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To the Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a thesis written by A. G. Gopinatha Menon entitled "Selected Elements Involved in the Development of Local Leadership for Extension Work." I recommend that it be accepted for nine quarter hours of credit in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science, with a major in Agricultural Extension.

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Major Professor

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and recommend its acceptance:

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SELECTED ELEMENTS INVOLVED IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF LOCAL LEADERSHIP FOR EXTENSION WORK

A Thesis

Presented to

the Graduate Council of

The University of Tennessee

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Master of Science

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by

A. G. Gopinatha Menon

August 1960

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A. G. G. M.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

A. THE PROBLEM

There is never a time in the history of a nation when leaders are not needed and the progress of a nation depends upon the type of leadership it gets in economic, social, religious, and political fields. This is true in all democratic countries, particularly in those nations where more emphasis is laid on local self government.

Extension workers and others who are responsible for the development and execution of people's programs are vitally concerned with local leadership. Pigors correctly pointed out the basic facts about leadership when he said that not only the leader acts as a member of the group but also he "liberates the energy in followers by pointing out causes which give them an opportunity to express themselves and in the service of which their powers can develop."[1] It seems probable that the Agricultural Extension Service is in the process of working out more practical demonstrations of its philosophy than have been prevalent in the past; and more and more it is coming to encourage local participation in planning programs and in executing them. It is really this fact that makes the question of local leadership important for the success of extension activities.

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[1]Paul Pigors, Leadership or Domination (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1935), p. 99.

Many communities have failed to achieve their goals due to lack of competent leadership. Leadership is least noticed in disorganized communities. This may be due to the fact that people who are not used to working together in organizations are jealous of one another and are unwilling to give recognition and loyalty to a leader.

Since leadership is an important function in extension work it is necessary to develop the best possible type of leadership. A democratic society ensures chances for everybody to develop what is finest in him.[2] The development of leadership may be considered as an educational process. One does not have to be born to royalty in order to be a leader. Previous studies indicate that leadership could be acquired.[3] This belief in the possibility and legitimacy of leadership which is learned is the necessary condition for the current concern over leadership. If leadership is to be acquired it should be developed through efficient training which, in turn, should rest on well formulated principles. The lack of such a set of generally accepted principles on which to base an effective leadership training program is currently the limiting factor. This study, then, was primarily designed to provide a summary and partial analysis of leadership principles presently held.

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[2]David Bryn-Jones, Toward a Democratic New Order (Minneapolis: The University of Minnesota Press, 1945), p. 12.

[3]Alvin W. Gouldner (ed.), Studies in Leadership (New York: Harper and Brothers, Publishers, 1950), p. 4.

Further, even in democratic societies the identification and selection of local leaders is unsatisfactory. The "prime consideration in any sound leadership development program is surely the discovery of means by which to identify and develop persons with leadership potential."[4] The "trial" and "error" method which is usually followed is time consuming and very often misleading. A society in a modern world which is fast progressing in rapid strides can no longer afford to resort to this undependable method. A more sure and systematic method of identification and selection of potential leaders is to be resorted to.

In summary, a well trained local leadership is essential for the successful working of the Agricultural Extension System and at present there is a dearth of trained local leadership. The training for local leadership is further complicated due to lack of generally accepted principles on which the training is to be based. Also, a dependable method for the identification and selection of potential local leaders is lacking. It is seen that the necessity for the development of local leadership is both immediate and great, and the problems in the way of such leadership development are substantial.

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[4]Murray G. Ross and Charles E. Hendry, New Understandings of Leadership (New York: Association Press, 1957), p. 130.

B. IMPORTANCE OF THE PROBLEM

(Man is basically a social animal. A modern man belongs to the society where social interaction takes place. He is not independent in his social living. Each one requires organization and everyone will be a member of one organization or another. He fosters and nourishes it. Awareness of these needs and desire for meeting them open the field for leadership.) Here lies the scope of leadership. This wide scope for leadership demands both professional and lay leadership. But as is evident from the foregoing discussions the "lion's share" of it should be met by local leadership. But very often, unfortunately enough, this is not recognized by professional leaders. A thorough understanding of the relation of the local leader to the group by the professional leader is essential. Dwight Sanderson maintains that:

> The demand for rural leadership will be met only as those who are in position to stimulate and train leaders have a clear understanding of just what is involved in the process of leadership, for with such insight their faith in the possibility of creating leaders will be strengthened and they will be confirmed in the conviction that the slow process of building local leadership is the surest means of any permanent improvement.[5]

In a majority of the free countries Agricultural Extension today faces the problem of both a limited number of professional personnel and a limited budget. It is beyond the resources of any government to provide a sufficient number of professional personnel to cover all the

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[5]Dwight Sanderson, Leadership for Rural Life (New York: Association Press, 1940), p. 14.

homes in a village or county. Moreover, time will not allow the professional leaders to give timely help to all who desire it. Trying to reach people with limited number of people has proved to be not effective. Further, studies made by Wilson and Brokaw suggest that a large number of local leaders devoting a reasonable amount of time to leadership work is apparently more effective than a smaller number of leaders devoting a large amount of time to leadership activities.[6]

With a well developed system of voluntary leadership a single group meeting could start the movement of a program quickly, whereas that could only have been accomplished over a period of time under professional leadership alone. That means any cooperative movement among the people must depend primarily on voluntary leaders for its success. Further:

> It is a common practice that when a new recommendation is brought to the peasants of any community they would look forward to their local leaders and would watch his response. In majority of the cases the acceptance or refusal of the new introduced programme depends upon the reaction of the local leader.[7]

The key role played by a well trained local leader in disseminating the knowledge and changing the attitudes of people has long been recognized as an almost indispensable one for the successful working

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[6]M. C. Wilson and W. H. Brokaw, "What Local Leaders Do?" Extension Service Circular, No. 115 (November, 1929), p. 17

[7]D. K. Misra, "Role of Local Leaders in Rural Extension," The Indian Journal of Agronomy, Vol. IV (December, 1959), p. 118.

of an extension system. Having recognized this paramount importance of local leaders in extension activities, it is easy enough to understand the need for a well developed program for the identification, selection, and training of these key people.

C. NEED FOR TRAINING

It is essential to develop the potentialities and talents of potential leaders for an effective functioning of local leadership. Development of local leadership is impossible through any other method than proper training.

Rural communities find their own leaders through a process of trial and error or of acceptance and rejection. Though to some extent this is unavoidable, a much better method could be developed through appropriate guidance programs. A local leader is often unaware of any fault on his part for the failure of a program. He may not be doing a good job, not because he does not want to, but because he does not know of better ways. A leader who has met one situation successfully may fail at another situation. This is primarily because of the ever-changing nature of the situations in villages. A leader must be "reinforced" through proper training to meet the changed situations.

Regardless of the specific content of the training program, leadership training should attempt to stimulate and support leaders' efforts to learn knowledge, attitudes, and skills that will improve the quality of their performance in leadership. The professional leader should be a guiding light without usurping the place of the

local leader. Discovery and education of local leaders constitute the two primary steps in the development of local leaders.

> . . . It would seem that for the present and the immediate future it is becoming increasingly important that new and greater emphasis be placed on two phases of extension work with farm youth which vitally affect leadership. These are:
>
> 1. A more careful selection of local leaders, consideration being given to their personality and potential ability to become leaders, and
>
> 2. Adequate training programs for those who are chosen to become leaders.[8]

The above statement is true with all extension activities.

D. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The present day tendency is to separate economic and social responsibilities. It is rather difficult to decide the importance of one over the other. However, both demand efficient and well-developed leadership. Potential leadership is present wherever human beings are gathered together. It is a social phenomenon which rests on the values of the human personality and capacity of individuals to make decisions in questions which affect them vitally. The basic problem in any democratic organization is that of recruiting, developing, and functioning of leaders at all levels from the smallest local group to the central government.[9] The contemporary period in which more stress is

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[8]Erwin H. Shinn, "A Study of Local Leadership in 4-H Club Work," Extension Service Circular, 267 (July, 1937), p. ii.

[9]Dwight Sanderson and Robert W. Nafe, "Studies in Rural Leadership," American Sociological Society, XXIII (December, 1928), pp. 163-175.

laid on local government and the importance of the participation of all in the decision making of the group cannot be neglected. This complicates the task of professional leaders. To discharge the functions of professional leaders effectively they "need to be aware of the process by which a community develops its leaders and the ways in which a leader influences the community."[10] In other words, professional leaders should have sufficient insight in the development of local leadership and the strategic position of local leaders in the community. In view of the prime importance of these facts the present study was designed:

1. To examine the nature of local leadership.
2. To examine the process by which local leadership is developed in a community.
3. To develop a set of principles and procedures to serve as a guide for effective leadership training.

E. METHOD OF PROCEDURE AND SOURCES OF DATA

A review of the literature available on the subject in various fields like extension education, rural sociology, and social psychology was made. Particular emphasis was given to the study of the literature on the nature of leadership, the relation of the leader to the community, and recognition and development of leadership. Efforts were made to make use of both published and unpublished materials.

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[10]John M. Gillette, "Training for Rural Leadership," Annals of American Academy of Political and Social Science, LXVII (September, 1916), p. 87.

F. ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY BY CHAPTERS

The remainder of this thesis is divided as follows:

Chapter II presents mainly the nature of leadership and the factors related to the democratic leadership. Chapter III deals with the nature and functions of local leaders, their identification and selection. Chapter IV is an analysis of the factors and principles related to the training of local leaders and includes a set of principles to serve as a guide for leader training programs. Chapter V explains the findings and conclusions of the study.

CHAPTER II

THE NATURE OF LEADERSHIP

A. WHO IS A LEADER?

It seems to be relevant to discuss the word "leader" before entering the realm of "leadership." Webster's Dictionary gives the meaning of the word leader as "one who preceeds or directs in some action, opinion or movement."[1] Though this definition gives us some idea about the function of a leader, it is not quite sufficient for our purposes here. It might be helpful at this point to review the nature of a leader.

To quote Emory S. Bogardus, a leader is "a person who exerts special influence over a number of people."[2] This definition, which emphasizes the capacity of a person to "exert special influence" also emphasizes the "number of people" influenced. This cannot be considered as an all inclusive definition since it does not specify how many people must be involved. Proctor, in stressing the importance of the quality and ability of a leader, defines a leader as a person:

> With social, moral, political or economic ideals which he is endeavoring to translate into creative achievements . . . . To

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[1] William Allan Neilson (ed.), Webster's New International Dictionary of the English Language (Mass.: G. and C. Merriam Company, Publishers, 1939), p. 1405.

[2] Emory S. Bogardus, Leaders and Leadership (New York: D. Appleton Century Company, 1934), p. 3.

> reach his goal he must not only have great faith in his cause but also an abiding faith in himself.[3]

With confidence in himself, he will be brave enough to take definite steps and put his whole energy into making them come true. Tead said, "Leadership is the activity of influencing people to cooperate toward some goal which they find desirable."[4] Busch identifies different types of group leaders, one of which is the compeller who dominates the group.[5]

However, one common denominator in all these definitions is influence.

B. WHAT IS LEADERSHIP?

Leadership is often considered as "personality in action under group conditions,"[6] and "personality qualities enable a leader to make progress toward his goal."[7] Both dominant personality and receptive personality are in action here. Every person has leadership traits and followership traits inherent in him. The expression of leadership traits and followership traits vary from situation to situation. What

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[3]W. M. Proctor, "Training for Leadership," California Quarterly Secondary Education, Vol. IX (April, 1934), pp. 255-258.

[4]Ordway Tead, The Art of Leadership (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1935), p. 20.

[5]Henry M. Busch, Leadership in Group Work (New York: The Association Press, 1934), p. 121.

[6]Bogardus, op. cit., p. 3.

[7]Proctor, loc. cit.

are leadership traits in one situation may be followership traits in another. So it is difficult to arrive at a definition which is generally acceptable under all situations.

From the point of view of psychologists and rural sociologists alike, leadership is a social phenomenon, which operates only when two or more people are interacting. That means it is a product of group life. Leadership is evident wherever a group acts. The concept of leadership as a function which emerges in the course of group interaction decidedly shows the necessity of a group for leadership function.[8] Though the function of followers in a group is obscure, yet the follower is vital, for without him there could be no leader.

Not only is leadership both a personality and a group phenomenon; it is also a social process, involving a number of persons in mental contact in which one person assumes an influence over others. In this process the activities of many are organized by one, or a few, to move in a specific direction. In the words of Nuquist, leadership is a "social pattern of behavior established between a group and a leader who exerts special influence over a number of people."[9] The superior personality of the leader makes a social situation of unrest and dissatisfaction to one of at least temporary adjustment. Haiman also concurs with the new concept that leadership is specific

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[8]E. H. Brady, "Education for Leadership," Journal of Educational Sociology, XXI (May, 1948), pp. 507-517.

[9]Joseph E. Nuquist, "Contemporary Trends in Rural Leadership," Rural Sociology, XII (September, 1947), p. 275.

to situations and that the factors which give rise to leadership in one situation may not be the same as those required of the leader in another situation. He says, "Leadership is thus the ability to achieve in a specific area that has importance for a given group."[10] While defining leadership, some people consider it as a property of a group, others view it as a characteristic of an individual. Cartwright and Zander have the following to say on this:

> To those who emphasize the group, leadership may be synonymous with prestige, with the holding of an office, or with the performance of activities important to the group. To those who stress the individual, however, leadership may mean the possession of certain personality characteristics such as dominance, ego-control, aggressiveness, or freedom from paranoid tendencies, or it may even mean the possession of certain physical characteristics such as tallness or an impressive physiognomy.[11]

From the foregoing discussion it seems to be safe to assume leadership as "an interactional function of the personality and of the social situation,"[12] required to achieve a goal that has importance for a group. Many authors do not consider this definition as complete and, consequently, many theories have been developed. It seems to be quite appropriate at this point to review some of the more important theories of leadership.

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[10]Franklyn S. Haiman, Group Leadership and Democratic Action (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1951), p. 10.

[11]Dorwin Cartwright and Alvin Zander (ed.), Group Dynamics (New York: Row, Peterson and Company, 1953), p. 536.

[12]Cecil A. Gibb, "The Principles and Traits of Leadership," The Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, XXXXII (April, 1947), p. 284.

C. THEORIES OF LEADERSHIP

Ross and Hendry advance the following theories of leadership.[13] They are of the opinion that a true concept of leadership involves elements from each of the following three basic theories:

1. Leadership as Traits within the Individual Leader

For many centuries it was thought that the qualities of the individual were the conditions which permitted an individual to become a leader, and, consequently, the leadership studies were focused on the traits of an individual. In other words, leadership is something which resides in an individual, something that he brings to the group, and something which is capable of producing the same result under all conditions and in all groups.

But after a thorough study of the relation between the traits and leadership it appeared that the trait approach was inadequate to present a complete picture of leadership. Murphy pleads that leadership does not reside in a person, and he maintains that leadership study calls for a situational approach which is sociological in nature.[14] Gouldner argues that traits are seldom listed in any order of importance and that traits associated with achieving leadership

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[13]Murray G. Ross and Charles E. Hendry, New Understandings of Leadership (New York: Association Press, 1957), pp. 17-36.

[14]Albert J. Murphy, "A Study of the Leadership Process," American Sociological Review, VI (October, 1941), p. 674.

are not separated from those associated with maintaining leadership.[15] None was sure about the traits which develop before and after the development of leadership. Further, the same "trait" may function differently in personalities under different conditions.

The fact that leadership or leadership traits are relative to the situation again reduces the validity of this theory. This pinpoints the fact that a person's previous traits either develop out of his experience in playing a leadership role or that given types of leadership roles will attract or select individuals who already possess traits useful in the performance of the role. But:

> What is crucial in operative terms is whether what he brings meshes with what others bring to the group, whether in fact the psychological gears mesh and in meshing produce the leadership energy required for the group.[16]

2. Leadership as a Function of the Group

This theory propounds that leadership is a function of group structure. The perception of the group about the needs of the group and the usefulness of given individual members at different times for the group is considered more important in this conception. Nevertheless, it does not forget the importance of individuals as the basis of the group, especially when circumstances and situations change. This limit on the group on the basis of the circumstances and situations necessitate the study of leadership from yet another perspective.

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[15] Alvin W. Gouldner (ed.), Studies in Leadership (New York: Harper and Brothers, Publishers, 1950), pp. 23-25.

[16] Ross and Hendry, op. cit., p. 22.

3. Leadership as a Function of the Situation

Murphy emphasizes the relative "fluidity" of leadership traits and maintains that a leader famous for his "dominance" may become "shy" when placed in a situation in which his skills are not useful. Again, "self confidence" of a work leader may disappear if his group is placed in a situation for which his experience leaves him ill-prepared. Arguing for the situational approach he states:

> Leadership is the process of securing direction in social activity which otherwise would be blind and disorderly. Leadership activities are resultants of the interplay of the factors which emerge out of a situation and reenter it as controls. Emphasis on so-called traits of personality, which have been shown to be hypostatized summational fictions, therefore gives way to a study of the integrative factors in the situation. The personality does not stand alone but is a changing element in a total situation. The situation is a concept embracing many elements: the leader with his abilities and drives, the group desires, and needs, and a condition of readiness for leadership. This situational whole is a continuous series of influences and changes.[17]

These facts point out that both the group in which the leader operates and situations which the group encounters should be considered in leadership studies.

We cannot consider any of the three theories as adequate when taken separately. A combination of the three theories might suggest that leadership is a function of the combination of the dynamic elements mentioned above (the individual, the group, and the situation).

Ross and Hendry maintain that even a combination of the three theories would not provide sufficient description of leadership.[18]

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[17] Murphy, op. cit., p. 677.

[18] Ross and Hendry, op. cit., p. 32.

Formal status bearing organizations, such as universities, tend to have a traditional leadership pattern with leaders whose attitudes, beliefs, and behavior conform to public expectations for such leadership in given situations. Here theorists give more importance to the structure of organization than to the actual work and objectives of the institutions in determining the nature and character of leadership. Ross and Hendry believe this approach does not conform to any of the three theories proposed earlier, nor do they believe it is accounted for by any combination of the three. However, it would appear that at least partial inclusion of this point might be made depending on the definition given to "situation theory."

Social climate is another factor which needs to be considered in determining the nature of leadership either separately from the theory or as a part of a combination of individual, group, and situation theories. Generally speaking, social climate includes mainly the culture and traditional relationship between the people existing at a given period. The prevailing social climate at a given time depends also on whether the people are temperamentally authoritarian, or subject to their own interests or to larger groups. Terms like congeniality, cooperation, friendliness, and hostility are normally employed to describe social climates.

The term social climate is very often used in experiments and studies under operational definitions. For instance, autocratic, democratic, and laissez-faire situations are made use of in the study of leadership activities.

Value system of the group is another factor which determines the leadership pattern. A group with democratic beliefs will not yield to or tolerate an authoritarian type of leader without at least passive resistance.

These factors lead us to the fact that the three theories discussed earlier, either separately or taken together, may be questioned as an adequate description of the leadership phenomenon. A comprehensive theory of leadership should necessarily take into consideration the structural role of leadership, personality factors of the individual, attitudes and needs of followers at a particular time, structure of the group and the situation. It would seem to be fair enough at this point to consider leadership as a function of the interaction of all of the variables discussed above. This framework should provide for an adequate role of differentiation between the leader and the led without interrupting other members in the group from performing leadership functions in various stages.

D. CHARACTERISTICS OF LEADERSHIP

Physical characteristics like good physique, strength, stature; and personality qualities like dependability, honesty, initiative, adaptability, ambition, fairness, character, loyalty, judgment, salesmanship, sincerity, self-confidence, self-control, self-discipline, resourcefulness, courtesy, tact, imagination, and sense of humor are characteristics which are considered to be basically essential for leadership.

