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A Field Test of Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory

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Loyola University Chicago

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A FIELD TEST OF HERSEY AND BLANCHARD'S
SITUATIONAL LEADERSHIP THEORY

by

Salvatore Vincent Pascarella

A Dissertation Submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate School
of Loyola University of Chicago in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Education

May

1985

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A FIELD TEST OF HERSEY AND BLANCHARD'S
SITUATIONAL LEADERSHIP THEORY

The purpose of the study was to examine the leadership characteristic of principals in elementary education as it related to Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory. The basis of this theory was that the leader's (principal's) effectiveness resulted from the adaptability of leadership styles to the follower's (teacher's) task-relevant maturity.

The study investigated the basis premise of Situational Leadership Theory by examining the following three areas: (1) Do teachers differ from principals self-identification of basic leadership style, (2) Do principals utilize more than one leadership style in dealing with teachers following Situational Leadership training, and (3) What extent does training in Situational Leadership effectiveness have. Twelve specific null hypotheses were stated to test these three areas.

The sample consisted of eleven elementary school principals and forty teachers. The data was collected using the LEAD questionnaire and structured follow-up interviews. The study compared two sets of data from principals over two treatment periods, six months following initial training and three years later.

The results suggested that principals do increase their basic leadership styles as a result of training. The principals and teachers indicated there was not an increase in the number of leadership styles exhibited by the principals during any stage of the study. However, the principals and teachers did indicate an increase for principals in their leadership effectiveness.

Situational Leadership Theory directly addresses the major leadership behaviors required in educational leadership positions today. This study indicated areas of growth and common recognition of leadership style over time.

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The researcher also wishes to acknowledge the help of his parents, Antonette and Andrew Pascarella, and his in-laws, Marie and Norbert Rohlwing, for their support, encouragement, and prayers; to his children, Brad and Tom, sincere thanks for their patience, cooperation, understanding, and love; to his wonderful wife, Karen, for her love, patience, understanding, and drive which made this project a reality and finally to his typists, Barbara Leavitt and Carla Hofland, and his statistician, Gemma Gianni.

VITA

The author, Salvatore Vincent Pascarella, is the son of Andrew and Antonette Pascarella. He was born March 8, 1948, in Brooklyn, New York.

His elementary education was obtained at Our Lady of Loretta Parochial School in Brooklyn, New York. His secondary education was completed in 1966 at Hicksville High School, Hicksville, New York.

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CHAPTER I

BACKGROUND AND STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

The roles of today's school principal are diverse. The principal is called upon to be instructional leader, business administrator, manager, and human relations specialist (Morris et al., 1982). The impact of these demands is particularly significant in light of conclusions from many recent studies identifying the principal as the essential change agent in the schools (Wyant et al., 1980). Identification of the principal's characteristics and behavior which lead to effectiveness in these roles is imperative, but the researchers have confronted a problem in pursuing these studies. It seems that initially it has been very difficult to decide whether the management process should be viewed as essentially constant or as a variable and contingent upon the nature of the situation. However assessed or viewed, the fact still remains that schools and their principals do indeed make a positive difference in the academic achievement of students. In fact, in one third of the effective schooling studies examined, Shoemaker (1981) stated that, "...leadership style and leader attitudes were essential factors contributing to successful schooling" (p. 178).

One study in particular, which was a combined effort by the Lily Endowment and Phi Delta Kappan (Shoemaker, 1981), studied eight exceptional schools. It was noted that effective leadership was able

to accomplish more goals and objectives, set standards of performance, create a productive working environment, and obtain needed support. It was clear that leaders must initiate, motivate and support improvement throughout the school. This process of directing, influencing, and motivating subordinates has been studied for many years in both education and business administration.

Research in the area of educational administration was initially oriented to current field practices without a definite theoretical base. It was only in the 1950's and 1960's that the literature began to indicate application of existing social science theories of group behavior and leadership to the field of educational administration. For many years the study of leadership focused on leadership traits, which stated "that personal qualities such as intelligence and physical energy were necessary for potential leaders to possess" (Filley et al., 1976, p. 213). This approach implied that there was little value in training people for leadership, but great value in identifying traits with which to choose potential leaders. The research using the trait approach apparently did not yield a particular personality trait or set of traits characteristic for producing successful leaders (Finch et al., 1976).

