963. From 1965 to 1972 he was chairman of the Educational Leadership Department and its predecessor department.

Boles distinguishes between leadership and leading. Leadership is a process which takes place only in a social system. Leading is a series of initiatory actions within the overall leadership process. The author sees more common components in leadership, regardless of the style of type of leader, than do most other theorists. He holds that all leaders whose history he has examined possessed or were possessed by the following need-dispositions: (1) structuring his or her own activities, (2) taking responsibility for self and others, (3) enjoying the exercise of authority or power, (4) standing for something, and (5) empathizing. Leaders lead to the extent that they take the initiative to achieve preferred outcomes. Since Boles works considerably from a social systems approach, many of the concepts he presents are applicable to the family social system.


Gibb is professor of psychology at Canberra University College, Canberra, Australia. He stands high among the world's outstanding scholars in the field of leadership. He was chosen by Sills to summarize the psychological aspects of leadership for the International encyclopedia of the social sciences and is also a prominent reviewer on

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leadership instruments for Buros' personality tests and reviews (1970).

According to Gibb, "leadership" is an ambiguous term which has lost the specificity and precision that is necessary to scientific thinking. An essential feature of the concept of leading is that influence is exerted by one individual upon another or by one or a few individuals upon a larger number. The "act of leading" has four basic components: the leader, the followers, the situation, and the task. Gibb reviews the contribution to knowledge in the field which has been made by the general interaction theory, Fiedler's contingency theory, Hollander's idiosyncrasy credit, and other theories.

The present investigator leaned heavily on Gibb for a general theoretical approach to leadership and leading. This is clearly reflected in the 24 leadership principles retained as a basis for the Family-Leadership Training Course.


Lippitt summarizes the trait approach, situation approach, behavior approach, styles-of-leadership approach, and finally the functional-leadership approach to improve the understanding of leadership. The functional-leadership approach views leadership as the performance of those acts which are required by the group and this approach incorporates the other approaches mentioned, except for the trait approach. Distributive leadership is seen as resulting in greater group productivity and higher morale than that which is produced by manipulative leadership. The distributive leadership concept was particularly useful to the present investigator under Section B of the Family-Leadership Training Course.

This 26 page document undertakes to conclude inductive principles suggested within published literature of an experimental design. The authors state that they thoroughly reviewed the Education Index (1959-1969) and Research in Education (1966-1969). The current state of leadership theory is reviewed and a summary of 26 leadership principles are stated. The document is compact, comprehensive and very readable.

A number of Scott and Spaulding's principles were similar to what the present investigator had found in primary sources. The idea of the present investigator of enumerating leadership principles is parallel to the former idea of Scott and Spaulding. In the present study Scott and Spaulding were utilized near the end of the study to fill in empty spots in the leadership framework.
REFERENCES

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