Formal or informal training is a prominent characteristic of leadership. "Since wise leaders are constantly increasing their knowledge and understanding by means of one or another form of training, it is included as a major characteristic of leadership."[19]

Another character of leadership is experience. A leader should have had both the experiences of frustration and success, disappointments and satisfactions, certainty and uncertainty of followership together with the responsibilities of leadership before assuming primary leadership. "He who would command must first learn how to obey."[20] In other words, a person who has not experienced the interaction between one leading and those led with understanding as either leader or participant under the guidance of an able leader is not qualified to guide the thinking and deliberations of others. Of course, experience would not necessarily make a satisfactory leader, unless it is wedded with enthusiasm.

The relationship between the advisor and the advised, the leader and the follower, the teacher and the learner is another aspect of leadership characteristic. As Pigors suggests leadership should be a "process of mutual stimulation."[21] This "mutual stimulation" is not easily attainable in a group with divergent backgrounds

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[19]Charles Hickman Titus, The Process of Leadership (Iowa: Wm. C. Brown Company, Publishers, 1950), pp. 54-55.

[20]Ibid., p. 55.

[21]Paul Pigors, Leadership or Domination (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1935), p. 99.

of both culture and experience where the problems faced are many and different.

To sum up, it may be said that the characteristics of leadership in its broadest sense mean "the ability to master things or the power to influence people toward the good or bad in a realm as limited as the back room of a pool hall or as vast as the world."[22] In order to acquire the power to influence people one should necessarily have the capacity to "consider the future and the past with an equal mind."[23] One of the basic problems in the development of leadership is to recognize and develop this capacity of analysis and subsequent synthesis.

E. TYPES OF LEADERS

Many authors agree on the recognition of the various types of leaders on the basis of the roles they perform.

1. Informal or Advisory Leaders

Leaders who have responsibilities in too many groups will hardly find time to participate in all the activities of any group. In such cases leaders function merely in an advisory capacity.

2. Prestige Leaders

These types of leaders acquire leadership on account of their position or status in the community. This leadership is essentially

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[22]Behnke, "Famine in Leadership," School and Society, LXV (May, 1947), p. 397.

[23]Ibid.

of a symbolic nature and does not take active part in the activities of the group and more or less acts like a "puppet" of the active members.

3. Progressive Leaders

These leaders promote things which have some basis for being beneficial to the community. They usually show concern for the improvement of mankind.

4. Institutional Leaders

These types of leaders are professional in character. Such persons are usually appointed and must qualify because of previous training and experience.

5. Situational Leaders

Selected by a group to attain a particular goal. When the goal is attained there may be no further need for the situational leader.

Emory S. Bogardus, in his book Leaders for Leadership, groups leaders into three categories:

1. The social leader--one who performs before groups. Mental ability and personal magnetism count high in this type of leadership.

2. The mental leader. He is an introvert. If social leadership is effective in the presence of enthusiastic followers, the mental leader may work in seclusion. Ideas are the product of his work and practical ideas maintain him as a leader.

3. The executive leader. He stays behind the scene playing an intermediate role between social and mental leadership.[24]

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[24]Bogardus, op. cit., pp. 18-19.

On the basis of the location of the decision-making function, leaders are typed as autocratic, democratic, and laissez-faire. At the start it may be said that the method selected by a leader distinguishes the type of leadership he follows. For example, some leaders seek autocratic goals, such as goals of individual power, by democratic methods; some seek democratic goals by autocratic methods; some seek autocratic goals by autocratic methods; and some seek democratic goals by democratic methods.[25] The last method is the most difficult to attain. The completely laissez-faire leader would practice non-interference with the expressed goals and methods selected by his group--right or wrong. However, few leaders are representative of any one of these method classifications, most leaders being characterized by some aspects of autocratic, democratic, and even laissez-faire methodology.

1. Autocratic

The autocratic leader molds the action of others to suit his own plans. People are mere instruments in his hands, used to reach his own ends. He may sincerely desire to help the group, because it pleases him. In extreme cases, autocratic leadership seeks power at any cost. The autocratic leader in the words of Bogardus is:

> . . . Objective, overt, positive. He knows what ought to be done, what he wants to do, and he drives ahead to that end. He proceeds aggressively and obtrusively. He commands and organizes.

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[25] Walter Burr, Community Leadership (New York: Prentice-Hall, 1929), p. 248.

> He captivates and paralyzes. On occasion he moves with precision; again he blusters and storms. He exercises great freedom acting as a law unto himself. . . . He is proud, boastful, cocksure or seemingly so. If he doubts, he never discloses so.[26]

These lines illustrate realistically the general trend of autocratic leadership.

A fact which is equally interesting and important to consider is that much of the progress made by an autocratically led group is likely to be temporary. History reveals that social organizations built up under autocratic leadership lack the social sympathy and whole-hearted cooperation that is necessary for permanence. Chances for the development of individual personality are practically absent. This is essentially due to the lack of mutual respect and intrinsic worth of the individual as a human being.

2. Democratic

This type of leadership is based on the group or society and it grows out of the needs of the group. Bogardus says:

> The democratic leader draws people to their best levels rather than driving them on in line with his own purposes. He trains persons to become leaders, to take his place and even to surpass him. . . . He suggests rather than orders.[27]

It is apparent from this that democratic leadership depends on personal contacts rather than on objective decrees. It perpetuates the ideal in countless people through followers by fostering a slow and tedious but effective process of social interaction and consequent stimulation.

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[26] Bogardus, op. cit., p. 20.

[27] Ibid., p. 22.

Democratic leadership which is built upon a spirit of love and sympathy often expands into immortal deeds of mutual helpfulness. The basic factor on which democratic leadership rests is that each individual is of worth. He must be treated as such to develop full potential for value to self and society. A man is made through human associations. This association is the process by which he acquires skill in cooperative social behavior. This fact is fully recognized in democratic leadership. In essence, democratic leadership should be based on the desires and hopes of the participants consistent with the best interests of those involved and in line with their characteristics and abilities. A democratic leader should essentially be a guide to group experience. Democratic leadership recognizes the fact that organizations are only means to an end, not ends in themselves. Under a social order of "one for all and all for one" it is possible to share responsibilities. But the understanding of the situation is a precondition for such a cooperative participation. It seems it is this cooperative character of democratic leadership that maintains the worth and significance of the work of the extension service.

3. Laissez-faire

This is the type of leadership where unlimited individual freedom is allowed to the members of the group. Laissez-faire leadership is passive, indifferent, and unhelpful. The laissez-faire will foster a kind of unproductive, anarchic, and aggressive group. Lawlessness and "nothing doing" are common features of laissez-faire leadership.

Laissez-faire philosophy has been embraced on occasion by some who mistook it for a democratic approach to leadership.

In summary, while all determinations of policy are made by the leader in an autocratic atmosphere, policy determinations are a matter of group discussion in a democratic atmosphere and complete freedom for the group under laissez-faire leadership. Whereas an autocratic leader is overt, egoist, and altruist; democratic and laissez-faire are cooperative, sympathetic, and considerate. A democratic leader understands the situation under which the group works and their needs. A laissez-faire leader gives information when asked for and does not take any part in work discussion. He is passive, indifferent, and unhelpful. The democratic leader behaves like a regular group member in spirit and he suggests alternative procedures when required. Results are accomplished quickly under autocratic leadership, though they are temporary and lack whole-hearted cooperation. Results under democratic leadership are permanent and thorough though they are achieved slowly. Laissez-faire leadership allows unlimited individual freedom; consequently never gets work done systematically and so the results are also not promising. From the above discussion, it appears that democratic leadership is most promising and desirable.

F. NEED FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF DEMOCRATIC LEADERSHIP

The single fact that autocratic leadership in its purest form tends to centralize the decision making process in the leader suggests the undesirability of its existence, even though it may make quick action possible. On the other hand, democratic leadership has potentialities for greater productivity and greater morale of the group—particularly in the long run.

The following generally accepted points will illustrate the advantages of and need for the development of democratic leadership:

1. The circumstances people fully understand are those they have themselves experienced. The ideas they fully grasp are those in whose formulation they have participated.

2. Decisions which are a synthesis of a group's own efforts elicit more solid and enduring support than those elicited by one man.

3. Democratic leadership enables a society to draw upon all the human resources that are available to it.

4. Democratic leadership creates strong, responsible, self-reliant individuals who cannot so easily be pushed around by the first tyrant who comes up.

5. Democratic leadership builds a group which will not fall apart if something happens to the leader.

6. History has shown that democratic leadership makes for higher morale in a society than does autocratic leadership.

7. Those who disagree with group decisions are free to express their discontent, even though they may have to, and usually want to, abide by the decision.[28]

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[28] Haiman, op. cit., pp. 51-58.

The greatest single value of democratic leadership is that it not only allows for differences of opinion, but it is at all times open to the possibility of improvement as a result of these constructive expressions of difference.

The fore-going facts more than substantiate the necessity for the development of democratic leadership.

G. LIMITATIONS

With all these good points, democratic leadership is not without limitations. To be fair, we have to admit that there is an element of inequality in democratic leadership too. If democracy preaches non-superiority of one member over another, and each human being has an equal right to make decisions which affect his life, we have to admit with the same tone that men are neither equal in ability nor in the physical and mental contributions which they are able to make to the group. Nobody can deny the fact that an expert's judgment is better and more valuable than the judgment of a common man. If we can see the legitimacy of this we have to admit that autocratic leadership has a legitimate role in our lives.

There cannot be true equality in a group where the capacities of the members to think vary. This is evident among illiterates. Under these circumstances those who are capable usually take over the thinking for the illiterates.

Nevertheless, as is popularly known there are "necessary evils" in every system. This does not lessen our faith in its

validity within the areas where it is appropriate. Illiterates can still be represented, and eventually may be taught those things requisite to effective, literate citizenship.

H. DEMOCRATIC LEADERSHIP PATTERN AS A COMBINATION OF ALL TYPES

In reality autocracy, democracy, and laissez-faire should be perceived as constituents which make the true type of leadership. In other words, true effective leadership may be a combination of these three types. Kurt Lewin suggests that autocracy, democracy, and laissez-faire should be perceived as a triangle.[29] There are similarities between autocracy and democracy. They both mean leadership as against the lack of leadership of laissez-faire; they both mean discipline and organization as against chaos. Of course, in many respects democracy and laissez-faire are similar too. Both of them give freedom for the group members in so far as they create a situation where the members are acting under their own intrinsic motivation. It is apparent from this that democratic leadership is not something between autocratic discipline and lawlessness. It is safe to conclude that true democratic leadership is a harmonious combination of all the three types of leadership described above on the basis of the location of decision making.

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[29] Kurt Lewin, "The Dynamics of Group Action," Educational Leadership, I (January, 1944), pp. 195-200.

I. SITUATIONS UNDER WHICH DEMOCRATIC LEADERSHIP MAY DEVELOP

It seems to be appropriate at this point to consider the meanings of the terms "situation" and "democracy."

The Situation

Thomas and Znaniecki define the situation as:

> . . . The set of values and attitudes with which the individual or the group has to deal in a process of activity and with regard to which this activity is planned and its results appreciated. Every concrete activity is the solution of a situation. The situation involves three kinds of data:
>
> 1. The objective conditions under which the individual or society has to act, that is, the totality of values which at the given moment affect directly or indirectly the conscious status of the individual or the group.
>
> 2. The pre-existing attitudes of the individual or the group which at the given moment have an actual influence upon his behavior.
>
> 3. The definition of the situation, that is, the more or less clear conception of the conditions and consciousness of the attitudes.[30]

The term situation is used in a relative sense by Murphy, Murphy and Newcomb when they say that "it refers to the total pattern of social relations which influence a given individual, his culture."[31]

Apart from the values, attitudes, and culture "another important feature of the 'situation' is the physical setup, the world of objects."[32]

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[30] W. I. Thomas and F. Znaniecki, "The Definition of the Situation," in Theodore M. Newcomb and Eugene L. Hartley (eds.), Readings in Social Psychology (New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1947), p. 76.

[31] Gardner Murphy, Lois Barclay Murphy, and Theodore M. Newcomb, Experimental Social Psychology (New York: Harper and Brothers, Publishers, 1937), p. 338.

[32] Ibid., p. 339.

The term is used in this study in the physical, social, and psychological sense. Thus, the term "situation" means not only the physical setup, but also the attitudes engendered by the motives involved, by the instructions given, by the inter relations of individuals and by the values and attitudes which the subjects already have as members of a particular culture.

The term "democracy" is difficult to define because the ideas of democracy keep changing and people have different concepts of it. Nevertheless, there are some ideas which are shared by all. Democracy is built upon the belief that every person has within him some sort of worth and that he should get a chance to develop it. So, the first

> Tenet of democratic theory is the importance of the individual. Democracy holds that each man has a worth and a dignity of his own that society must recognize and respect. . . . Democracy does not assert that all men are born with equal talents, or that all men should share equally in property or income, but it does hold that all men should enjoy an equal opportunity to make use of their talents, to "show the stuff they are made of," to take advantage of the opportunities that life offers, and to enjoy equal justice under law.[33]

Thus for the purpose of this study "democratic situation" means the physical, social, and psychological setup in which each individual is given opportunity to express his opinions and develop his talents. Then democratic leadership differs from autocratic in the degree of deference shown to the wishes of followers, and in the conscious effort made by the leader to develop and maintain a "democratic situation."

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[33]Robert K. Carr, Marven H. Bernstein, Donald H. Morrison, and Joseph E. McLean, American Democracy in Theory and Practice (New York: Rinehart and Company, Inc., 1955), p. 26.

Situations Which Nourish Democracy

There are certain environmental factors that are essential for the successful operations of democracy.

1. People Must Be Educated. Good considers education as "the aggregate of all the processes by means of which a person develops abilities, attitudes, and other forms of behavior of positive value in the society in which he lives."[34]

From the above idea about education, it appears that educational training and experience are necessary to prepare the people to shoulder the burden which democracy places upon them, like understanding the facts pertaining to social problems, of evaluating the arguments for alternative courses of action, and determining the direction to be taken in the attack upon these problems consistent with the best interests of the individual and his society. Education is essential to maximize the rational factor in human affairs for which the democracy always strives.

2. People Must Have Chances for Free Interaction. Democracy should provide for a free and complete exchange of ideas. Thus all people should have not only access to information but also opportunity to discuss ideas and to participate in group decision making.

3. People Must Have Some Economic Security. History indicates that democracy is most successful in areas where the mass of the

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[34]Carter V. Good (ed.), Dictionary of Education (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1959), p. 191.

people enjoy a reasonable measure of economic security. Impoverished or uneducated people are "the ready victims of demagogues and despots."[35]

4. People Must Not Disagree too Sharply. The minority must be willing for the moment to accept the judgments arrived at by the majority. Though people should be free to develop differing economic and social interests, a democratic society should be a peaceful one if it is to survive.

> Here we encounter a paradox of democracy. On the one hand, democracy encourages diversity rather than uniformity in the lives of individual citizens. But on the other hand, it requires a measure of unity or cohesion in society as a whole. So, unity, but not uniformity is the rule of democracy.[36]

The foregoing discussion relates only to general factors that nourish democracy, and so merits further consideration.

The emergence of leadership seems to be related to at least three characteristics of group behavior. These are the presence of organization or structure, an orderliness of group procedure, and a readiness to accept some inhibitions on individual impulse. Situations which give rise to definite democratic leadership are characterized by a higher degree of structure and organization. In other words, there is always less variation in leadership under well-formulated organizations. This unmistakably suggests that there is a positive correlation between a higher degree of organization and

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[35]Carr, et al., op. cit., p. 36.

[36]Ibid.

democratic leadership. But they are in no way synonymous. Orderly procedure in the group has proved to be a prerequisite for democratic setup under any situation. In democratic interaction the purposes are set by the group after considering the needs of the individuals comprising the group. In this group effort it demands modification of the previous beliefs and judgments of individuals so that the group derives a new purpose. It is usually not the same as that held by any individual at the beginning. "This is very important, for in the low levels of interaction there is always some one who has a constant, unmodifiable purpose and who curbs free play of inquiry that might lead to a new purpose."[37]

Studies made by Gibb at the University of Illinois revealed that emerging leadership in small temporary groups of men is more democratic when:

1. The situation is one in which no member can feel himself more competent than another.

2. Appropriate techniques of communication are not known or well understood.

3. The situation arouses strong attitudes regarding the private rights of all group members.[38]

Though this study does not give definite conclusions about the

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[37]Thomas L. Hopkins, Interaction—The Democratic Process (Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1941), p. 9.

[38]Cecil Austin Gibb, "The Emergence of Leadership in Small Temporary Groups of Men" (Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Illinois, Urbana, 1949), p. 158-159.

emergence of leadership in permanent groups of men, it provides some indications which will help us to draw general conclusions. However, the above discussion points out that emergence of democratic leadership depends on the size of the group, the nature of attitudes, culture, values, individual goals, technical ability, group characteristics and physical conditions which allow free movement.

J. GROUP FACTORS AFFECTING LEADERSHIP

There are a number of variables in groups which have been shown to influence the activities of the leader. An examination of these variables might give us some idea as to how the variables alter or affect the functions of leadership.

1. Size

Various studies which have been undertaken concerning the relation between the size of the group and the leadership function suggest that there is a greater demand placed on leaders of larger groups by group members than is generally true in smaller groups. Hemphill endorses this view when he says "as the group becomes larger demands upon the leader's role become greater and more numerous" especially with regard to activities in areas demanding high competence.[39]

Further, both the demands on the leader and the group tolerance of leader-centered direction of activities are directly proportional

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[39]John K. Hemphill, "Relations Between Size of the Group and the Behavior of Superior Leaders," Journal of Social Psychology XXXII (August, 1950), p. 21.

to the size of the group. Nevertheless, the leader of a large group must be more concerned with the formalities of organization and structure than that of a small group.

2. Attitudes of Members

It has already been mentioned earlier in this chapter that the member's expectations will often determine the qualifications and characteristics of the person who is chosen as leader. The type of leader an authoritarian group desires is often entirely different from the type a democratic group desires. But a group composed of people who have no particular attitude toward any of these will react in varying degrees of satisfaction and dissatisfaction to every action of the leader.

3. Nature of Task

If a particular type of leadership behavior is desirable and constructive in one situation, a different situation may demand an entirely different type of behavior. In fact, the same type of leadership behavior if applied in different task situations may have adverse effects on the group. This does not mean that the group should necessarily have a different leader for each of its many tasks. Bell and French maintain that there is some sort of consistency in the leadership of most groups.[40] Nevertheless, the leader

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[40]Graham G. Bell and Robert L. French, "Consistency of Individual Leadership Position in Small Groups of Varying Membership," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology XXXXV (October, 1950), pp. 764-767.

must perform differently in different situations or he must be prepared to "decentralize" the leadership role. It might be, and often is, much more effective to assign appropriate jobs to different members of a given group instead of allowing a single leader to have heavy responsibilities and carry out jobs inefficiently.

The variables briefly discussed above throw some light on the group factors which affect leadership. In no way is this a complete picture, however. There are other group factors, needing further study like the effects of members coming together because of their work and the effects of members coming together voluntarily.

K. ORIGIN OF LEADERSHIP

Organization of group activities among primitive people and among young children is often inadequate and difficult. They may come to a common understanding by talking to each other without formal leadership. But they fail miserably, when immediate action is needed in a critical situation. It is to be admitted that some individuals in every group are usually superior to others in intelligence and other qualities. Such individuals, in time of crisis or need will take initiative to win the confidence of their followers so that the group will accept their suggestions and leadership. Basically, this is the beginning of leadership. The total environment furnishes the opportunity to lead and is always related to specific situations and needs and the confidence and cooperation of the group.