As emphasis on environmental factors became more prevalent in the psychological and sociological research of the 1940's and 1950's, a behavioral approach to leadership theory evolved. Leadership was considered to be determined by external factors such as the requirements of social systems (Halpin 1966). With the emphasis on the

environment and behavior came the belief that most people could increase their leadership effectiveness through training. Benziger (1981) stated that "both psychologists and sociologists had substituted a strictly situational approach for the then questionable analyses of personal traits" (p. 60). Also Eugene E. Jennings concluded that in fifty years of study "...no single personality trait or set of qualities could be isolated to distinguish leaders from nonleaders" (Jennings, 1961, p. 54).

Many leadership theorists proposed that effectiveness was the result of the interaction between individuals and their environmental factors. Such theorists include: Blake and Mouton (1964), Halpin (1965), Fiedler (1967), Likert (1961), and Reddin (1970). Situational Leadership Theory, proposed by Hersey and Blanchard (1982), was one of the more recent theories of this type.

Leader behavior, in most of the interaction theories, consists of two dimensions: task behavior and relationship behavior. This premise was initially proposed by leadership studies at Ohio State University under the terms initiating structure and consideration. Initiating structure or task behavior was defined as the leader's behavior in delineating the relationship between himself and members of the work group and in endeavoring to establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and methods of procedures. Consideration or relationship behavior was defined as

behavior indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth in the relationship between the leader and members of his staff (Halpin, 1965).

Leadership studies before those of Ohio State had proposed a linear relationship between task and relationship behavior. The Ohio State studies presented a model of leader behavior which was curvilinear in nature. The matrix defined four leadership styles: one which was high on initiating structure, one which was high on consideration, one which was high on both dimensions, and one which was low on both dimensions (figure 1). These dimensions of leadership including structure and consideration were thought of as separate and distinct dimensions, such that a high degree of one quality did not necessitate a low degree of the other. The behavior of the leader could be described as any mix of both dimensions. Research with the Ohio State Model has not been able to find a single style which is most effective (Porter et al., 1975).

Situational theories accepted the premise that no one style was the best. Each situational theory defined a range of styles and situations. One of these theories was Situational Leadership theory, which was an outgrowth of the Ohio State Model. The focus in the situational approach to leadership was on observed behavior (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982). The emphasis was on the behavior of leaders and their group members, or followers, and various situations. More encouragement was given to the possibility of training individuals in adapting styles of leader behavior to varying situations.