There are three generally accepted types of origin of group leadership.[41]

1. Self-formed Leadership

A leader with a combination of a strong personality, a vigorous assertive ego, and a steady determination to reach the end he sees as important, is a self-formed leader. These leaders are commonly typed, though erroneously, as "born leaders."

In the self-formed leadership the leader foresees an unsatisfied need or some new goal or value of which others are not generally aware. He creates interest in others, by some method, and selects a common cause to satisfy this newly created desire. Generally the originator assumes the leadership and such people thrive on the "passion for authority" and the "thirst for obedience" which are ever present in human nature.[42] In the long run, a self-constituted leader is likely to become aggressive and assertive and his relations with the group become unsatisfactory. Thus, self-formed leadership is undesirable and unsatisfactory in a democratic community.

2. Group-elected Leadership

When a group meets a situation that demands immediate and effective action, the need for a leader is recognized. Then the

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[41]Ordway Tead, The Art of Leadership (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1935), pp. 25-32.

[42]Ibid., p. 26.

group selects a member in whom it has most confidence and consequently the leader feels his responsibility in helping the group to come out of the new situation. Here the problem of the leader is to keep the support and cooperation of the group and to find out the means to achieve the group aim.

An elected leader does not have to win followers, because there is already a reasonable agreement between the leader and the led and thus such a leader has the easiest beginning. Nevertheless, it is his duty to prove that he is worthy of their selection. Moreover, a group-elected leader is always being tested and weighed and so runs the risk of being thrown out even on the slightest mistake. This type is typical of all democratic societies and easily the best type where democracy is desired.

3. Appointed Leadership

This type of leadership is created by appointment from a higher authority. The group follows this type of a leader at first only because of fear or respect of the higher authorities and the leaders are put to the difficult task of making followers out of those under their direction. The executive leader can get the whole-hearted support of his followers if he can prove that he is one among the employees. His main task is to make them desire what the organization desires.

A perusal of the above discussion makes us believe that leadership arises as a result of the pressing desire for a new

needed group action which commands common interest. Butterworth recognizes two essential elements in the origin of leadership:[43]

1. Group's need for better adjustment.
2. Group recognition of the need.

This analysis reveals that real need for better adjustment to the environment is the basis for leadership origin and group action.

L. CONTRIBUTIONS OF A LEADER IN PROMOTING EFFECTIVE GROUP FUNCTIONING

A leader can make contributions to a group by performing a symbolic function, by primarily making decisions, by giving advice, and by initiating plans. A leader as an initiator of plans will have to make large contributions to promote effective group functioning. It seems to be relevant here to examine some of the important areas in which the leader must make intelligent and persistent contributions.

1. Viscidity

This is a comparatively new term which refers to the capacity of the group to "pull together"; it refers to the capacity of the members of a group to function as a unit. The feelings of members toward one another, that is, the personal liking of each

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[43] Dwight Sanderson, Leadership for Rural Life (New York: Association Press, 1940), p. 30, citing Julian E. Butterworth, Rural School Administration, Chapters X, XI.

other, are insignificant here and these feelings are to be disciplined in the interests of the group movement toward a goal. The adequacy of the leader tends to be judged by his contributions to this aspect of group life. Hemphill's study on the adequacy of leadership strongly supports this view. After a thorough analysis of his study, Hemphill opines that adequate leadership results in keeping the group working together and its members satisfied.[44] When a leader wishes to have his group work as a unit, he should change or at least control those factors like suspiciousness, lack of trust, and aggressive self-oriented authoritarian behavior which adversely affects cohesion among members.

If past experience means anything, we can be sure that a group with high viscidity will achieve a disciplined group life which in turn will permit the group members to move together toward a goal effectively. All other factors remaining equal, a group with high viscidity will have high productivity. An effective leader must control his actions so as to make substantial contributions to the ability of the group to pull together as a team.

2. Hedonic Tone

Hedonic tone is the measure of agreeableness among the members of a group; hedonic tone is very closely related to viscidity. Pleasantness of the group climate and satisfaction in group achievements

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[44]John Hemphill, Situational Factors in Leadership Continuation (Columbus: Ohio State University, Bureau of Educational Research, 1949), p. 97.

are some of the basic requirements for hedonic tone. Unless a leader is able to make contributions to this aspect of group life, his leadership will not be effective. Effective communication which is one of the most important aspects of group work is possible only in a congenial group in which mutual trustfulness is the key of the relationships between members. Ross and Hendry suggest that:

> Viscidity and hedonic tone are critical factors in measuring or predicting the effectiveness of the group. If this be so, the leader who is realistic and alert will consistently seek to evaluate his own work in terms of his contribution to viscidity and hedonic tone in his group.[45]

3. Goal Achievement

The principal contribution of the leader of a group is to help the group to achieve its goal. This is a fact which cannot be overemphasized. The leader, in any situation, must be able to help the group define and move toward its goal. The efficiency, insight, cooperation, and adaptability of the leader must help the group achieve its objective. A major part of the leader's contribution in helping the group achieve its goal comes from this capacity to stimulate and motivate the members to work toward the group goal.

4. Facilitating Communication

As indicated previously, adequate communication is fundamental to such factors as viscidity, hedonic tone, goal achievement and other areas not here discussed. Although the problem of effective

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[45]Ross and Hendry, op. cit., p. 68.

communication is an old one, the recent trends are toward bringing to it a new sense of urgency. Any fundamental advancement in a group depends upon adequate inter-communication. The group cannot exist as a unit unless there is sufficient meaningful communication within the group. Mutual understanding which is the result of effective communication helps to keep the morale of the group at a high level. Alex Bavelas maintains:

> . . . In patterns with a high, localized centrality, organization evolves more quickly and is more stable and errors in performance are less. At the same time, however, morale drops. It is conceivable that poor morale would, in the long run, affect stability and accuracy negatively.[46]

This again shows that the establishment of adequate communication within the group cannot be neglected by the democratic leader.

In essence ". . . communication is the development of mutual understanding in the group so that objectives and goals as they are developed have relevance and meaning for each member of the group."[47] The leader by virtue of his central position in a group can develop this mutual understanding. Leon Festinger argues that there are three sources of pressures to communicate:

1. Communications arising from pressures toward uniformity in a group.

2. Communications arising from forces to locomote in a social structure.

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[46]Alex Bavelas, "Communication Patterns in Task-oriented Groups," in Dorwin Cartwright and Alvin Zander (eds.), Group Dynamics (New York: Row, Peterson and Company, 1953), p. 505.

[47]Ross and Hendry, op. cit., p. 79.

3. Communications arising from the existence of emotional states.[48]

A leader has got a big responsibility in unmasking and stimulating these three sources of pressures which in turn will arouse effective communication within the group.

Communication arising from pressures toward uniformity is not an end in itself but rather is a means by which the communicator hopes to influence the person he talks with in such a way as to reduce the discrepancy that exists between them.

Communication arising from forces to locomote are due to the incentive on the part of the communicator to change their positions in the group or to move from one group to others.

A variety of communications results from the existence of an emotional state in the communicator. But it is fair to assume that the communications resulting from the existence of emotional states are "consumatory" rather than "instrumental." Instrumental communication is one in which the reduction of the force to communicate depends upon the effect of the communication on the recipient. Consummatory communication is one in which the reduction of the force to communicate occurs as a result of the expression and does not depend upon the effect it has on the recipient.

Social studies made on communication in a group unmistakably point out that true leadership can play an important role in providing

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[48]Leon Festinger, "Informal Social Communication," Psychological Review, LVII (September, 1950), p. 281

situations for more extensive and intensive interaction in the group and thus it contributes to higher morale. A group where members are free to communicate with one another makes for greater satisfaction, higher morale, and greater productivity. A leader who wishes to facilitate communication within a group should encourage members to freely communicate with each other. Nevertheless, a leader must be capable of interrupting, where necessary and desirable, and of trying to decentralize his role in communication process. Thus he should attempt to develop the abilities of all members so that they become effective communicators. Of course, such leadership and communication may not be acceptable in some groups like the army or certain kinds of business.

5. Establishing Structure

A group is called structured when a group acquires some stability in the differentiation of its parts. In other words:

> The structure of a group consists of its distinguishable parts or positions, and of their arrangement with respect to one another. The positions of a group are conceived of as relatively homogeneous parts which, in principle, may contain any number of people (including zero under some conditions, since it is possible to speak to an "unfilled position"). It helps greatly in the task of predicting an individual's behavior in a group to be able to specify his location in the group's structure.[49]

A group without a proper structure will create uncertainty and confusion about the functioning of the group. Further, every member

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[49]Cartwright and Zander, op. cit., p. 416.

in a group should feel some security and certainty in the group and this demands a proper group structure understood and accepted by all group members. There should be a clear understanding of the responsibilities of each member. There should be clarity in respect to status, character of relationships and responsibilities. It is the obligation of the leader to shoulder his responsibilities in establishing and maintaining such a structure. In an "authoritarian" group this responsibility rests entirely on the leader, while in a democratic group the members will probably work out relationships and responsibilities. In democratic groups the leader's contribution lies in seeing that these matters are worked out properly and that they are understood, accepted, and followed by each member of the group.

M. IMPLEMENTING PHILOSOPHY

In sharing the responsibilities as a leader of a group and making his contribution, a leader should be careful to see that his personal goals, like increased status and greater recognition, do not prevent the fullest cooperative effort in the group. The leader's aspirations for the group in reaching the objectives should be based on the enrichment of personal and social living.

A professional leader is responsible both to the appointing authority and to the group with whom he works. The professional leader should be clear about his goals for the group, apart from those which the group has for itself. He should consider sharing

his objectives with the group as he feels that the group is ready and able to consider them, whether in whole or in part.

It is apparent from the foregoing discussion that the contributions a leader has to make in working with a group are complex in nature. The different variables affecting the conditions under which the leader has to make his contributions are not independent and separate.

> A leader cannot move a group toward its goal without affecting viscidity and hedonic tone in the group. Nor can the leader take the initiative in some project without influencing communication process and structure.[50]

It is apparent that the success of group activities depends to a large extent on the degree to which wise and discrete contributions are made by the leader in the fields discussed above.

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[50] Ross and Hendry, op. cit., p. 87.

CHAPTER III

IDENTIFICATION AND SELECTION OF POTENTIAL LOCAL LEADERS

As borne out by concepts presented in earlier chapters, the success of extension activities in any area must necessarily depend to a large measure on the efficiency of its local leadership. This fact necessitates a knowledge of the part played by the local leaders in extension work.

According to two eminent cooperative extension authorities, Kelsey and Hearne:

> . . . Local leaders are people selected, because of special interests or fitness to work on some phase of the local program and these people belong to the primary group with which extension works.[1]

While professional leaders receive compensation in the form of pay for their leadership and work, local leaders become involved in extension activities only for the recognition and personal satisfaction they derive from the improved conditions which result.

The selection of an efficient potential local leader, which will be discussed later in this chapter, demands a thorough understanding of both the characteristics and the functions of local leaders. Characteristics of local leaders have already been

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[1] L. D. Kelsey and C. C. Hearne, Cooperative Extension Work (New York: Comstock Publishing Company, 1955), p. 201.

discussed in the previous chapter. So, it seems desirable now to consider the functions of local leaders.

A. FUNCTIONS OF LOCAL LEADERS

In a discussion of the generally accepted functions of leadership several concepts are involved. Function involves action, a release of energy and work performed. Essentially leadership implies an act or something which leaders do in relationship with others and different situations. Very often the functions of leaders are interrelated. This makes it difficult to draw clear lines between different functions.

1. Group Advisor

One leadership function which is comparatively distinct is that of group guidance. Discovery of the needs of the individual is the job of the leader which is of paramount importance in a group guidance program. This fact is given prime significance by Baxter and Cassidy when they say, "Essential to the wise guidance of group enterprise is the discovery of what each individual needs to learn thru group experience and participation."[2] The primary aim of community organizations is to develop relationships between groups and individuals that will enable them to act together in increasing, strengthening, and maintaining facilities for the common welfare of the members of the community.

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[2]B. Baxter and N. Cassidy, Group Experience—The Democratic Way (New York: Harper and Brothers, Publishers, 1943), p. 55.

In this effort local leaders have the main job of identifying the needs of the people and keeping the aims and objectives of the community service above that of individuals.

2. Group Spokesman

Another function of the local leader is that of acting as group spokesman. In making the work of an organization successful, the leader has the important role of maintaining good relationships with other organizations. Here he has to function as the group spokesman. A group cannot function effectively without a spokesman and if all of its members attempt to speak for it, only confusion results. While acting as the group spokesman, he should coordinate the activities and interests of the group. The leader should be able to persuade the members of the group to sacrifice personal differences for the welfare of the group and train them to make up group decisions in line with the best interests of the group. In other words, ". . . leadership is the activity of influencing people to cooperate toward some goal, which they come to find desirable."[3] The leader must be able to think with the group and yet maintain a certain independence of judgment so that he is not overswayed by the personal interests of its members. He must be able to see their common needs so clearly that he can reveal them to the members and formulate plans to meet the interests. Thus, his functions as coordinator and planner are interdependent.

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[3]Ordway Tead, The Art of Leadership (New York: Whittlesey House, 1935), p. 20.

3. Planner

The leader must be able to put into words and actions the plans of the group. He must know what he wants to get done and where he wants to go. "The world stands aside to let pass the man who knows whither he is going."[4] The leader is accepted by the group either because he helps to identify and clearly state goals which are agreed upon by the people, or because he can show them the means to reach their stated goal. The loyalty of the group depends to a large extent upon its confidence in the leader's ability to originate the best plan for its welfare.

Since the leader is always just a little ahead of the group in seeing its needs, he must be able to work ahead of the group foreseeing difficulties and suggesting ways to meet them. The leader should see that the plans are in line with the overall objectives of the group. In other words, the plans should be well designed.

The wisest leader is one who lets the group do its own planning and who merely stimulates and guides the planning process. The leader must be careful not to let his own ideas take precedence over those of the group. It is not always possible to satisfy each individual every time that differences in desires are present. Nevertheless, an efficient leader should be able to secure loyal followers by planning to satisfy each individual a sufficient number of times through short term projects. This is possible only when the leader systematically

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[4] Ibid., p. 94.

follows a clearly thought out plan for moving toward accepted objectives. To achieve satisfactory results planning should be followed by efficient organization of resources.

4. Organizer

The volunteer leader is an organizer. Leadership is the tool for making an organization more and more successful, whether its objective is toward a social goal or a commercial goal. It is the leader who organizes and channels the energies and activities of the members into a group action. It requires special effort on the part of the leader to organize the group in such a way as to avoid feelings of unacquaintedness, unrelatedness, and unworthiness. "That effort toward a unifying of the desires and efforts of its /the organization's/ members is a distinctive task of the leader."[5]

Whole-hearted participation by many people not only divides up the work among the members, but also gives everyone a feeling of belongingness. This sense of belongingness of the members of a group is a vital force which facilitates early but effective accomplishments. This also helps better interaction of group members. Herein lies the capacity of the leader in the assignment of jobs with discretion and consideration. He must be able to channel movement toward a definite goal by organizing the general group plan and the many details of specific actions relating to specific situations. Every function of a local leader is aimed at the development of the individual. Organization

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[5] Ibid., p. 8.

of time, effort, and other resources should necessarily be helpful in the development of the individual.

5. Developer

The fundamental role of a local leader in extension is that of developing the individual. The popular extension phrase "to help people to help themselves" sufficiently illustrates the value of the leader as a helper of other individuals.

As a developer, the leader performs the important role of discovering the new talents and abilities, helping to develop them and creating a wholesome personality. Here the local leader should be able to show one of the basic qualities of democratic leadership; namely, the willingness to foster new leadership abilities. The creation of new leadership in the group will enable the leader to delegate a part of his job to newly developed leaders. So, the best group leader will stimulate other members to accept minor or major tasks. Such acceptance of responsibilities by individual group members not only helps in the accomplishment of group objectives but also provides opportunity for the growth and development of leaders who eventually will take the present leader's place. To achieve the above said objective of developing the individuals the local leader should be a good teacher also who is proficient in guiding the individuals in all activities.

6. Teacher

As mentioned earlier, a good leader is a good teacher. As a teacher, a leader sets up and helps set up goals, poses problems, guides subsequent activities, and holds a person to a new way of mind and conduct. As a teacher he must employ such recognized teaching principles as those suggested by Halsey in his "Commandments of Teaching." They are:

1. Know the subject yourself.
2. Get undivided attention.
3. Make learners want to know.
4. Start with what the learners know.
5. Teach the simple first and lead on to the more complicated.
6. Keep explanations to the point.
7. Give a reason for each step.
8. Demonstrate correctly and exactly what the learner should know, feel and/or do.
9. Encourage discussion.
10. Give the learner a chance to express promptly each part of what has been taught.
11. Don't forget the emotional part of the learner.
12. Check for retention and use of information.
13. Remember the importance of giving good examples.
14. Plan teaching in advance.

15. Use the same care and appropriate techniques in teaching individuals.[6]

Aside from teaching principles a knowledge of the learning principles also is necessary for it has been said that there is no teaching without learning. The generally accepted principles of learning are:

1. Learning is growth-like and continuous.
2. Learning is purposeful.
3. Learning involves appropriate activity by the learners that engages a maximum number of senses: seeing, hearing, feeling, tasting and smelling.
4. Learning must be challenging and satisfying.
5. Learning must result in functional understanding.
6. Learning is affected by the physical and social environment.
7. Learning ability varies widely among individuals.
8. Learning, in general, is a gradual process usually requiring several exposures over time before extensive change results.
9. Learning is an active process on the part of the learner.
10. Learned behavior is attained through the following four steps and in about the order mentioned:
    developing interests,
    creating desire,

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[6]George D. Halsey, How To Be a Leader (New York: Harper and Brothers, Publishers, 1938), pp. 79-90.

ensuring action, and

maintaining satisfaction.[7]

7. Evaluator.

The process of appraisal of achievements and failures in teaching and other activities is usually secured through careful evaluation. Evaluation is an accepted practice often adopted to measure the distance traveled toward the goal. Any individual or group will be proud of the achievements made and will strive to do even better if the leader consciously keeps the group informed of its achievements. On the other hand, if the group has become top heavy with non-progressive activities, an effective evaluation of the situation is necessary in order to bring the group back to purposeful action. The local leader is naturally the logical man to conduct evaluation at a group level. It is the duty of the leader to bolster the spirit and enthusiasm of the group by keeping them informed of the group's achievements and by restating objectives wherever necessary. The selection of actions to be followed in pursuing projects must be carefully conceived and consciously thought out to avoid drift, trial and error, and unnecessary expenditure of time and energy of the group.

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[7]Dr. L. H. Dickson and Dr. R. S. Dotson, of Agricultural Extension Department, in class lectures, Spring Quarter, 1960. Permission to quote secured.

8. Friend

Last, but not least, he must be a friend to the group and to the members individually. A sympathetic warmth of feeling, friendliness of attitude, and conscious solicitude for the well-being and happiness of others is an important factor in the success of a leader as a friend. Affection also is essential for the leader, because:

> . . . It predisposes people toward being influenced. . . . the friendly attitude is the influencing attitude. And affection is a positive motivating force over the conduct of those upon whom it is poured out.[8]

It can be seen from the above discussion of the functions of local leaders that they are very much interrelated with the characteristics of leadership. It is further clear that the functions of leadership are related to the situation and the response of some individual or individuals within the group as spokesman, harmonizer, coordinator, planner, teacher, evaluator, and friend. Another important aspect of the function of leadership is its importance in solving problems of life situations. Individuals, through educational processes, can be made aware of problems which serve to motivate human behavior. In the educational process:

> . . . The materials, the physical surroundings, the group members, the program sponsor, and the particular content or topic of concern will all have their effect. But the leader is the key. Upon his skills and abilities depends the extent to which the members of the group become involved, continue in, and benefit by the program.[9]

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[8]Tead, op. cit., p. 104.

[9]A. A. Liveright, Strategies of Leadership (New York: Harper and Brothers, Publishers, 1959), p. 16.

Very often the outcome of a project may or may not coincide with the wishes of the leader and the followers, but the high quality of the leader's abilities is of paramount importance for the overall success in the long run. Demand for leadership of the highest caliber is perhaps greater in the hour of defeat than in the hour of triumph.

B. THE SELECTION OF LOCAL LEADERS

1. Importance of Selection

Selection of qualified leaders is an important problem in any social order. Various studies on leadership activities have shown that ". . . the educational training, method of selection, . . . all had some bearing upon the effectiveness of local leaders in influencing others to make use of extension information."[10] Ross and Hendry also stress the importance of selection in a successful leadership development when they say:

> The importance of selecting men of potential ability, of giving them responsibility, consistent support, opportunity for sharing their problems with their peers, and the friendship and counsel of an experienced leader, may indeed be the key to the success of a leadership development program.[11]

So, a more careful selection, consideration being given to their personality and potential ability to become leaders is of supreme

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[10] M. C. Wilson and W. H. Brokaw, "What Local Leaders Do?" Extension Service Circular 115 (November, 1929), p. 17.

[11] Murray G. Ross and Charles E. Hendry, New Understandings of Leadership (New York: Association Press, 1957), p. 138.

importance in any leader development program. If selection is important in the development of leadership, it is equally important to have a well developed system of effective selection program also. Therefore, one of the important considerations in any sound leadership development program which demands serious attention is the discovery of means by which to identify persons with leadership potential. If physical and personality qualities of a leader are taken as criteria for the selection of potential leaders, it may not be difficult to secure sufficient number of trainees for many leadership training courses. But, ". . . the fact is that no systematic effort has been made to identify, recruit and train them."[12]

2. Previous Investigations on Scientific Selection of Potential Leaders

Though large strides have been made in the application of scientific method to the social science, a fool-proof measure for identifying present and potential leaders with vigor and precision has not thus far been formulated. Nevertheless, we must consider the studies made in the field of psychometric measurement. Psychological tests have been in use for some time in selecting persons "requiring a definite minimum level of intelligence or technical skill."[13] But these and similar tests have not proven to be adequate

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[12] Ibid., p. 129.

[13] Alvin Gouldner (ed.), Studies in Leadership (New York: Harper and Brothers, Publishers, 1950), p. 616.

for selecting leaders who require high personality qualifications and ability for policy making decisions.

One of the difficulties in selecting leaders scientifically is that leadership is not a standardizable behavior pattern or function common to all situations. It varies from group to group and from situation to situation.

"Leadership selection involves a power bias. Before any scientific choice process can be worked on, an arbitrary decision must be made on whose values are to guide it."[14] There are at least two possible alternatives.

1. Leadership is considered to be a constellation of qualities defined by an individual or a group of supervisors in a hierarchy. They do the selecting of leaders in terms of their standards. This is how positions of leadership are filled in a bureaucracy, an army, or a business firm. Opportunity for the exercise of leadership is awarded by appointment from above.

2. Leadership is considered to be a constellation of qualities defined by prevailing sentiments in the entire group to be led. Through formal election, informal consensus or sympathetic inter-stimulation, members of the group find some one whom they are willing to follow.[15]

It is difficult to find these two hierarchial and democratic forms in their pure state. They are sometimes overlapping too. Nevertheless, the qualities defined by the group are less rigid than that fixed for the selection of a hierarchial leader.

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[14] Ibid., p. 617.

[15] Ibid.

Kimball Young concludes that the "trait" or "type" concept of leadership has no selective utility.[16] This is based on the fact that qualifications for leadership vary greatly for different positions. The individual behavior patterns generally considered as leadership qualities are not the same in all situations. Murphy, Murphy and Newcomb also agree with the view that leadership is a situationally defined capacity.[17]

Though leadership qualities are relative to the position and the situation, there are certain similarities in the aptitudes that make for leadership under different circumstances. If we accede completely to the former theory of leadership as a situationally defined capacity, we have to admit that all leadership selection tests are useless. But the potential value of leadership selection is well appreciated when we remember that leadership persists to some degree, in spite of changes in social circumstance. Courtenay studied a group of one hundred women high school graduates who had demonstrated leadership abilities and found that they earned higher salaries and took more active parts in community activities than did members of the control sample of non-leaders of the same socio-economic background, ethnic heritage, scholarship record and age at

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[16] Kimball Young, Social Psychology (New York: F. S. Crofts and Company, Inc., 1945), pp. 228-238.

[17] G. Murphy, L. B. Murphy, and T. M. Newcomb, Experimental Psychology (New York: Harper and Brothers, Publishers, 1937), pp. 830-835.

graduation.[18] Zeleny after a thorough review of leadership studies also concluded that outstanding leaders have demonstrated considerable ability to make adjustments.[19] All these results show that leadership selection tests which are valid for a particular situation will probably have some validity for the related situations also.

Ross and Hendry emphasize that personality and character are two factors which are consistantly valid in any case of leadership selection.[20] They are of opinion that the measurable factors in leadership can be put into use in the identification of potential leadership. Psychometric tests have been successful in giving us fairly valid indices to a person's technical ability. But these tests are in no way valid when used to measure the personality traits and character of a person. They apparently do not measure specific social situations in which, as a leader, the candidate must operate.

Both psychometric tests and oral interviews have little validity for the social personality qualities involved in leadership.[21]

Sociological tests are being tested in an effort to overcome these defects. These tests involve samples of the sociological

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[18] Ethel Courtenay, "The Persistence of Leadership," School Review, XLVI (February, 1938), pp. 97-107.

[19] Leslie Day Zeleny, "Ledership," Encyclopedia of Educational Research (Revised ed.), 662-667.

[20] Ross and Hendry, op. cit., p. 130.

[21] Joseph W. Eaton, "Is Scientific Leadership Selection Possible," in Alvin W. Gouldner (ed.), Studies in Leadership (New York: Harper and Brothers, Publishers, 1958), p. 621.

circumstances and values necessary in a specific leadership situation.

Sociodramatic test. This test involves activity by an individual or group in a situation of simulated reality. These tests usually include an audience who provide simulated social environment. These are tests of the total personality of the subject designed to evaluate his over-all performance. In short, they are performance tests in social setting.

Though this test does not seem to be adaptable where leadership is well developed, the fact that a definite type of temparament, which does have an effect on the growth of the personality, is inherited will justify the use of this test to identify potential leaders.[22]

Sociometric test. The essential character of this test is the rating of individuals by their co-workers, inferiors, and superiors. Here sociodramatic tests of leadership and social behavior are often combined with sociometric measurements.

The sociodramatic and sociometric tests discussed above have been developed consistent with the concept that a leader can be studied only in relation to a total group situation and that a true group leader can be identified only by some kind of observation of the effectiveness of his performance in the type of group to which

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[22]James S. Knox, Alice H. Horner, and Ruth Wade Ray, Personality in Action (Illinois: Knox Business Book Company, 1953), p. 2.

the leadership is related. These two methods have been proved valid by research and by carefully controlled practical experience.[23] The observation of performance for the identification of potential leaders was used successfully during the war. German Army, British Army officer candidate selection board, and U. S. office of strategic services selected the candidates by evaluating their performance.[24] Though the validity of these army methods have not experimentally been proved, the fact that at least three major armies found these methods practical cannot be considered lightly.

Numerous studies have been made to test the validity of the identification of leaders by means of rating by associates. Two decades ago, Soderquist and Swab and Peters pointed out that ratings by associates are valid methods of selecting leaders.[25] These studies conclusively point out that personality is an organic whole which can be defined only in terms of variable total response to varied specific situations and the best judges of the responses are the members of the group who are the object of the responses rather than "outsiders."

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[23]Zeleny, op. cit., p. 664.

[24]Joseph W. Eaton, "Experiments in Testing Leadership," The American Journal of Sociology, LII (May, 1947), pp. 525-534.

[25]H. O. Soderquist, "Validity of the Measurement of Social Traits of High School Pupils by the Method of Rating by Associates," Journal of Educational Research, XXXI (September, 1937), pp. 29-34; and James C. Swab and Charles C. Peters, "The Reliability and Validity of Estimates (Ratings) as Measuring Tools," Journal of Educational Sociology, VII (December, 1933), pp. 224-232.

It seems probable that the "principles" for testing the leadership laid down by Eaton are of special importance for the identification or selection of leaders.

1. The testing situation should be set up with reference to a precise criteria of leadership.

2. The sociodramatic activities should contain an identifiable number of components involving the demonstration of a number of specific skills.

3. The situation should be simple, rather than complex.

4. Each response of the one rated should be evaluated in some numerical weight.

5. Ratings should be made by associates (sociometry) as well as by observers.

6. Final results should not be expressed in too exact gradations--perhaps in "deciles or quartiles of the total test population."[26]

3. Factors To Be Considered in the Identification or Selection of Leaders

The fact that some persons have more and better equipment for leadership than others is to be given due emphasis in any leader identification and selection process as a prerequisite to an adequate leader training program. This unique ability of some individuals may be of virtue of their sensitivity to other's needs, their initiative, and inherent natural ability. A leadership development program which recognizes these facts appear to have less chances of failure.

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[26]Zelany, op. cit., p. 665, citing Joseph W. Eaton, "Experiments in Testing Leadership," The American Journal of Sociology, XII (May, 1947), pp. 523-535.

The characteristics and qualities discussed in the last chapter should be of much use in the identification and selection of potential leaders. Instead of listing and discussing all of them again, an attempt is made below to sort out a few.

One of the most important factors one should consider in selecting potential leaders is that of motivation. A person having all other qualifications for leadership, but obstinate enough not to want to do the job he is capable of doing well, is seemingly a poor risk for leadership responsibilities. As is suggested earlier, willingness to accept responsibilities is a prerequisite of leadership. The desire to do even a distasteful job well shows out promising potential leaders.

> The degree and kind of motivation is, therefore, a factor in leadership capacity and potential. This factor, so easily overlooked, must be considered . . . in selecting persons for training in a leadership development program.[27]

The specific task or tasks for which leadership may be required is another important factor which should be taken into account in any leadership program. Different leadership may be required for each different kind or level of work. The kind of leadership required of the top-level policy making leader and of the community club leader are quite distinct. So, apart from the qualities of leadership, a selection and training program should recognize the various levels or tasks for which leadership is required.

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[27]Ross and Hendry, op. cit., p. 131.

Ability to communicate is another factor which merits consideration in the selection of leaders. Though verbal facility of a person is important in leadership activities, it should not be mistaken with the ability to communicate. Persons having high fluency often fail in establishing mutual understanding.

Leadership demands fundamental personal strength. A leader is required to face both praise and criticism. Strength and integrity of high caliber are required to keep the morale of the group high in both the occasions mentioned above, particularly in the latter case.

> The human spirit is the source of great strength, and it is the recognition and utilization of this strength which permits many to overcome personal problems and to rise to the demands of the situation. But it must be said frankly that there are extreme differences in capacity among individuals in this respect. Leadership development programs should seek to secure persons with great personal strengths, and any appraisal of leadership potential should seek to test for such resources.[28]

Sufficient care should be taken in the selection to see that a maladjusted person is not selected to become a leader. He may be of real service only after radical personality change, which, again, may be possible only after adequate treatment. A person who is not sure of himself but affraid to refuse the proposal, may take on a task which tremendously increases his insecurity.

As suggested earlier, the above stated factors are to be considered along with the generally accepted characteristics and qualities of a leader. A number of studies made on this subject suggest that stress cannot be placed equally on all factors. Proper

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[28] Ross and Hendry, op. cit., p. 135.

emphasis on the factors will vary, as was noted earlier, according to such conditions as nature of the job to be done and the particular situation. However, results of studies do indicate that personality and character are two factors which are consistently valid in any leadership selection.[29]

Studies made by Baker and Wilson in New Jersey on the selection of leaders showed that volunteer leaders on the average devoted fifty per cent more time to the work and reached nearly two and a half times as many people as did leaders selected in other ways.[30] This indicates that the leader who comes forward and volunteers his or her services can apparently be counted upon to take a much more active part in forwarding extension work than leaders selected in other ways. The Baker and Wilson study also suggested that three other selection methods (obtaining leaders by the extension agent personally, appointing leaders by the cooperating organization, or electing leaders by the local people) adopted are of little importance, since the leaders obtained in these ways were about equally effective.[31] Nevertheless, we cannot always rely completely on the volunteer method to give us the full supply needed.

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[29] Ross and Hendry, op. cit., p. 130; and Gouldner (ed.), op. cit., p. 620.

[30] H. J. Baker and M. C. Wilson, "Local Leadership and the Effectiveness of Extension Work in Reaching Rural People," New Jersey, Extension Service Bulletin, 50 (February, 1926), p. 16.

[31] Ibid.

After an exhaustive study on the method of leadership selection, Lindstrom and his associates concluded that:

> The leader must be well liked by all persons under his leadership, that he must have their good will and confidence, and that his judgment must be respected. . . . Religious differences must also be recognized in the selection of leaders, especially in those areas in which a close knit religious group is located. In such areas, leaders must be selected from both inside and outside such groups in order to get full cooperation in the program. Leaders who can get the job done will, in most cases, be persons who have been leaders in other activities.[32]

This study indicates that the person who is to be selected as a local leader must not only be liked by all persons whom he is going to lead, but also be a person who has been leader in other activities. None of these studies suggest any common criteria useful for the selection of leaders. But, it seems to be safe to generalize that persons who come forward voluntarily, irrespective of their motive, are more reliable and consistent under practically all conditions.

4. Techniques Useful in the Selection of Potential Leaders

The following eight sources seem to be most promising for locating potential leaders. Of course, these are by no means intended to be all inclusive or suitable under all conditions.

Available records. Indications of special activities obtainable from school records, civic associations or records of any group reveal potential leaders. Records of past activities and achievements secured

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[32] D. E. Lindstrom, et al., "The Proper Organization and Method of Leadership Selection," Illinois Farm Economics, Extension Service in Agriculture and Home Economics, 85 (June, 1942), p. 310.

from such sources provide excellent information regarding the qualifications of potential leaders. Nevertheless, any one source may not be the optimum one under all conditions. For example, records probably will not be available for individuals in illiterate groups. This is again impracticable in places where organizations do not exist and/or are in their first stages.

Interview. Very often the qualifications, qualities, and potentialities of many persons are not apparent. This is particularly true with new members, and the more modest ones, whose potentialities are not recorded or are not known by other members. In such cases a personal interview by the professional leader might possibly uncover some of the potentialities. Formal interviews are usually to be avoided. In fact, an informal friendly conversation would be a more advisable procedure. The advantageous use of this technique depends upon the ability of the professional leader in dealing with the people.

Observation. Potential leaders within a group or among outsiders can be spotted by careful observation by both the professional leader and the local leader. Close observation will often reveal persons with potentialities of leadership.

Past experience. Probably this is the best approach in finding leadership potential. Studies made in this line are in perfect agreement with this.[33] Leadership positions in other activities give

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[33]Lindstrom, et al., op. cit., p. 310.

background information which can be profitably utilized in the selection procedure. There seems to be concensus concerning the fact that experience and practice are essential if one is to improve in leadership ability. As stated earlier this is substantiated by a number of research workers. Although it is said that "leaders are born, not made," many leadership qualities can be stimulated, changed and even improved through proper techniques of training and experience. So, it seems highly desirable to select new leaders with some past experience in the line. This will have the added advantage of giving the new leader a fresh outlook on the local situation.

Recommendations. Locating potential leadership from this source is feasible generally under two conditions; when the group is too large to gain personal contact with each member and when the time is too limited for careful searching by professional leaders. If there is a change in the professional staff and the new professional leader is unfamiliar with the whole situation, then also, recommendation can be extremely helpful. But the sources of the individual recommendation is, perhaps, more important than other factors. Care should be exercised to see that the professional leader is not carried away or misinformed by the ill advice of undesirable persons. Members of directing boards and other local leaders are examples of reliable sources. This by no means denies the importance of the opinions of other individuals within or outside the group.

Questionnaire. Questionnaire is a quick and effective tool for locating potential leaders. It is most effective when used to find one who has a particular talent or skill in a large group. Greater and more accurate results will be obtained if special care in handling the questionnaire is practiced. Special advantages in this case are:

1. It is an easy, quick and relatively inexpensive method of obtaining data. . . .

2. . . . It can be planned to reach a wide geographic distribution of people including some quite inaccessible people, provided that their addresses are known.

3. It is useful in reaching a relatively homogenous, fairly well-educated group.

4. It is well adapted for reaching specific groups.[34]

There are many disadvantages for this, of which the most important is that it is useless among uneducated groups. Further, there is no control over the completeness or honesty of the answer received. Nevertheless, it is the most suitable when it is required to cover a large group within a short period—with the least amount of effort and expense.

Mass media. Presenting the problem to the public or to the members of the group is very often found to be a good way of locating leaders. An appeal to the public may set the stage for a questionnaire or survey.

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[34]Gladys Gallup, "Methods of Collecting Data," in Darcie Byrn (ed.), Evaluation in Extension (Washington, D. C.,: U. S. D. A.), p. 45.

Survey. The survey is the most inclusive method, provided there is enough time. A survey can include all the previous sources of leader potential. But it requires the greatest amount of preparation and expenditure of time, money, and energy. Since all the sources can be combined in this, this gives the most reliable result. A careful survey beginning with mass media publicity and using all the other sources and ending with a careful perusal of the data is almost sure to uncover many potential leaders.

In making use of these methods for the location of potential leaders, the fact that every individual has some value should not be forgotten. So, it is the responsibility of the professional leader to tap these abilities and put them to use. "No stone should be left unturned" in the process of locating potential leaders.

CHAPTER IV

TRAINING FOR LOCAL LEADERSHIP

Selection and training are the two key factors which determine the success of a leader development program. Watson gives more importance to training in a leadership development program than to selection. This is primarily because of the difficulty involved in the accurate prediction of leadership ability which is so essential to satisfactorily select competent leaders. Watson analyses the situation and says that ". . . in recognition of this situation, the training of leaders has been widely attempted."[1] Considering leadership as a situational capacity and the possibility of a learned leadership, Sanderson also argues that ". . . it should be possible to provide definite means for the development and training of leaders."[2] Liveright agrees with Sanderson when he says, "If it is true, as has been proposed, that good leaders are made, not born, the importance of a carefully planned training program cannot be over emphasized."[3] After a thorough analysis of numerous studies done on leadership, Haiman comments that there is a general agreement

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[1]Goodwin Watson, Civilian Morale (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1942), p. 146.

[2]Dwight Sanderson, Leadership for Rural Life (New York: Association Press, 1940), p. 84.

[3]A. A. Liveright, Strategies of Leadership (New York: Harper and Brothers, Publishers, 1959), p. 95.

now among experts in the field that democratic leadership ability can be enhanced by training.[4] The above discussion suggests the apparent necessity of training if the native abilities of potential leaders are to be developed. Training, in general, is an attempt to focus influences on people in order to refashion and improve their conduct in certain specific respects. Training is called for when people are dissatisfied with the quality of their own performance or that of other people in some situations, or as a requirement to meet a new task for which previous training and experience have not equipped them.