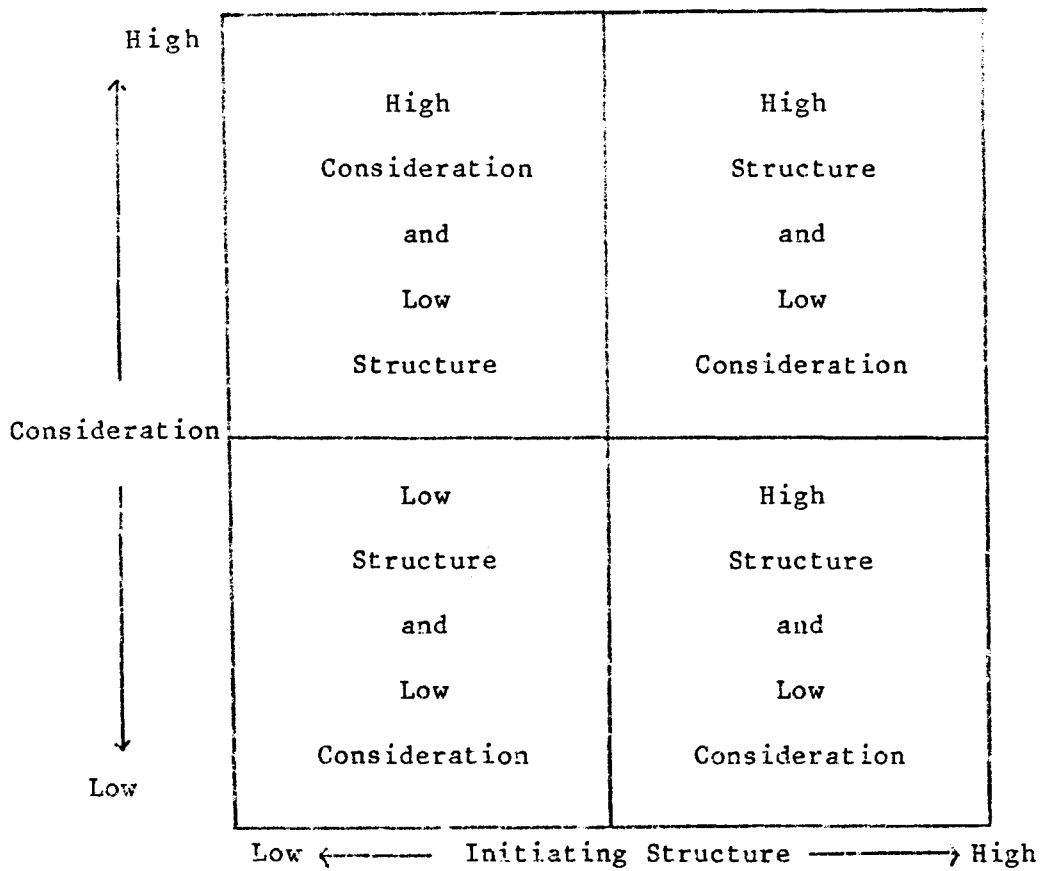


Figure 1. The Ohio State leadership quadrants
(Hersey & Blanchard, 1982, p. 95)

Influenced by the work of William Reddin (1970), Situational Leadership Theory went beyond the Ohio State Model by adding effectiveness as a third dimension of the model. This dimension was used to demonstrate that any leadership style can be used effectively or ineffectively depending upon the situation in which a leader used it. Situational Leadership Theory not only suggested the most appropriate leadership styles in a given situation, but also indicated other probable successful styles according to their proximity to each other on the model. This probable successful style was called leader effectiveness, which was the degree to which the leader's style matched the follower's maturity, as a third dimension of leadership behavior. The mode was initially termed the Tri-Dimensional Leadership Model, and was later incorporated into Situational Leadership Theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982).

Situational Leadership Theory then added a situational variable which Hersey and Blanchard contended could be used to diagnose appropriate leader behavior. This variable was task-relevant maturity. Maturity was depicted as a continuum ranging from immaturity to maturity, judged in terms of three basic components: the capacity to set high but attainable goals, the willingness to accept responsibility, and the degree of experience and education (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982). As the level of maturity of the followers increased, the leader began to reduce his/her task-oriented behavior and increase his/her relationship behavior. However, when maturity reached the highest level, both relationship and task behavior would

be minimized. In essence, Situational Leadership Theory said that an effective leader should have a range of leadership styles and should adapt his/her behavior to the task-relevant maturity of his/her subordinates. The Center for Leadership Studies produced the Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description (LEAD) instrument designed to measure perception of leadership style and to provide feedback regarding the diagnostic skills of a leader.

Purpose of Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the Situational Leadership Theory as developed by Hersey and Blanchard in a school setting. The basis of this theory was that the leader's effectiveness resulted from the adaptability of leadership styles to the follower's task-relevant maturity. In Hersey and Blanchard's terms, the principal's success depended upon the ability of the individual to adjust his or her leadership style to match the maturity of the teachers for that particular situation or task.

This study investigated the basic premise of Situational Leadership Theory by exploring the following three questions:

Question 1: Do teachers' identification differ from principals' self-identification of basic leadership style?

The following null hypotheses were formulated to test question 1:

1. There is no significant difference between the teachers' and principals' identification of the principal's basic leadership style before and after situational leadership training after six months between pretest and posttest.

2. There is no significant difference between the teachers' and principals' identification of the principal's basic leadership style before and after situational leadership training after three years between pretest and posttest.

Question 2: Do leaders utilize more than one leadership style in dealing with his/her followers with Situational Leadership training?

The following hypotheses were developed to test question 2:

1. There is no significant difference in the principals' identification of the number of leadership styles exhibited before and after situational leadership training after six months between pretest and posttest.

2. There is no significant difference in the principals' identification of the number of leadership styles exhibited before and after situational leadership training after three years between pretest and posttest.

3. There is no significant difference in the teachers' identification of the number of principal's leadership styles exhibited before and after situational leadership training after six months between pretest and posttest.

4. There is no significant difference in the teachers' identification of the number of principal's leadership styles exhibited before and after situational leadership training after three years between pretest and posttest.

Question 3: To what extent does training in Situational Leadership Theory influence principals' leadership effectiveness area?