Training for leadership aims at changing the performance of prospective leaders. Leadership training essentially is an attempt to stimulate and support leaders' efforts to learn knowledges, attitudes, and skills that will improve the quality of their performance in leadership positions. A leadership training program should be carefully formulated so as to translate into active and visible form the principles of the democratic way of life. A well-formulated leadership training plan should emphasize respect for individuals and for the creative diversity which individuals bring to a group in the way of talent, ideas, and ideals.

> It encourages an experimental attitude toward the identification and solution of common problems. It develops a way of working and of accomplishing mutual tasks which is consistent with commonly recognized aims and goals. It adheres to a

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[4]Franklyn S. Haiman, Group Leadership and Democratic Action (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1951), p. 219.

> belief that consent arrived at through discussion not only is an intelligent way for a group to arrive at its decisions but that such consent establishes a responsible framework within which individuals can function freely and responsibly. These are . . . the basic values of democracy and of leadership training as well.[5]

A. ROLE OF PROFESSIONAL LEADER

In local leadership training, careful consideration should be given in setting the stage for training. One of the first requisites of this is that there be a professional worker assigned to the area. The degree to which the professional leader inspires, discovers, and develops the local leaders decides his success. In other words, the basic function of a professional leader is to act as a stimulator and educator of the group that he is concerned with. If a professional leader happens to be new to a place and group he should make every effort:

1. to appreciate and understand the community and its problems,
2. to identify himself with the community as a whole rather than with any part of it,
3. to gain appreciation, understanding, and acceptance by the community for what he is trying to do.

In performing the roles of an educator and stimulator, a professional leader has also to function as organizer, interpreter, planner, administrator, coordinator, and harmonizer.

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[5]"Democracy Demands it," Adult Leadership, II (June, 1953), p. 26.

Since the professional leader can neither teach groups nor individuals without properly stimulating them to want to change, the roles of stimulator and educator are interdependent. In fact, the real job of the professional leader is to help the people to want to narrow the gap between the situation that exists and what it can and should be. A carefully initiated and conducted program building process is an important means of stimulation. Education is also accomplished through the process of program building. When the professional leader works with representatives and local leaders from all groups and involves them in making decisions for their program, they are more ready to participate. The education of the group, so as to change its attitudes, requires a dynamic group leader who is ready to work with local people.

As an interpreter the professional leader performs an important function of his role as an educator. By understanding his role as interpreter he can understand better his relationship to the local leader. Interpretation involves the proper and correct interpretation of the objectives and policies of the organization. As a representative of the public educational service in the actual situation, he has the responsibility to see that the objectives of the organization are fulfilled. In order to help this, the professional leader has to serve as an interpreter to help the people understand the principles and policies of the organization properly.

A professional leader should carefully avoid the risk of assuming the direct-group leadership-role, which should necessarily be

performed by the group's own leaders. It is realized, of course, that in some areas, and in some instances, the professional may need to assume direct leadership temporarily, when the group is getting started, but it is his primary responsibility to provide opportunity and training for local leadership. Sanderson is of the opinion that there is no

> . . . Reality to the group life which has to be carried on the shoulders of a professional employee. In other words, is not the success of the professional leader measured by the degree to which he can inspire, stimulate, discover, develop and train these primary group leaders?[6]

Lindeman strongly supports this view when he says:

> The community leader's greatest temptation is to "do" things for the community, rather than create means whereby the community may do things for itself. There are two objections to this type of leadership: in the first place, it devitalizes the leader, and, in the second place, it undermines the community. Each time the leader does something for the community that the community might have done for itself, he prevents the community from developing its own resources. This process in time becomes so devitilizing that whole communities appear to be without leadership. The principle is applicable even in cases where the leader's ability is superior to that of the community. . . 1 In a democracy the group must be permitted the right to make its own mistakes. Eventually, this process leads to the proper utilization of specialized leadership.[7]

Another outstanding factor is that, though his role may be considered secondary and he is not a member of the group concerned, the professional leader must be accepted by the people whom he is to lead.

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[6]Sanderson, op. cit., pp. 102-103.

[7]Edward C. Lindeman, The Community (New York: Association Press, 1921), pp. 124-125.

A long list of characteristics which the professional leader should seek to develop could be given. The qualities and characteristics required for a professional leader are almost identical to those required for a lay leader. These have already been described in Chapter II. However, he should have a sense of purpose and direction; respect for persons as individuals and faith in the potentialities of ordinary people.

The basic philosophy which guides the activities of a professional leader very often puts him in conflict situations. Sanderson comments that:

> One of the seeming paradoxes of the position of the professional leader is that, on the one hand, he should bring to his constituents a new and fresh point of view, he should be looking ahead and advocating progressive measures; but if these ideas run contrary to the established mores or conflict with the interests of influential individuals, he may soon lose his standing. On the other hand, if he accepts the existing situation, there will be no progress, and he fails as a real leader.[8]

A practical solution for this paradoxical situation is to adopt a harmonious compromise between the two in which the professional leader recognizes the dangers of either alternative and avoids them by a gradual and steady course of action. In doing this, he has to perform the tedious job of changing the attitudes of the group gradually without diverging from the goals.

Another factor which very often clashes with working with village people is that the professional leader is always after apparent

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[8]Sanderson, op. cit., pp. 105-106.

results. He is usually more responsible to the agency which employs him than to the local people, and his professional advancement is dependent upon the results he can show. In an effort to show results, he manages things himself, and "puts things over" eventhough the majority of his accomplishments may be small and unreal. This is seemingly an undesirable thing which should be avoided.

However, the degree to which a professional leader really fulfills his functions will depend, to a large extent, upon whether he continues to regard himself as the only possible leader for the activities or whether he finds and develops local people to act as leaders of various groups. Evidently, if the latter course is followed, there will be a more consistently stable group life rather than a series of revolutions with every change of professional leaders. If the professional leader is sincere about this attitude, it demands a consistent effort to spend:

> . . . A considerable length of time for the successful development and training of group leaders, for it takes time for even the most gifted professional leader to get the confidence of his constituency and to change long established attitudes of both individuals and groups in such a manner that genuine leadership will be created and established.[9]

Furthermore, to aid in developing more leadership, professional leaders may need to consider the need to create more positions of leadership opportunity and responsibility so that more people can function as leaders. The ever increasing demand for trained local leaders always exists in villages due to the fact that many people leave after they

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[9] Ibid., p. 111.

receive training. This is particularly true with youths who find professional openings elsewhere.

The foregoing discussion on the role of a professional leader strongly points out the important role he has to play in stimulating and developing local leadership by serving in different capacities. And, stimulating and developing local leadership should be essentially for improving ". . . the performance of people now in leadership positions or for the training of those who are preparing to fill leadership posts."[10]

B. CONTROVERSIES ON LEADERSHIP TRAINING

There are two major areas of disagreement on the use of local leaders for adult education.

The first is about the suitability of using lay people to lead discussions which have to do with highly complex subject matter. The discussions led by a local leader may seem to be an "apology" to a professor who has specialized in leading discussions over a long period of time. Specialists are concerned that local leaders will commit blunders when complicated subject matter is being discussed.

Cyril O. Houle makes effective responses to these fundamental issues as follows:

> (1) It is the function of lay leaders to help many people gain a few central concepts; if these concepts are carefully chosen and presented in pamphlets, films, recordings or other media prepared

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[10]"Improving the Process of Leadership Training," Adult Leadership, II (June, 1953), p. 11.

> prepared by specialists, the lay leader can be an indispensable means of reaching large numbers of people. (2) There are not enough specialists to handle the mass job which is required. (3) Even if there were enough experts, there is not an adequate public interest in the lengthy detailed study, . . . whereas, in most fields, a fairly large number of people can be interested in a briefer and more general approach. (4) The role of lay leader is carefully designed so that he acts not as a specialist but as first among equals in the exploration of the work of specialists. . . . (5) A lay leader deals with only normal situations. . . .[11]

According to Houle the other area of controversy centers around the nature of the training provided for local leaders. The principal points of disagreement are:

1. Can leadership training be generalized or must it be specific to each program?
2. Can there be general elements which apply to all programs which can also be supplemented by specific requirements of a particular program?
3. Should leadership training emphasize subject matter or leadership methods?
4. If methods are to be emphasized, should "students" be taught how to perform specific functions, such as discussion, or would it be better to focus on the group process itself?[12]

Though these questions have been debated for a good many years,

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[11]Cyril O. Houle, "The Education of Adult Educational Leaders," in Malcom S. Knowles (ed.), Hand Book of Adult Education in the United States (Chicago: Adult Education Association of the U. S. A., 1960), p. 122.

[12]Ibid.

little agreement has yet been produced on the universal applicability of any authority's point of view. In fact, no solution is universally acceptable. Sanderson generalizes the nature of training to be given by saying that:

> . . . It would be better to give training in specific techniques according to the interests and personal qualifications of the persons involved, and to arouse in them a desire to be useful in the groups in which they associate. . . .[13]

It is now almost generally accepted that training for a facility in leading in any sort of a group under any circumstances is not practicable. It may probably be true that any training that will help the potential leader to think clearly, to be able to analyze a problem objectively, and to have a broad resource of knowledge that will aid in its solution, will place him in an advantageous position to meet any situation in a comparatively successful way. Nevertheless, he will fail miserably without other training and experiences when he is required to meet specific situations which may require more intimate knowledge of what is needed or a closer relationship with the group. The issue committee of the Adult Leadership magazine, June, 1953, after reviewing a number of leadership training programs also came to the conclusion that:

> . . . There is no single pattern of leadership training. . . . Policemen, in improving their leadership, do not need to learn exactly the same things as home demonstration agents do. . . . The variety in what is learned in different projects is partly a healthy adjustment to the variety in the goals and standards of the organizations in which leadership is exercised.

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[13]Sanderson, op. cit., p. 55.

> Canned programs of training for all of these leaders wouldn't work well. Adaptation to specific circumstances is needed.[14]

Liveright has analyzed a number of groups and developed a typology of leadership which can be profitably utilized in adopting appropriate training patterns.[15] He strongly argues that training for leadership should be based on the appropriate leadership style. He recognizes leadership styles on the basis of: the role conception or self image of the leader; the relation between the leader and the group members; and the manner in which materials and methods were used in the program. He analyzes programs in terms of two different factors.

> The first has to do with whether a program is basically concerned with changing attitudes, understandings, or skills. The second factor has to do with whether it is appropriate for the group to have high, intermediate or low group cohesion.[16]

This seems to be more acceptable than other analysis procedures because by this method it is possible to clearly define appropriate leadership styles and to establish programs for them.

C. OBJECTIVES OF TRAINING

Opinions of authors expressed in the preceeding pages of this chapter indicate that objectives of leadership training should vary as to the type of organization and the specific needs or goals of leaders

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[14] "What is Leadership Training?" Adult Leadership, II (June, 1953), p. 30.

[15] Liveright, op. cit., pp. 23-46.

[16] Houle, op. cit., p. 123.

or potential leaders. The training programs vary from mere teaching of skills to an over-all training program.

Taba suggests the following as the objectives of a leader training course:

1. To master fundamental concepts that would serve as a frame-work for understanding and interpreting group behavior, social learning, and cultural differences.
2. To use methods of identifying and analyzing problems--develop the ability to see problems in proper perspective.
3. To develop competence in making use of group processes, such as:
   a. Cooperative thinking
   b. Exchange of ideas, facts and feelings
   c. Analysis of ideas, facts and feelings
   d. Conversion of discussion into concensus
   e. Creation of disposition to conceive group goals
   f. Teaching of respect and appreciation for others.
4. To acquire technical skills necessary to carry on a job including diagnosis of situation to learn how to approach problems, planning of appropriate educational procedures, learning of necessary skills in handling appropriate diagnostic techniques; conducting of open discussion and developing of team work with other leaders.

5. To develop an experienced attitude and acquire the tools and skills necessary for experimentation.[17]

John R. P. French and others find the stated objectives of many previous leadership training programs inadequate. Objectives such as those of imparting information and developing skills, they say, are not adequate to meet all situations. They suggest the addition of two other training objectives: modifying attitudes and creating opportunities for change. They conclude that much loss and inefficiency have been experienced in the training of leaders because of the failure to distinguish the importance of these two latter objectives.[18]

A paper titled "Training Lay Leaders in Other Cultures," prepared by some students at Cornell University, recommends the following as the objectives of a training program.

1. To motivate trainees to serve their nation and community much more effectively.
2. To make trainees capable of serving the specific needs of people in their local areas.
3. To equip the trainees better to persuade people to accept those changes that will give them better ways of living.

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[17]Priscilla Padolina, et al., "Leadership and Leadership Problems" (Ithaca: Cornell University, 1956), p. 13. (Mimeographed.) Citing Hilda Taba, Leadership Training in Intergroup Education (Washington: American Council of Education, 1953).

[18]John R. P. French, Jr., C. H. Lawshe, and Floyd C. Mann, "Training for Effective Leadership," in Planning and Training for Effective Leadership (Cincinnati: Society for the Advancement of Management and the Foundation for Research on Human Behavior, 1955), p. 8.

4. To teach the trainees approved procedures for introducing techniques and methods of cooperation into a community so that the people themselves can more fully mobilize and make optimum use of their existing human and natural resources.

5. To introduce group-centered leadership techniques to provide trainees with:

   a. More motivation to learn

   b. More personal security within the group

   c. Increased efficiency to utilize approved methods in the villages

   d. Increased efficiency in achieving greater participation of the village people.[19]

The issue committee of the Adult Leadership magazine of June, 1953, mentions five important objectives of a leadership training program:

1. To communicate tested ideas and information on the nature of leadership, with particular reference to the settings in which the trainees exercise leadership.

2. To develop appropriate attitudes on the part of leaders toward their task and toward the people whom they lead.

3. To modify existing attitudes toward other people and toward leadership where these get in the way of effective performance.

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[19] Milton Coombs, et al., "Training Lay Leaders in Other Cultures" (Ithaca: Cornell University, 1957), p. 2. (Mimeographed.)

4. To sensitize leaders or prospective leaders to the feelings and attitudes of people, particularly where these feelings and attitudes differ from the leader's own.

5. To teach techniques and developing skills of leadership, particularly as these are required by the standards of democratic management and control.[20]

Tead is of the opinion that it is necessary to include five important elements (objectives) which should be developed by any leadership training program.

> (1) A knowledge of the general characteristics of human nature as these are set forth in general and applied psychology; (2) self-knowledge of one's own unique combination of qualities with their varying degrees of strength and weakness; (3) a working grasp of the right attitude to possess in dealing with people; (4) an ability to apply all of this knowledge to the mobilizing of energy and enthusiasm for the special objectives of the organization; and (5) deliberate efforts at broadening of the total personality in cultural direction.[21]

In whatever form these elements or objectives are expressed, there are few common factors in all these statements. It is apparent from the foregoing statements that the common denominators involved in any training program are human relations, knowledge, and skill. So, it seems to be appropriate at this point to consider the importance of human relations, knowledge, and skill in the training of potential local leaders.

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[20] "What is Leadership Training," op. cit., p. 30.

[21] Ordway Tead, The Art of Leadership (New York: Whittlesey House, 1935), pp. 272-273.

D. HUMAN RELATIONS, KNOWLEDGE, AND SKILL TRAINING AREAS

In a booklet on human relations published by Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, human relations is defined as:

> . . . The art of dealing with people in such a manner that they will want to conduct themselves in a desired fashion. It deals with attitudes and personalities, as well as with the principles of behavior and rules of conduct.[22]

The human relations part of a training program is equally or more important than the mere change in knowledge and skill. This definition gives emphasis to the effect of personality and attitude of a person in maintaining an efficient relationship with people.

A brief discussion of the human behavior, personality, and attitude, which are the main subjects of study in human relations, seems to be feasible at this point. Behavior which is also mentioned in the definition of human relations is considered to be ". . . the resultant of the transaction between the individual, his potentialities and needs of personality, with other structural units, persons, things, events, and symbols in the environment."[23] Since behavior is viewed as the resultant of the needs of personality, a discussion of personality should, then, necessarily include behavior.

Ideas about what constitutes personality vary widely. It means many things to many people. McGuire opines that often times:

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[22] Training Supervisors in Human Relations (New York: Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, 1946), p. 2

[23] Carson McGuire, "Personality," Encyclopedia of Educational Research (3rd ed.), p. 950.

> . . . The descriptions and explanations are in terms of persistent patterns of behavior, attributes and qualities, or conceptions of one's self which differentiate one human being from another and which specify what a person really is. Some prefer to limit their accounts of a person to readily observable behavior; others infer traits and behavioral tendencies from responses to objective-type tests or from samples of behavior; still others, delving more deeply, arrive at characteristic modes of reaction which may differ from one person to another. For this reason, Hall and Lindez hold that personality is defined by concepts, variables, or dimensions selected for the particular theory used by the observer.[24]

The above quotation correctly expresses the different approaches given to defining the term personality. A number of currently proposed definitions for the term will be reviewed and an effort made to construct a workable one.

Dr. Hendry C. Link defines personality as ". . . The extent to which the individual has learned to convert his energies into habits, or actions which successfully influence other people."[25] Emphasis is given here to the phrase "which successfully influence other people." It is true that a well-developed personality greatly increases an individual's ability to influence other people favorably. Alexander Magoun defines personality as ". . .The result of how the elements of human nature are combined by environment and time into the structure of an individual, so that he becomes a unique character."[26]

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[24] Ibid., p. 946.

[25] James S. Knox, Mrs. Alice H. Horner, and Mrs. Ruth Wade Ray, Personality in Action (Illinois: Knox Business Book Company, 1953), p. 2.

[26] F. Alexander Magoun, Balanced Personality (New York: Harper and Brothers, Publishers, 1943), p. 25.

Personality is defined by Allport as ". . . the dynamic organization within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his unique adjustments to his environment."[27] These two definitions focus stress on the ability of a person to adjust to environment. This is logical when viewed from a functional purposeful point of view which is also suitable for this study. Link's emphasis on the capacity to influence other people is also a part of adjusting to the environment.

Lewis A. Dexter stresses the importance of personality and the impression the leader creates on other people for the success of group work.[28] Cox, after a careful study of a large number of the most successful people of the world discovered that an "unusually high development of five personality qualities" is the main root of their success.[29] The personality qualities which Cox mentions include ambition, initiative, perseverance, determination, and passion for knowledge. It is with the remolding or restructuring of the personality that any trainer finds difficulty. The general attitude of a person and his personality are very closely interrelated. Attitude change of a superficial kind can often be accomplished quite easily.

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[27]Gprdon W. Allport, Personality, A Psychological Interpretation (New York: Henry Holt and Company, Inc., 1937), p. 48.

[28]Lewis A. Dexter, "Some Strategic Considerations in Innovating Leadership" in Alvin W. Gouldner (ed.), Studies in Leadership (New York: Harper and Brothers, Publishers, 1950), p. 592.

[29]Knox, et al., op. cit., p. 43.

> But the attitude changes necessary for effective development of leaders usually involve the trainee's basic ideas, values and assumptions about other people and his relation with them. To alter these attitudes, it is necessary to accomplish a major restructuring of the personality.[30]

The basic values, ideas, and assumptions about relations with others are usually located close to the center of the personality. When they are challenged (as in leadership training) a person will try to resist consciously or unconsciously. Resistance to change should be expected in the effort to change leadership behavior. "The problem, then, in leadership training is often one of restructuring the personality by breaking down the barriers to change, introducing new ideas, values and assumptions."[31] These words conclusively indicate the necessity of recognizing the need to one's personality before hoping to induce any sort of change in him.

Many people think that their personalities are so well established before birth that little can be done to change them. This is far from true. The strong belief among psychologists that every personality develops continually from infancy until death encourages us in the trial for its development.[32]

Psychologists are of the opinion that nine out of ten persons suffer regularly from inferiority complexes and that everyone is a

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[30] French, et al., op. cit., pp. 8-9.

[31] Ibid.

[32] Gwenyth R. Vaughn and Charles B. Roth, Effective Personality Building (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1947), pp. 11-12; and Hattie Marie Marsh, Building Your Personality (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1947), p. 3.

victim occasionally. This is found to be particularly true with village people with whom the extension works primarily. Very often, this is found to be the major cause of their non-cooperation and lack of initiative. So the inferiority complex will be discussed here in much more detail than some other admittedly important factors of personality.

The manifestations of inferiority complex are not always obvious. Very often persons with the worst form of the complex may not show it and may not even know that they have an inferiority complex. In order to cover up, they may adopt the opposite attitude and show what is called superiority complex. On the other hand, most persons with inferiority complex not only know it but also show it.

It is not difficult to overcome this complex in the light of today's greater psychological knowledge and a respect for functionality. The most important rule in overcoming such a complex is to distinguish between word and fact. It is the technique of bringing their individual skills and capabilities to the notice of the person or persons concerned. "There is no one, . . . who is totally lacking in achievement or capability that he cannot find something that distinguishes him from others. It is this counselor's technique to bring all these points out."[32] Quite often the list of strengths is more impressive than the list of weaknesses.

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[33] Ibid., p. 43.

The second method consists of tackling "the enemy in his own camp." Some people try to suppress the complex which would again become pronounced one day or other. So, the best way to approach them, is to combat those feelings, meet them in open battle, and overcome them. There are three methods in this technique; namely, compensation, overcompensation, and substitution.

By compensation is meant, to build on a weakness until it becomes a normal strength. The weakness may be mental, emotional, or physical. However, there is no weakness which cannot be turned into a strength if the individual has enough desire to build it. There are many examples where mental complexes were compensated for by persistent effort on the part of the individual. A woman without any children working successfully for the interest of an orphanage is an excellent example of one using emotional compensation. The early physical weakness of a person is compensated, often times, through continued physical exercise.

Overcompensation is achieved by working hard and attaining high superiority in the field in which the person may have been relatively or very weak previously.

Some people, instead of compensating in an effort to gain normal strength or overcompensating to gain abnormal strength, may substitute by diverting attention to some other field. Substitution is probably a very practical way of dealing with majority of the cases of inferiority complexes.

Another factor that influences the nature of personality is the fundamental outlook of the person on life. Almost all people come under either of the two psychological classifications, "extrovert" or "introvert." The best remedy for this is to make adjustments at many different levels. Training in personality development should also try to create courage, confidence, and courtesy in the trainees.

Since attitude and personality are very closely interrelated, a dual consideration of the two seems to be advantageous. Attitudes are considered as real and substantial ingredients in human nature. They are essential for the consistency of any individual's behavior at a given time.

Bogardus considers attitude as ". . . a tendency to act toward or against something in the environment which becomes thereby a positive or negative value."[34] According to Krueger and Reckless, an attitude is a ". . . residuum of experience, by which further activity is conditioned and controlled. . . . We may think of attitudes as acquired tendencies to act in specific ways toward objectives."[35] Allport mentions attitude as ". . . a mental and neural state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual's response to all objects and

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[34]Emory S. Bogardus, Fundamentals of Social Psychology (New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1931), p. 62.

[35]E. T. Krueger and W. C. Reckless, Social Psychology (New York: Longmans, Green, 1931), p. 238.

situations with which it is related."[36] Young's definition agrees with the other three cited above. He says:

> An attitude may be defined as a learned and more or less generalized and effective tendency or predisposition to respond in a rather persistent and characteristic manner, usually positively or negatively (for or against) in reference to some situation, idea, value, material object or class of such objects, or persons or group of persons.[37]

Two common factors can be traced from all these definitions:

1. Attitude is the result of "experience" or "learned" tendency.
2. It is a positive or negative predisposition to react to some situation, idea, value, person or a group of persons.

These two common factors indicate that attitude can be changed through experience or learning to either the positive or negative side. Extension work primarily rests on this idea of the possibility of a learned or manipulated attitude.

Some attitudes are common to all conscious beings because they are based upon similar underlying conditions of inheritance, natural environment, and social influence. Common attitudes are those attitudes ". . . which are essentially uniform owing to the operations of similar environmental and cultural conditions upon similarly constituted

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[36]Gordon W. Allport, "Attitudes" in Carl Murchison (ed.), A Hand Book of Social Psychology (Massachusetts: Clark University Press, 1935), p. 810.

[37]Kimball Young, Social Psychology (New York: F. S. Crofts and Company, Inc., 1945), p. 122.

human beings."[38] For example, the attitudes of farmers show certain common characteristics, such as:

Individualism
Religions and political orthodoxy
Obtuseness to finer distinctions by humor
More or less disregard for the scientific method
Frugality and thrift which sometimes border on parsimony
Emotional intensity with consequent high suggestibility along lines of conventional interest.[39]

But all attitudes are not common attitudes. If it were so, it would have been possible to construct ultimate social laws. It is both the common and individual attitudes viewed together which necessitates a carefully formulated training program.

There are four generally accepted conditions necessary for the formation and development of attitudes.[40] They are:

1. Accretion of experience. It is not an isolated experience which develops attitude, but a fusion or in Burnham's terms a ". . . residuum, perhaps, of many repeated processes of sensation, perception, and feeling. . . ."[41]

2. Presence of a raw, or vague, or non-specific form of attitude already existing in every human being "in the rough" so to speak. From this crude product one must

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[38] G. W. Allport, The Nature of Personality (Cambridge: Addison-Wesley Press, Inc., 1950), p. 29.

[39] Ibid., p. 30.

[40] Ibid., p. 13.

[41] W. H. Burnham, The Normal Mind (New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., 1924), p. 285.

refine or shape action patterns and conceptual systems which will in turn supply him with adequate attitudes for the direction of his adaptive conduct. The work of a trainer should also be based on cognizance of this fact.

3. A permanent attitude is formed as a result of a compulsive organization in the mental field following a single intense emotional experience. "Even in old age radical changes of attitude through circumstances of dramatic movement are not unknown."[42] Any incident which is capable of producing an emotional experience will have its tremendous effect of changing attitude. So, a favorable attitude toward an improved method can be created when the person concerned has reached a teachable moment through sufficient insight or experience in the matter.

4. Imitation of some person who has favorable influence on the person. Even before he has developed an adequate background of experience he follows the attitudes of the "hero."

The four conditions stated above, if appropriately employed, can be profitably utilized for creating favorable situations to effect a change in the attitude of a person or persons.

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[42]Young, op. cit., p. 14.

Aside from a discussion of attitude and personality separately, it should be relevant at this point to discuss human relations as a cummulative product of personality, behavior, and attitude.

1. Human Relations

Good will and common sense were considered as the only factors required of a leader in human relations. This belief does not take into consideration the growing complexity of interpersonal, intergroup, and interorganizational relations. Considering these factors, the objectives of the human relations phase of a leader training program should be:

a. to create an awareness of a need for change in one's own behavior.

Most people are so insulated from others by their insensitivity, their habits of relationship, and their tendency to rationalize their own behavior, that they do not consider seriously the possibility of changing their behavior or see any advantage in doing so. It is, therefore, essential for the trainee to become aware of the consequences of his behavior for others. This creates a possibility for self-evaluation and provides a motivation toward change.

b. to increase a sensitivity to the needs of others in human relations situations.

The person who is effective in human relations must be sensitive to the behavior of others and can respond to the ". . . subtle

cues which reflect another's attitudes, motives, needs."[43] One needs the ability to perceive what is happening in human relations in time to do something about it.

c. to increase the effective ability to correctly diagnose human relations situations.

It is not enough to become sensitive to the behavior of others, but it is also essential to analyze their behavior, to make some guesses as to why they behave in a particular way, and then decide what action might be required.

d. to provide opportunities to practice certain necessary human relations skills.

The skills required to act effectively following correct diagnosis are complex. Though to some extent these skills can be taught, it is essential that these skills rest upon sound bases of motivation and practice.

e. to effect a desirable change in attitudes where necessary.

The above objectives are governed by a:

> . . . Basic change in the attitude of the trainee regarding himself and his relations to others. These attitude changes may be great or small, and may be different for different trainees. Typically, the trainee must come to the point of being candid in appraising his own behavior and must develop an attitude of objectivity in assessing relations between himself and others. An objective of the training is to allow the trainee to test the objectivity of his attitudes by exposing

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[43] Training in Human Relations, Report of a seminar conducted by the Foundation for Research on Human Behavior (Michigan and New York, 1954), p. 15.

them to the candid appraisal of others, and by testing their effect on a "safe" situation.[44]

f. to provide theoretical and research knowledge as a basis for sensitivity and action skills.

g. to relate the learnings of the training to one's own local situation.

Since a leader-in-training when he returns to his real life job situation will be a part of the group he leads, he will be required to include a diagnosis of his own actions and their effect on the group as well as of the actions of others. Therefore, each training experience should provide every trainee with the opportunity to participate actively in various types of interactive experience, and simultaneously, or almost immediately, give him the chance to analyze the consequences of his interaction behavior and to become diagnostic about the situation of which he is a part in real life. Moreover, the learning experiences organized into a training plan should help make the trainees capable of diagnosing the causes of particular behavior in other persons and of tackling them skillfully. Leaders do not achieve anything from training unless they develop the ability to diagnose the leadership requirements of given practical situations. Practice is required to develop diagnostic ability. Practice is also necessary if a leader is to develop appropriate skills and techniques for remedying weaknesses disclosed by proper diagnosis.

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[44] Ibid., p. 16.

Human relations, as a phase of leader training, should be treated differently from other phases because of its complexity of particular content, its emotional loading, and the obstacles imposed by a trainee's established habits in dealing with others. This complex set of emotions, habits, attitudes, and behavior tends to become fixed. And, therefore:

> . . . It is very difficult to change, because a small change in any part has implications for all other parts. Thus we tend to protect our established patterns of interpersonal relations and to reject ideas which threaten to alter them.[45]

This tendency to protect the established patterns of interpersonal relations stands in the way of effective training.

2. Knowledge

Knowledge is the second broad phase of training required for both potential and present leaders. It is important that for any particular type of leadership one have a thorough knowledge of the fundamental facts necessary to advance interests of the particular group. As educator and interpreter which are two of the important functions of leadership, a local leader requires knowledge superior to most of the followers in the group. Thorough knowledge of the subject matter, whatever it may be, is prerequisite to the preferred type of leadership.

There are instances where people with superficial knowledge of the subject matter have maintained their positions of leadership.

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[45] Ibid., p. 14

This is possibly due to their superior knowledge of interpersonal relationships. Of course, a knowledge of the psychology and sociology of human relationship is essential for a leader. But along with this a knowledge of necessary subject matter and procedures to follow is also required if the leadership position is to be maintained.

3. Skills

It is not enough to have knowledge alone. It is equally important to know how to make use of such knowledge profitably. When skill is involved in any activity of the group, the leader must have a reasonable ability to perform the specific skills involved. In many groups the leader is chosen primarily for his skill to perform his activities. This doesn't mean that the skilled person is always selected as the leader.

Though the learning process can be materially facilitated by competent instruction, skill must be learned through practice and experience. Leadership skill is based both on knowledge and experience, but, then too, it requires ability to think quickly and effectively.

4. Thinking Power

It is oftentimes said that a person who knows only how to carry out a given job skillfully will be a follower and a person who knows why it is done will be a leader. So, one purpose of leadership training should be to better equip the individual to

know the "whys" for leading one way instead of another. In other words the underlying ideas, attitudes, and values behind a specific skill or technique should be made known to leaders so as to guide their intelligent use and adoption. This requires that a leader have the ability to think more objectively than his followers. One way of improving the ability to think critically is by means of program planning conferences thereby allowing the leader to make an analysis of a situation or a series of events that will help him to gain a better insight into the factors involved and thus lead to new methods of dealing with them.

The four training phases discussed above will form the framework on which a suggested training program will be constructed.

E. PRINCIPLES GOVERNING THE ORGANIZATION AND SELECTION OF SUBJECT MATTER FOR TRAINING LOCAL LEADERS

1. The subject matter selected should create an awareness of a need for change among the trainees.
2. It should increase a sensitivity to the needs of others in human relations situations.
3. It should increase the ability to correctly diagnose human relations situations.
4. It should provide opportunities to practice the skills.
5. It should be able to effect a desirable change in attitudes.
6. It should provide theoretical and research knowledge as a basis for sensitivity and action skills.

7. The things to be learned should be organized into a sequence that will have unity and coherence.
8. There should be effective repetition of the subject matter without variation of the act.
9. The skill learning should not be started until the "knowledge learning" is perfected.
10. Skill training should be based on examples.
11. New skill should be based on a properly developed prior skill.
12. Subject matter should relate to the backgrounds of trainees; provide activities in context, as they will be used, and show relationships among various subjects and concepts.
13. The subject matter presented should be factual.
14. The subject matter selected should initiate and develop constructive thinking ability.

F. A SUGGESTED METHOD FOR LEADERSHIP TRAINING

It seems appropriate at this point to suggest a method of training which would include all the four phases discussed above.

After a careful study of leadership styles Liveright lists discussion, buzz sessions, role playing, field visits, demonstrations, practice sessions, group observations, rotation of leadership, audio-visual aids, interviews with experts, outside reading, field work and projects, games, social activities, and planning committees as most

suitable methods for the training of group-oriented leadership group.[46] No one of these methods alone has thus far been proved to insure attainment of the goal of effective leadership development. Nevertheless, leadership training centered around role playing, actually a combination of other teaching methods, has been shown to be of sufficient value to merit primary consideration as a core for a valid approach to be developed for such training.

Many authors believe that a major obstacle which must be overcome in leadership training is resistance to change.[47] The generally decisive factors influencing the acceptance or rejection of new ideas are the attitudes, personalities, and behaviors of individuals. These factors in interaction are the constituents of human relations. Thus training in human relations forms an important part of training for leadership. Since research indicates that role playing promotes one of the most effective ways for training people in human relations it will be considered as the central method in the training plan developed in this study, with other methods complementing and supplementing it. The cumulative application will be much more effective than anyone of them alone. One major advantage, then, of role playing is that many methods of leadership training can be incorporated with

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[46] Liveright, op. cit., pp. 110-113.

[47] John R. P. French, et al., op. cit., pp. 8-9; Richard Franklin, "Training Community Leaders in Southern Illinois," Community Development, No. III (Summer, 1959), p. 140; and H. G. Barnett, Innovation (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1953), pp. 313-320.

it to provide an altogether meaningful learning experience. This fact is made clearer in the suggested plan which is presented in the Appendix.

Advantages of Role Playing

1. Though the so-called role playing method is used primarily for training in human relations, it can also be used to train people in knowledge and skill. In a role playing situation, unless the trainee has an adequate knowledge of the subject matter, the skill to utilize the knowledge and the ability to effectively think, through application of the knowledge and skill, he will not usually attain any degree of success in his performance. Furthermore, the discussion following every role playing experience facilitates development of thinking power, or the ability to think.

2. It provides opportunities for much more active participation by group members than do most other educational methods. In discussing the advantages of role playing Grace Levit says role playing:

> . . . Can bring out data about human behavior and human relations which are not made available by more traditional methods. Written records or lectures may give a group useful data and may stretch the boundaries of the group's previous experience, but the data they bring is limited by the fact that it must always be presented to the group through the medium of words. They cannot provide the group with direct common experience of what is being talked about. Role playing, so to speak, caters to the whole person of the learner. He not only hears about a problem or tells about it; he lives through it by acting it out--he experiences it emotionally and then uses this

> experience to produce and test insights into the problem and generalizations about ways of dealing with it.[48]

Through continuous practice one can develop new skills for dealing with different problems. Furthermore, this method allows groups to get case material which ". . . can be tailored readily to fit the specific needs and situation of the particular group that is going to use it."[49]

3. Another advantage of role playing is that it allows many attitudes and feelings that fundamentally affect group process, which are normally neglected, to be brought before the group for review. Thus, many of the casual and dynamic factors in group processes and human relations that are commonly ignored, can be illustrated by role playing.

4. Because it is a way of presenting problems, particularly human relations problems:

> . . . In the context of a classroom, training group, or social laboratory, group members can experiment with their behavior, make mistakes and try new skills without chancing the hurts that experimentation in real-life situations may involve.[50]

In this environment the trainee is in a better position to try out new behavior in the presence of co-trainees. Furthermore every one understands that:

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[48]Grace Levit and Helen Hall Jennings, "Learning Through Role Playing," Adult Leadership, Vol. II (October, 1953), p. 10.

[49]Ibid.

[50]Malcom S. Knowles, Informal Adult Education (New York: Association Press, 1950), p. 80.

> . . . The person who is playing a role is not being himself but is representing a hypothetical character. It is possible, therefore, for the entire group, including the role player, to discuss his attitudes and actions without threatening anyone's self-respect or status in the group. Such emotionally charged feelings as prejudice, arrogance, shyness, hostility and many others can be freely and frankly discussed.[51]

5. As mentioned earlier, perhaps the most important advantage of role playing is that many methods of leadership training can be incorporated.

The terms psychodrama, sociodrama, and role playing are very closely related and almost synonymous. Very often the terms sociodrama and role playing are used synonymously. But the term role playing seems to be more acceptable for this study because it is more commonly used than the term sociodrama.

Role playing is a comparatively new technique in which people spontaneously act out problems of different aspects of training and analyze the enactment with the help of other role players and observers.

The presence of a leader-director, like every other dramatic presentation, is a prerequisite for role playing. The director or some other member who is already familiar with the role playing procedure may be the leader of the group. A director of role playing is mainly concerned with helping the actors to be spontaneous in presenting the characters they are portraying and in helping the audience

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[51] Malcom S. Knowles, Informal Adult Education (New York: Association Press, 1950), p. 80.

observers to analyze the situation and behaviors presented in the role playing in order to increase their insights into problems and their effective knowledge of how to deal with them.

The steps in role playing process are: (It will be desirable to observe a real situation before a role play.)

1. Defining the problem. Role playing should be focused on a problem that is meaningful and important to the whole group. It is most productive when the need for it arises spontaneously in the group.

2. Establishing a situation. Some of the ways by which situations are designed are:

a. A sub-committee can plan the situation and bring to the group.

b. The whole group can develop a situation.

c. Somebody can suggest an actual case which illustrates the problem.

If skill training or understanding or insight is aimed, the design must include an opportunity to try and test it.

The situation must provide enough content to make it seem real and to give players and observers a common orientation, but should avoid the kind of complexity that will take the group's attention off the problem.

3. Casting the characters. The whole group or few members may take the responsibility of defining and casting characters. The kind of characters selected should have meaning to the group and should

contribute to the group's understanding of the problem. If the director or planners are not well acquainted with the group members, and do not know how they would feel about taking roles in the play, it is probably wiser to ask for volunteers or suggestions from the members during the meeting than to assign parts in advance.

Regardless of what method is used for role assignment, no one should be asked to take a role unless he is definitely willing to do so. When dealing with beginners at role playing, it may be wise to start them in roles in which they feel at home and confident. Since spontaneity is an important element in role playing, over preparation of the players should be avoided.

4. Briefing and warming up actors and observers. Every effort should be made to see that the briefing or warm-up process is not done to structure what the actors are going to say or do in the action.

5. Acting. One of the most important responsibilities of the director is to see that everyone moves into the role play at appropriate times and represents the character both in his talks and actions. The mood of the play can be destroyed if one of the actors begins to talk as himself rather than as the character he is portraying after the action has started.