The following hypotheses were developed to test question 3:

1. There is no significant difference in the principal's identification of his leadership effectiveness before and after situational leadership training after six months between pretest and posttest.

2. There is no significant difference in the principal's identification of his leadership effectiveness before and after situational leadership training after three years between pretest and posttest.

3. There is no significant difference in the teachers' identification of the principal's leadership effectiveness before and after situational leadership training after six months between pretest and posttest.

4. There is no significant difference in the teachers' identification of the principal's leadership effectiveness before and after situational leadership training after three years between pretest and posttest.

5. There is no significant difference between the teachers' and principals' identification of the principal's leadership effectiveness before and after situational leadership training after six months between pretest and posttest.

6. There is no significant difference between the teachers' and principals' identification of the principal's leadership effectiveness before and after situational leadership training after three years between pretest and posttest.

Definition of Terms

Leadership is the process of influencing the activities of an individual or a group in efforts toward goal achievement in a given situation. From this definition it follows that the leadership process is a function of the leader, the follower, and other situational variables and can be expressed in the following algebraic formula: $L = f(l, f, s)$. Further, it is important to note that when this definition mentions leader and follower, one should not assume that it is referring only to the traditional hierarchical relationship such as suggested by superior/subordinate, but rather any time an individual is attempting to influence the behavior of someone else.

Situational Leadership Theory (SLT). Situational Leadership Theory accepts the premise that no one style is the best. Situational Theory defines a range of styles and then attempts to determine which style is most effective in varying situations. One of these theories is SLT.

SLT is an outgrowth of the Ohio State Model. It uses the terms task behavior and relationship behavior instead of initiating structure and consideration, but the dimensions describe behaviors similar to those of the Ohio State Model. SLT uses the notations Style 1 (S1) telling, Style 2 (S2) selling, Style 3 (S3) participating, and Style 4 (S4) delegating to refer to the four leadership styles. Style 1 is high on relationship behavior. Style 2 is high on task behavior and high on relationship behavior. Style 3 is high on relationship behavior, and Style 4 is low on both dimensions.

Influenced by the work of William Reddin (1967, 1970), SLT goes beyond the Ohio State Model by adding effectiveness as a third dimension of the model. This dimension is used to demonstrate that any leadership style can be used effectively or ineffectively depending upon the situation in which a leader uses it.

SLT then adds a situational variable which Hersey and Blanchard contend can be used to diagnose appropriate leader behavior. This variable is task-relevant maturity which is defined in terms of followers' job maturity and psychological maturity, or in simpler terms, ability and willingness. SLT defines four levels of task-relevant maturity. Maturity level one (M1) is low on willingness and

low on ability. Maturity level two (M2) is low on ability but high on willingness. Maturity level three (M3) is high on ability but low on willingness, and maturity level four (M4) is high on both willingness and ability.

Leadership Style. This term refers to:

...the consistent behavior patterns they (managers) use when they are working with and through other people as perceived by those people. These patterns emerge in people as they begin to respond in the same fashion under similar conditions; they develop habits of action that become somewhat predictable to those who work with them (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982, p.83).

SLT defines leadership style in terms of task behavior and relationship behavior. Four styles of leadership are defined as follows:

S1 (telling) is high on task behavior, low on relationship behavior,

S2 (selling) is high on both task and relationship behavior,

S3 (participating) is low on task behavior, high on relationship behavior, and

S4 (delegating) is low on both task and relationship behavior.

Style Range. The extent to which an individual is able to use different leadership styles depending on the situation.

Leader Effectiveness. In this study leader effectiveness is defined in terms of followers' performance and satisfaction, and in terms of leaders' ability to create conditions conducive to high performance and satisfaction. Effectiveness refers to a leader's ability to create a work environment in which followers are motivated to do their best work.

LEAD. The acronym for the Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description. It is an instrument designed to measure: (1) style, (2) style range, and (3) effectiveness of leader behavior. The LEAD-OTHER and LEAD-SELF are two instruments used to measure leadership behavior.

Relationship Behavior. The extent to which a leader engages in a two-way communication by providing support and understanding to a follower or group.

Task-relevant Maturity. According to SLT, task-relevant maturity is defined in terms of job maturity and psychological maturity. These dimensions refer to a worker's ability and willingness to do a given task. Four levels of maturity are defined as follows:

M1 is low on both ability and willingness,

M2 is low on ability but high on willingness,

M3 is high on ability but low on willingness, and

M4 is high on both ability and willingness.