6. Knowing when to stop. The role play should be cut when:

a. Enough behavior has been exhibited that the group can analyze the problem it set for itself.

b. The group can guess what would happen if the action were continued.

c. The players have reached an impasse because they have somehow been miscast or misbriefed.

d. Natural closing, though very uncommon.

7. Analyzing the situation and behavior of actors and observers. When the scene is stopped observers will have considerable data to discuss in small groups. The director should take special care to see that the discussion relates back to the original problem under study. The discussion should be focused on what the play can contribute to their understanding of the problem they were trying to solve. The observers should try to bring into the discussion data about what they saw, not the opinions about what should or should not have been done.

8. Deriving generalizations and planning for re-practice. Role playing for training purposes should help the group to make recommendations about how to improve group practice as well as to reach generalizations about group process and behavior that are applicable in many situations.

9. Internalizing new insights through re-practice. Re-practice may be done by:

a. The same or different players going over the same scene, but making the changes recommended in the discussion.

b. The same or different players may try to play out a

probable scene following the one just acted out, illustrating how the recommendations might change the consequences.[52]

G. ORGANIZING FOR A LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM

The first step in organizing a training program is to organize the administration of leadership training under a competent director, or leader or supervisor. The quality of the direction decides the vitality of the training plan. The person who is chosen for this post should be one who will command the respect and admiration of the entire group. This does not mean that there should be a formal director, but somebody should be responsible for the whole program. An effective administrative setup demands assignment of specific jobs.

The next step concerns with the careful selection of potential leaders who are prospective trainers of the program. The principles and methods suggested for the selection of potential leaders in the last chapter should be of use in this process.

An audit of the content for which training is required should be developed and used. Training may be focused every year on different aspects of leadership. The content of training should be determined every time according to the needs of the trainees.

The structure and size of the group should be decided on the basis of the convenience, resources, and objectives of the training.

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[52]Levit, op. cit., pp. 11-16.

The objectives of training impose limits on group size. If the objectives demand active participation of the trainees the number of people in a group should be limited so as to facilitate face-to-face talking. On the other hand, if a training is designed to pass along some information, a large group will be sufficient as well as economical.

Again, the objectives of the group largely decide the structure of the group. Age, sex, educational background and social status are some of the areas where dimensions of difference are seen among prospective trainees. A training group for principles of livestock feeding might be heterogenous as to age, but homogenous in type of farming. In general, it may be said that it is necessary that the structure of the group be of that type which permits the group to accomplish its training objectives.

An appraisal of each trainee by observation not only provides some rationale for fitting the trainee into a situation in which he will function effectively, but also provides the basis for an individual leadership training program. This also provides with an idea of the area in which the trainee requires help.

Provision for frequent face-to-face meeting of the professional leader with leader-in-training helps to review and evaluate the experiences of the trainee. This should not be simply a superficial exploration ". . . but fundamental probing of the requirements

for a group movement and the role of the leader in light of these requirements."[53]

Perhaps the most important aspects of the organization of a training program lie in the proper organization of learning experiences and situations which would help the trainees to get sufficient insight in human relationship, knowledge, skill, and thinking ability. This is a very prominent area where competent organizational capacity is required.

Careful organization in the areas described above is the minimum that is required for an effective conduct of the training program. There are other minor details that are not mentioned here, but which also require attention from the organizers.

H. THE PROCESS OF LEADERSHIP TRAINING

There is a definite set of phases that go on in any plan for a complete training of leaders. Three phases under which leadership training fall are generally distinguished as:

1. Getting ready to change,
2. Making the change, and
3. Transferring changes to the back-home or job situation.

The issue committee of Adult Leadership explains these three phases through the outline which is reproduced here because of its definiteness in the developments of a forward-looking leader training program.

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[53] Murray G. Ross and Charles E. Hendry, New Understandings of Leadership (New York: Association Press, 1957), p. 144.

PHASE I—GETTING READY TO CHANGE

Process	What the Training-Leader Can Do To Help	What the Leaders-in-Training Can Do To Help
1. Develop an atmosphere in which people feel free to discuss and express their problems of leading, their needs to change, their feelings of difficulty, the places where they need help.	Listen sympathetically to the ideas, suggestions, and feelings of all members. Play down status distinctions among members and between leader and members. Assume all members have a part to play in defining the aims of training. Try to make participation easy for every member.	Set an example of voluntary honest expression of feelings and difficulties. Listen to others and help them express their ideas and feelings. Avoid encouraging status distinctions among members and between leader and members.
2. Develop a sense of shared interests and problems and a climate of mutual respect and understanding among members in which each is willing to help and be helped by the others.	Help all members to understand and appreciate the contributions of each. Offer opportunities for every member to help and be helped by other members (organize sub-groups, etc.). Encourage group activities outside of training (meals, social events, etc.). Try to show common elements in the leadership experience and problems of different members. Stress that the training goals are the members', not the leader's.	Try to look at every other member as a potential source of help. Try to understand other members' problems of leading. Try to help other members where you can. Try to react to others as individuals, not as types. Take part in the whole program, including outside activities. Look for common elements in own and other's experiences.
3. Develop an expectation that all leaders-in-training (and the training-leader too) will change during their experience together.	Tell about other successful projects in leadership training. Assume that change is possible and desirable for every member. Accept members' fears of change as natural.	Try to accept the possibility of change. Try to see that change is not a sign of weakness. Try to be honest about own and others' fears of changing.

Process	What the Training-Leader Can Do To Help	What the Leaders-in-Training Can Do To Help
	Encourage members to share in planning. Try to set realistic limits to what members expect to learn from their experience. Suggest relatively easy first steps to insure a success experience.	Define the change desired. Explore how this training can help in making the change.
4. Adapt the training program to meet the needs and interests of all members in this particular group.	Build training agenda out of the expressed needs, interests and problems of members. Encourage members to test ideas expressed in terms of their own experience. Use examples of leadership situations similar to those of members. Set up a steering committee in which members can take part in determining what to do next. Give members an opportunity to react anonymously to each training session and suggest improvements.	Test ideas and plans against own feeling of need. Be honest in evaluating whether sessions fit individual need. Encourage others to challenge a suggested plan even when you thought it up. Examine training agenda in terms of leadership situations in which training will be used.
5. Develop a problem-solving orientation toward difficulties of leadership.	Encourage members to state and look at their problems objectively. Avoid identifying problems with persons. Encourage group to identify common elements in their individual problems. Encourage group to analyze and define their problems. Discourage members from looking for ready-made and over-simple answers. Assume that group can fully test ideas expressed only as they try them out and evaluate the results.	Try not to look for ready-made answers from the training-leader or others. Look for alternative solutions. Be willing to try out something new to you even though you may not accept it finally. Help evaluate results of what you try out.

PHASE II--MAKING THE CHANGE

Process	What the Training-Leader Can Do To Help	What the Leaders-in-Training Can Do To Help
6. Clarify the training goals--what members hope to accomplish through study, discussion and practice.	Involve members in defining goals. Try to be sensitive to feelings of confusion and to help group clarify confusions. Encourage expectation that goals will change as the training experience develops. Discourage efforts to freeze goals at the beginning of training.	Ask questions about goals. Try to accept the changing of goals, when there are good reasons to change them.
7. Understand why leaders-in-training have been performing as they have been. The factors that make them want to change and those that make it hard for them to change. A. Understand "internal" forces for and against change. B. Understand "external" forces for and against change.	Help members answer: How have we been performing as leaders? Why do we want to change? What keeps us from changing? How can we change? Discuss usual psychological resistances and supports to change. Discuss usual institutional or organizational factors for and against change. Discuss community resistances and supports operating in the typical leadership situation. Help members apply psychological, institutional and community understandings to their own leadership situations. Use your own behavior as training-leader as an example for discussion and analysis of leadership problems. Ask for periodic group evaluations of group and member experiences.	Describe your own experiences as leader as objectively as possible. Analyze normal resistances and supports to change. Furnish data for analyzing your own situation. Help recognize and analyze your experience in the training group as evidence about your leadership problems. Make more specific the things you want to learn here and now. Relate training to the outside situations you will actually use it in.

Process	What the Training-Leader Can Do To Help	What the Leaders-in-Training Can Do To Help
8. Modify forces that will permit leaders-in-training to perform in an improved manner. A. Decide what changes we can make here and now. B. Plan what changes need to be made back home.	Help members pick out relevant psychological, institutional and community factors that can be modified most easily. Help members select things that can be worked on in the training sessions and those that will have to be modified later. Help members to determine a sequence of changed practice that will cause least disruption in their home settings.	Identify the forces affecting your leadership that can be worked on here and now. Identify the important forces in operation back home on the job. Plan strategies needed to carry out desired changes back home.
9. Acquire and practice new skills which analysis of the leadership situation shows are most needed.	Set up opportunities, through role playing, for practice. Provide for practice in a setting where initial failure or imperfect performance is not too disturbing. Encourage helpful criticism by group of each member's practice attempts. Help group plan collection of data for evaluating practice experiments (use member observers, etc.).	Try out new skills during training. Experiment with different forms of leader and member behavior. Practice observing and evaluating others' performance.

Process	What the Training-Leader Can Do To Help	What the Leaders-in-Training Can Do To Help
PHASE III—TRANSFERRING CHANGES TO THE BACK-HOME OR JOB SITUATION		
10. Relate training to the actual situations in which the members will use it.	Use situations for training that seem real to the members. Help members generalize principles from their training experiences. Encourage testing of principles developed in training against the realities of the home leadership situations of members.	Help group develop practice situations similar to those in which you actually have to function as a leader. Spot resistances as well as supports in your organization and community to new ideas suggested. Try to generalize principles out of your training experience rather than to look for gadgets and rules of thumb to take home. Plan ways of applying your learnings and get criticism of your plans by others.
11. Provide continued reenforcement and help in applying what has been learned in training to the job situation.	Encourage members to continue working as teams after training to help each other on leadership problems as they come up. Help members plan ways of getting support for improved practices in their parent organizations. Help members locate consultant resources available in their communities.	Agree to work with each other in teams or pairs after the training, in dealing with leadership problems. Make arrangements for consulting with others who have similar problems. Define your needs for continued supervision and

Process	What the Training-Leader Can Do To Help	What the Leaders-in-Training Can Do To Help
	Plan with members concerning their needs for further consultation and supervision.	help on the job. Plan use of libraries and other available resources for continued training.[54]

[54] "What To Do in Leadership Training," op. cit., pp. 12-13.

The above outline emphasizes a training group in which other leaders-in-training as well as the trainer leader help each member to improve performance. These processes are going on one way or another in every leadership training situation. Even if different training programs look apparently different these processes are going on, wherever effective training is being accomplished. The task of the training leader is to identify these processes in his situation to get maximum effectiveness for the training.

I. CRUCIAL CONDITIONS DETERMINING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF TRAINING PROCESS

Though our knowledge in the social sciences is relatively limited, conclusive evidences have been obtained regarding a relatively few conditions which are considered to be crucial in determining the effectiveness of training processes. The improvement of leadership training requires the creation and maintenance of these conditions in all phases of leadership training.

1. The Importance of the Training Group

Experiences and research in changing various habits of people show that it is usually more efficient and more convenient to train people in groups than as individuals. It is also easier to change individuals when they are bonafide members of a group than it is to change any one of them individually apart from the group. Results of research in psychology, sociology, and anthropology indicate that groups exert tremendous influence upon individual members to conform

to the group's ideas and ideals. "Socialization," which is one of the six teaching principles propounded by Mursell is based on this idea.[55]

Though there is oftentimes a resistance to change among trainees, if people in training can develop a group of their own in which ideas are openly expressed and experimentation with new patterns comes to be the new norm, the influence of the group on the individual would naturally tend to support change. Members should consider their membership in the group to be of value. This is a prerequisite to cooperative action to be accomplished by the group. Building a training group is thus a crucial condition for or prerequisite to effective training.

2. The Group as an Aid to Communication

Another condition for effective training is to have effective communication between the trainees and trainers in the process of training. Semantic difficulties, social psychological blocks, and differences in interests are a few of the important barriers which sometimes prevent effective communication in a training group.

Providing face-to-face communication seems to be the best way to encourage people to surmount communication barriers of differential status, power, and interest, and to help them work through these differences to mutual understanding and agreement.

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[55] James L. Mursell, Successful Teaching (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1954), pp. 141-151.

3. The Group as a Practice Laboratory

One of the generally accepted principles of learning is that people must have opportunities to practice new ways of behaving. There are two important conditions which are required to be fulfilled before a learner can practice the new behavior. They are:

a. The learner must be free to try something new.

b. The learner must be able to observe and understand the effects which his behavior achieves.

4. Individual Involvement Is Essential

The trainee's relations to the process of training are also crucial. The most important among these relations is the ego involvement of the trainee in the training program. Ego-involvement means, ". . . commitment on the part of the trainee to changes in his attitudes, knowledge and conduct which endure after the training as such is completed."[56] The needs and goals of the individual should become so interrelated with the training experience that he sees the training as a way of satisfying these needs and achieving of these goals. Certain psychological requirements need to be met for ego-involvement on the part of the trainee. The most important of these requirements are:

1. The goals of the training must be based upon the needs of those being trained.

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[56]"If People Want to Change," Adult Leadership, Vol. II (June, 1953), p. 7.

2. The connection between training goals and his needs as he perceives them must be seen by the trainer.

3. The training content--problems, issues, information, skills--must be seen by the trainee as in some sense applicable to his on-the-job situation.

4. Trainees must be encouraged to assess the effects of changing their behavior, both here and now and on the job after the training. They must be encouraged to assess realistically the obstacles to changing their behavior when they get back on the job.

5. The training experience must open up for trainees possible channels of applying what they have learned, of acting differently in the real world as a result of new ways discovered and tried out in the training world.[57]

5. Active Participation by the Trainees

"Learning is an active process on the part of the learner." This is another principle of learning which is applicable to leader training. The trainee must think problems through for himself without relying on teachers and fellow "students." Trainees must share in planning, in carrying out and in evaluating the training program. Participation by trainees is required, also, during the discussion of problems. This will help them to gain experience in all stages of problem identification and solving. Consequently they should be better prepared to function more independently and responsibly when training is over.

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[57] Ibid., p. 8.

6. Building Security in Training

Whenever the trainees are called upon to make changes in their ideas, understandings, and ways of doing things, they often feel a certain amount of insecurity. It is one of the crucial conditions to reduce feelings of insecurity to a minimum. This can be done partly by building a training group in which each individual belongs and wants to belong, and partly by getting all individuals to participate in determining what problems are to be dealt with in training and at what rate. Moreover a trainee who is offered something better to put in the place of the old attitude, idea, or skill is likely to feel more secure as a result of his new training. The feeling of security is particularly strong when he can practice a new way before trying it out in the real situation.

Even though emphasis is on trainee responsibility in a training program, the trainer also has an important part to play. He must be dedicated to the development of maximum learning on the part of every individual in the group. He must be capable of helping each individual become involved in defining and working out his own problems, and in helping trainees to participate actively in the life of the training group. In short, the trainer should utilize the methods of scientific problem solving and democratic cooperation.

The above discussed conditions are of paramount importance for the conduct of an effective training program which aims at its improvement in the effectiveness.

J. PROBLEMS OF TRAINING

Richard Franklin, in discussing the training of community leaders, points out, apart from the individual short comings of the trainers, the following obstacles to better training.

1. Community leaders feel no need for training. Even those who attend training may have come through the urging of a friend. In other words, they don't recognize the need for a change.
2. Local leaders don't realize the need for continued training. Furthermore they want any training given to be easy and to have immediate effects.
3. There is a tendency for many people to give time and attention to "things," rather than to "people," to "projects" instead of "processes."
4. The anti-democratic values held knowingly or unknowingly by many trainees must be overcome. They want to "follow old paths" and prefer to be passive or conservative toward any new ideas. They may consider trainers as authorities who should tell everyone what to do and how to do it.
5. This "authoritarian-dependency" trait of the trainees poses another important problem. When trainers are too "directive" trainees may submit passively. When trainers are "non-directive" in their approach, withdrawal of trainees may result.[58]

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[58]Franklin, op. cit., pp. 142-144.

A committee of students at Cornell University, after studying the problems in leadership training, stated that:

> . . . A problem for both professional and lay leaders is to keep an open mind to accept and study new ideas and methods. The process of acceptance varies with the kind of idea offered. Fitting the new idea into the cultural situation is necessary. A desire for change must be developed in order to get acceptance.[59]

A common denominator in any list of obstacles to overcome in a training program is apparently the problem of resistance to change by trainees and, truly enough, it appears to be almost universally accepted that resistance to change is the major problem in the area of training for leadership. Though the vast area of overcoming resistance to change is beyond the scope of this study, a brief discussion of the various factors determining the acceptance or rejection of a new idea seems to be in order at this point.

It is generally agreed that certain conditions govern acceptance of new ideas including the advocacy of new ideas and the characteristics of the new idea itself.

Acceptance and rejection of a practice or innovation seems to be concerned with the characteristics of situations, persons, and things, and with the process by which acceptance and rejection takes place. Innovations require an advocate of some description if they are to make any strong social impression. Another factor which governs the acceptance of new ideas is the personal and social characteristics of its advocate. Though, oftentimes prestige and popularity of the

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[59] Leadership and Leadership Problems, A report prepared by a committee of students (Ithaca: Cornell University, 1956), p. 17.

advocate are considered as decisive factors in the acceptance or rejection of ideas, a little analysis will, on occasion, reveal that this is not true.[60] But the personality of the advocate and his relations with others play important parts in promoting or blocking the acceptance of the novelty which he supports. A suggestion made by a person whose manner, bearing, or attitude creates antagonism is likely to be rejected by most people irrespective of the merits of the proposal. On the other hand, an appealing personality is an important, positive factor in securing the acceptance of an idea, whether new or old. The merits of the new idea do not usually enter into the decision to adopt or to reject it when it is proposed by a relative stranger. But a recommendation coming from a friend with a wide range of interpersonal relations will more easily be accepted. The support of a majority is an asset to an advocate. Though the numerical strength of supporters does not matter much, support is adequate if the supporters give the impression that they are or must inevitably become the majority. However, the greater the number of supporters of the new idea the more compelling will be the demand that many people who waver between accepting and rejecting it make a favorable commitment.

The sponsorship of a new idea is only one component of the acceptance situation. Though it is a critical factor in influencing others, the precise nature of the change is also important to a

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[60] H. G. Barnett, op. cit., pp. 313-320.

potential acceptor. Compatibility, meaning, incongruence, independence, and structuralization are the important characteristics of a new idea, having positive influence on the adoption or rejection of it. These characteristics, which emphasize agreement between old and new idea characteristics, is not the only requirement for the acceptance of a new idea. There must be something by which to judge both the new idea and the custom, not in terms of their agreement, but in terms of their desirability. In essence:

> . . . The whole of a novelty and the whole of the custom which gives it meaning must have a place in a more inclusive value system, and novelty concordance or the lack of it provides a basis for making the evaluation.[61]

Another set of conditions is that related to the problem of individual variability in response to the presentation of new ideas. The problem receiving greater attention in this area is why a new thought appeals more to one person than to another, other conditions remaining constant. No one is wholly or persistently an acceptor or a rejector. Though, characterization of acceptors places emphasis upon discontent, it does not mean that only those individuals with a background of estrangement will accept new ideas. But there are sufficient indications to believe that individuals are preeminently and predominantly susceptible to suggestions of change involving the elements toward which they have a detached or alienated attitude. Although it is true that the satisfied must also become dissatisfied with what they have before accepting an alternative, their discontent

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[61] Ibid., p. 357.

follows the advent of new ideas. Their acceptance is therefore due not to a predisposition but to a new idea or advocate characteristics.

While people who are reluctant to accept new ideas may refuse to even consider the new ideas concerned, those who are indifferent to the idea, those who will not be affected by it, and those who for some reason are resentful may be more readily susceptible to new ideas.

However, it is necessary to take into consideration all the three components (advocate, new idea, and acceptor and rejector) of the acceptance situation for there to be an understanding of any individual's reaction to a new idea. No one of these components can be treated as independent. In fact, all three are intimately conjoined and are mutually influential. Variables of all three are present in any concrete instance, and from one individual instance to another they have different potentials for influencing acceptance or rejection of new ideas.

The foregoing discussion on the problem of resistance to change suggests the complexity of the problem and demands top priority in handling such obstacles standing in the way of the success of an effective training program.

K. AN OVERVIEW OF THE IMPORTANT PRINCIPLES AFFECTING THE TRAINING METHODS AS DISCUSSED IN THIS CHAPTER

1. A climate conducive to participation of trainees should be created. The appropriateness of the physical arrangement should also be considered.

2. The program should be based on the needs of the participants. More will be accomplished in leadership training by emphasizing real projects of vital interest to the trainees.

3. Training in an on-the-job situation risks the trainee's prestige and standing in the community. On the other hand, training provided in an atmosphere created as near to the real working situation as possible allows a practice setting in which people can make mistakes, or even fail, without risking their position. In an effective training effort, a setting should be provided in which the trainee can feel free to try out different methods of handling relationship problems, knowledge and skill, and become accustomed to applying these methods in a manner suited to his own personality and the needs of his local situation.

4. Since each member will have something to contribute, a leadership training program should emphasize respect for each individual and for his creative ability and past experience.

5. There is no single pattern of leadership training suitable to all conditions. Training for a facility in leading any sort of a group under all circumstances is not practicable. Any training

program should be based on development of appropriate leadership style and on the specific kind of job involved.

6. Leaders-in-training should be given opportunity to share in the determination of the goals and methods used in their training.

7. Provide learning experiences to give sufficient insight into the "know-how's" and "know-why's" as well. The leaders after training should be able to recognize the whys for leading one way instead of another.

8. Groups exert tremendous influence upon individual members to conform to the group's ideas and ideals. A well-built and maintained group is essential for effective training. The size of the group should be limited so as to allow maximum interaction. So, training attention should be given in developing a spirit of warmth and encouragement in the group so as to give needed support and reassurance to people as they go through the difficult task of examining their own behavior in relation to that of others.

9. Since the group should learn from its own experiences, it is important that the group have as many experiences as it can. The trainer should help the group in uncovering and analyzing individual and group problems of planning their tasks and carrying them out.

10. Training should provide opportunity to develop the ability to diagnose leadership requirements applicable to practical situations.

11. The tremendous significance of human relations in the work of a local leader becomes many fold when we consider the fact that the acceptance or rejection of a new idea is to a very large measure

dependent upon the personality of the local leader and his relations with others. So, any leadership training should give equal importance to training in human relations and knowledge, skill and ability to think critically. Human relations training should make the trainees capable of diagnosing possible causes for the particular behavior of a person and help them to cope with such causes skillfully. Training in human relations also should make the trainees realize that improvement in their handling of human relations situations demands that their own personality, attitudes, abilities, and behavior change. They are not merely learning a technique. On the whole, training should provide a situation for the development of sensitivity through purposeful and guided experience in interpreting behavior of others.

12. A training program should give opportunities for the trainees to develop the ability to study any social situation along with the ability to analyze the forces pushing for or against change. The relationship of motivation and resistance to change should be emphasized in the training. The training program must, therefore, provide for positive motivations to overcome the barriers to change and must provide the conditions which minimize the emotional resistances and the psychological threats to the trainee.

13. The body of knowledge should be imparted through experience. Each planned experience should provide for every individual to participate actively in the various types of interactive experience, and simultaneously or almost immediately analyze the consequences of his

interaction behavior and to become diagnostic about the situation of which he is a part. In other words, training experience should not be mere discussion of abstract principles.

14. Not only the job problems of the trainee and the real problems of learning, but also the many individual reactions, resistances, and expectations are necessarily a part of any effective training design. Each person brings to the training climate certain expectations of what will happen, certain anxieties, certain resistances to the learning which might upset or prevent security and behavior and a set of personal needs based upon extensive experience in relating to people in previous situations. These needs differ with individuals, and they are accumulated by uncertainty about the training situation. They may help or hinder the training process, depending upon the skill of the training staff. But, at all costs, the training staff must build the training design and training methods around those individual forces.

15. Trainees need to be free of trainer's dominance when they are ready to construct their own training situations.

16. A combination of the many training devices should be employed.

17. It is necessary that the training should equip the trainee to know when he is dealing with a problem which goes beyond his own capacity to solve.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

As the progress of a nation depends on the type of leadership it gets, the success of extension activities in any area also depends to a large measure on the efficiency of its local leadership. The very fact that modern extension work relies more and more on the participation of local leaders in planning programs and in the carrying out of mutually agreeable courses of action makes the question of local leadership of extreme importance to the success of extension activities. Another reason for the current concern for the development of local leadership is the democratic belief in the possibility of a learned leadership. Previous research suggests that where well trained, cooperative, active local leadership exists, the acceptance of new ideas and practices by the people will usually be greatly facilitated.

Though these facts have long been recognized, only limited attempts have so far been made to identify or formulate any principles on which an effective training program for leadership could be based. If leadership is to be developed it must come about through efficient training which, in turn, should rest on tested and proven principles. The lack of such a set of generally accepted principles on which to base an effective leadership training program is currently the limiting factor. This study, then, was primarily designed to provide a summary and partial analysis of leadership principles

presently held and to provide a suggested set of principles to be used as a guide in the formulation of a training program.

Many authors consider capacity to influence people as a decisive characteristic which is necessary in a leader. Various authors define leadership either as traits within individuals, or as a function of the group or of the situation. But a critical analysis of leadership studies indicates that none of these above three considerations, considered either separately or together would provide an adequate description of the leadership phenomenon itself. Therefore, it seems to be fair enough to consider leadership as a function of the interaction of the above mentioned three factors and other more specific variables like structural role of the leadership, social climate, and value systems of the group.

Leaders are typed both on the basis of the roles they perform and on the basis of the location of the decision making function. Since extension work is based on group decisions, more emphasis is given to the latter types. Autocratic, democratic, and laissez-faire are the generally accepted types of leaders described on the basis of the location of the decision making function. With all the good points, from the point of view of the individuals, in favor of democratic leadership, the inevitable limitations it possesses question its complete applicability to all conditions. A realistic approach to the problem of deciding which type of leadership is most appropriate for extension work suggests the feasibility of a leadership which is a harmonious combination of all three types listed above.

The development of true democratic local leadership should be one of the major goals of all extension activities. A thorough analysis was made of the studies in this field to discover the situations underwhich democratic leadership emerges and develops. It was found that emergence of democratic leadership usually depends on many things. Some factors influencing such emergence include: goals, technical abilities and value systems of the group members, the characteristics of the group as a whole, and the physical conditions present. Other factors might be listed including: the educational level of the people, the chances for free interaction, the degree of economic security, and the presence or absence of disagreements among the people.

There are a number of similar variables in groups which have been shown to influence the activities of leadership once it has emerged. Size of the group, attitude of members, and nature of work are found to be the most important of them.

An effective leader will have to make intelligent and persistent contributions in the areas of viscidity, hedonic tone, goal achievement, facilitation of communication, and establishment of a structure in order to promote effective group functioning. The contributions a leader has to make in these areas are complex in nature, for the conditions underwhich the leader has to make these contributions are interdependent, intermingled, and overlapping. It is not possible for a leader to make a group move toward its goal without effecting viscidity and hedonic tone in the group, and the group

cannot execute a project without influencing communication process and structure. However, these general contributions of a leader in a group determine the specific functions of a local leader which in turn helps the identification and selection of potential local leaders. It is essential that the local leader functions as group advisor, group spokesman, planner, organizer, developer, teacher, evaluator, and friend.

Studies conducted in the area of identification and selection of leaders suggest that leadership selection tests valid for a particular situation will probably have some validity for related situations also. The sociometric and sociodramatic tests are often employed for the identification and selection on the basis of the theory of Ross and Hendry, that the measurable factors in leadership can be put into use in the identification of potential leadership. These tests are developed consistent with the concept that a leader can be studied best in a total group situation and that a true group leader can be identified only by some kind of observation of the effectiveness of his performance in the type of group to which the leadership is related. Using these tests as bases, Eaton formulated the following principles which seem to be valid for the identification and selection of potential leaders.

1. The testing situation should be set up with reference to a precise criterion of leadership.
2. The sociodramatic activities should contain an identifiable number of components involving the demonstration of a number of specific skills.

3. The situation should be simple.

4. Each response of the one rated should be given some numerical weight.

5. Ratings should be made by associates as well as other observers.

6. Final results should not be expressed in too exact gradations.

Apart from these principles, previous studies indicate that persons who come forward voluntarily are more reliable and consistent under practically all conditions.

Since these methods are not always practicable for the identification and selection of potential leaders, other techniques like use of available records, interviews, observations, resort to past experience, recommendations, questionnaire, and survey are recommended.

Authorities in the leadership field agree that ability to lead can be enhanced by training. Leadership training is basically an attempt to stimulate and support leader's efforts to learn knowledges, attitudes, and skills that will improve the quality of their performance in leadership positions. Stimulation and development of local leadership is an important function of a professional leader and so the presence of a professional leader is a prerequisite to an effective leader training program. Apart from this function he should perform the roles of an educator, stimulator, interpreter, planner, administrator, coordinator, and harmonizer.

Some authors question the desirability of using local people to teach highly complex subject matter. Admitting this, there still

is no apparent agreement on the nature of the training to be given to local leaders. Houle has very effectively answered the former questions in the affirmative. As to the latter, it is now almost generally accepted that adaptation of training methods should be adjusted to suit the type of leadership and specific areas in which training is needed. Liveright has developed a very useful outline of appropriate leadership styles and the training suitable for those styles in various areas. So, naturally, the area in which the training is required and the type of leadership will usually be major factors influencing the objective of the training program. However, the common denominators involved in training programs are human relations, knowledge, skill, and ability to think critically. These four training areas should form the framework for the construction of a training program. A set of principles governing the organization and selection of subject matter for training local leaders is presented on the basis of the various factors discussed previously. Considering the many advantages of role playing, particularly the possibility of incorporating many methods of leadership training with role playing, it is suggested as a possible method for leadership training where the rate of literacy is high.

The proper organizing of a training course is essential for its success. Following steps are to be essentially considered in organizing a course: organizing the administration, selecting potential leaders, deciding the content of the course, deciding the structure and size of the group, appraisal of each trainee, provision for

face-to-face meeting of the professional leader and local leaders in training and organizing learning experiences.

The process of training takes place through three definite phases, namely, getting ready to change, making the change, and transferring changes to the job situation. These processes are going on one way or another in every leadership training situation.

Building a suitable training group which will facilitate easy communication and which will act as a practice laboratory is one of the crucial conditions to be satisfied for effective training. Individual involvement, active participation by the trainees, and building security in training are the other cardinal conditions required for the success of a training program.

Whatever is said and done about leadership training, there are some serious problems facing the training. An analysis of these problems suggests that the most serious problem in the area of training for leadership is resistance to change.

A few important principles affecting the training methods oriented to the development of the trainee to the highest degree possible are discussed and presented.

A suggested outline for training local leaders in sensitivity in interpersonal relationships, to serve as a guide in working out a detailed plan such as that presented in the Appendix, would include the following general items: development of critical thinking, understanding a social situation through analysis of the forces pushing for or against change with the human behavior involved in it, experience in

leadership, development of speaking ability, increase in understanding in the interpersonal relationships between individuals in group and problems arising within it in actual and simulated situations, and creating group cohesion and cooperation.

The basic objective of extension service is the development of the people. The material phase of the life should be developed through the development of the man. This requires of him improved interpersonal relationships, improved knowledge and improved skill through development of effective leadership abilities. This study suggests that best results can be obtained in extension work if local leadership is developed as a combination of democratic, autocratic, and laissez-faire, with more emphasis on the first type. The development of effective local leadership is apparently best achieved through proper training. It is hoped that the use of the principles recommended in this study for the selection of potential leaders will serve as a sound basis for the development of a worth-while training program. This study also indicates that a local leadership training process is more effective if the process is based on tried and proven principles. Such principles should basically be designed to offer help in finding solutions for problems of resistance to change and acquiring knowledge and skill in the subject matter.

Resistance to change, which is the primary problem to be tackled in any practical training program, is basically centered around the restructuring of personality. Research indicates that a decisive factor in the development of leadership-type personality is the necessary change of attitudes. This study further indicates that

the common and individual types of attitudes should be tackled simultaneously if any appreciable progress is to be made in changing attitudes.

This study suggests the necessity for further research in the following areas:

1. Continued efforts should be made to identify the qualities or characteristics of desirable leadership types, and to get general understanding and agreement. Standards and criteria should then be established for determining leadership types.
2. Since the very complexity of personality qualities often prevents the successful application of simple performance tests in the identification and selection of potential leaders, it is recommended that effective tests for aiding in the identification of potential leaders be developed and validated.
3. Further research should also be conducted with an eye to developing and validating instruments to measure the leadership abilities of people before and after leadership training to determine how effective they are as leaders.
4. Studies are needed to determine the comparative effectiveness of methods used for training local leaders for extension and other rural educational programs.

Local leadership, as utilized by various agencies, has produced important and lasting results in helping to plan, conduct and evaluate

worthy projects and programs. It has assisted extension by making possible a much greater diffusion of research verified knowledge, skills, and practices. The importance of the job that local leaders can do in extension activities is made more obvious by the ever-increasing, successful use of such leaders. Local leadership will face a task of immense proportion in the years ahead, the task of helping extension and other educational workers perform their increasingly more complex duties more efficiently. By perfecting its local leadership training methods, extension can continue to make itself equal to that challenging task.

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APPENDIX

A SUGGESTED PLAN FOR TRAINING LOCAL LEADERS

A. FOREWORD

This plan was designed to give general suggestions and serve as a guide in working out a detailed training procedure for specific situations such as those found in local Indian villages.

This plan was meant primarily to provide leaders with training in human relations. The plan includes particular attention to the development of sensitivity and diagnostic ability, to the acquisition of proper skills, knowledge, and attitudes, and preparation for emotional and educational change and consequent adaptation. The following teaching methods are suggested for use in the training:

1. Group discussions
2. Lectures
3. Films
4. Visual aids
5. Practice in leadership
6. Field visits
7. Social activities
8. Role playing
9. Panel discussions.

The following assumptions were made prior to the preparation of the plan:

1. That the trainees are literate but not highly educated.
2. That the trainees are already conscious of the advantages of training.

3. That there is a wide range of individual difference in the group.
4. That little time and resources are available for both the trainees and the trainers.
5. That the leader training program aims to improve sensitivity and diagnostic ability to the acquisition of proper skill, knowledge, and attitudes and to prepare for emotional and educational change and consequent adaptation.
6. That there is a clear understanding and knowledge of the existing leadership style in the village.
7. That the program aims to develop both existing and potential leadership.

B. DECISIONS TO BE MADE BY THE TRAINING STAFF BEFORE TRAINING

The following decisions should be made early by the training staff:

1. When the training is to be held.
2. Where the training is to be held.
3. Number of trainees to be involved.
4. Duration of the training period.
5. Size and structure of each group.
6. Selection of trainees.
7. Recreation facilities for the trainees.
8. Materials needed for the training.

9. Staff roles.

10. Method of teaching to be followed.

11. Specific subject matter to be taught.

12. Boarding and lodging of trainees, if necessary.

(This is not always possible under the present conditions in India. So the trainees may be required to go home every evening.)

Note: As far as possible the training course should be conducted during a slack season in a centrally located place so as to facilitate easy access for trainees from all parts of the village. Because of the difficulty of securing more time of the farmers it is probably advisable to limit the duration of the training period to somewhere in the neighborhood of from three to five days. Thirty to forty trainees usually form a manageable group. In human relations training, if persons from different communities have opportunity to work together in small single groups, apparently additional, worth-while results may be obtained in the necessary changing of attitudes and behavior.

Over-all objective for the training: To improve the understanding of human relations in the areas of sensitivity and diagnostic ability, skills, knowledge, and attitudes, emotional and educational change and consequent adaptation.

C. ORGANIZATION OF THE COURSE

Schedule of the First Day

Morning

1. Have some well-known public official inagurate the training. (Though this part of the plan may not materially benefit the trainees, it lends support to the premise that the undertaking is a worth-while one and does much to motivate and give the proper mind set so desirable where a maximum rate of learning is to be desired.)
2. Enroll trainees formally.
3. Provide an orientation period including the purpose of the course and the techniques and procedures of working together.
4. Provide opportunities to get the trainees introduced to one another.
5. Develop over-all planning of the course and its specific objectives with the help of trainees.
6. Elect a gleaning committee.

A proper dining place and time should be so arranged as to give opportunities for the trainees to get together and talk over the day's activities without staff pressure. This helps trainees to associate themselves with the objectives and content of the course.

Afternoon

1. Specific objective: To encourage development of critical thinking.

Means: Group Discussion.

Trainees may be asked to list some problems in human relations and suggest solutions.

Note: Divide the entire group into smaller groups (buzz groups) to permit more general active participation and examination of ideas. This increases motivation and the amount of individual participation. Classify listed problems and solutions and discuss in a general session.

Schedule of the Second Day

Morning

1. Specific objective: To provide trainees with an understanding as to how to go about studying a social situation through analysis of the forces pushing for or against change with the human behavior involved in it.

Means: Give lecture using films, and visual aids.

Review the situations in buzz sessions.

2. Specific objective: To gain experience in leadership.

Means: Practice in leadership.

Problems like the following may be given: How would you enlist the cooperation of a member for the following assignments:

a. To raise money for a group project

b. To get their services for a group

c. To get them to develop and make a proposal to a meeting.

3. Specific objective: Practice in speaking.

Means: Give subjects, such as:

Half of the group speak, five minutes per individual

a. Improved seeds

b. Importance of green manure

c. Artificial insemination.

Afternoon

1. Specific objective: To sensitize members to interrelationships between individuals in group and problems arising within it in the actual situation.

Means: Hold a field visit to a local community where a local leader is initiating organization of a community club.

Group discussions after return from the visit.

2. Specific objective: To create further group cohesion, cooperation and to permit various types of interactions.

Means: Help trainees plan and execute social activities, such as:

a. Cleaning the village pond

b. Constructing a new village road.

3. Specific objective: Practice in speaking.

Means: Remaining half speaks, five minutes each.

Schedule of the Third Day

Morning

1. Specific objective: To increase understanding of interpersonal behavior and to develop awareness of the many complex,

conflicting, and changing forces operating in a group.

Means: Demonstration of a role playing by staff members and one or two trainees. Play may be focused on a problem like how to handle a farmer who has failed after adopting some new practice.

a. Outline the scene and assign the roles by the staff in advance and conduct sufficient number of rehearsals, if necessary.

b. Arrange the audience into observing teams.

c. Play the scene to about ten minutes or until the observers gather enough data for discussion.

2. Specific objective: To provide opportunities for the trainees to get further insight in the interpersonal relationships exhibited in the role playing.

Means: Panel Discussion.

a. One staff member acts as the chairman.

b. Observers act as panel members.

Afternoon

1. Specific objective: To give opportunities to the trainees to express their opinions about what they learned from the training.

Means: The gleaning committee present the report.

Discuss the report.

2. Valadictory meeting.

a. Tea

b. Speech by a public official.