SLT emphasizes that these measures of maturity should be considered only in relation to a specific task to be performed.

Basic Style. The most dominant leadership style of an individual as identified in the LEAD instrument with highest frequency.

Limitations of the Study

The study was limited by the geographic sample location, sample composition, and sample size. In all cases the principals were from northern Lake County, Illinois, and their administrative responsibilities

ranged from elementary to junior high school. In addition, all of the principals were required to participate in the Situational Leadership Training program, therefore it raised serious questions regarding their motivation for implementing the model in their schools. The number of administrators who originally participated in the training were sixteen principals and sixty-four of their teachers. But due to the three-year period which lapsed between the pretest and posttest, there was an approximate 31% decrease (five principals) resulting in a smaller sample size for this study of eleven principals and forty-four teachers. However, the data from the original study was very limited due to the short time period elapsing between training and implementation. Consequently, the information gathered could not accurately reflect the impact of the specialized leadership training. Therefore, a longevity study which examined the principals' leadership behavior over a three-year period could better supply information relating to situational leadership theory in an educational setting even though the number of principals was less.

A limitation of this study was the lack of data supporting the validity of Situational Leadership Theory. Actual support for the validity of the entire theory has not been evident in any research conducted to date. There have been empirical data generated which supports various components of the theory resulting in a very high "face validity" for Situational Leadership theory. The research to date indicates that the major obstacle in validating the theory seems to be the inability of researchers to assess accurately the followers' maturity level.

In order to gain a deeper perception of the principal's style and what types of follower maturity levels determine that style, this study included a series of questions for the principals and teachers. Interviews coupled with the other survey tools provided a better understanding of Situational Leadership theory and its valid use in the field of educational administration as a theory.

Significance of the Study

There exists a general acceptance of situational leadership theory by a large number of people in a wide variety of leader/follower environments. This general acceptance establishes a face validity for Situational Leadership Theory. However, in addition to face validity there should also be empirical data to completely validate Situational Leadership Theory. This study is to provide additional data which could lead to the empirical validation of the model. Specifically, the study is to investigate the essential component of the theory, which is task maturity and its use for diagnosing effective school leadership behavior; namely, the research is to examine elementary and junior high school principals' interaction patterns with teachers after they have been trained in Situational Leadership theory. Through a review of the related literature there does not appear to be any evidence of similar training of school principals. The research could indicate to school practitioners which leadership style tends to be most effective. In addition, the results of this study regarding the training components could provide new

information which may give guidance to trainers of school administrators for developing content and curricula to be taught in advanced leadership training programs.

Summary

The primary function of leaders during the early scientific management era was to organize and enforce performance criteria. The leaders generated all their efforts towards the accomplishment of organizational goals. As the organizations grew so did the personal needs of the employee groups. This gave impetus to the rise of the human relations movement.

The scientific management movement emphasized a concern for task while the human relation movement stressed a concern for relations. These two dichotomous positions were placed on a continuum and researched extensively to determine which leadership style was the "best" for leaders to follow. Specifically, one side of the continuum was the more traditional task-oriented, authoritarian style (scientific management) and the other was the more directive, democratic-style of leadership (human relations movement).

The leadership research then began to investigate emotional and physical needs of employees. The data did not generate a hierarchy of needs that could be used by leaders when trying to motivate staff for the

completion of tasks. This motivational information coupled with the recognition that the two styles of leadership did exist led to further research.

Research studies which examined this concept were the Ohio State studies. These studies produced the Ohio State Model which proposed two dimensions, initiating structure and consideration. Combining these two variables to form a matrix allowed for the determination of four different leadership styles. These styles were all tested in many studies and all reported that there was no one single leadership style which proved to be universally the most effective. In fact, further research in the field of leadership had led to the development of situational theories that indicate which leadership style is most effective in various situations.

Overview

The statement of the problem to be addressed in this study, the purpose, general questions to be answered, significance, limitations, definition of key terms, and a short overview have been the focus of Chapter I. Chapter II is a review of related literature pertaining to educational leadership development from the early 20th century up to the present. Design of the study, which is the purpose of Chapter III, contain the sample selections, data collection, the instrumentation employed in the study and procedures utilized. Chapter IV, analysis of the data, includes a description of the analytical techniques used, tables showing the results of this analysis and findings related to the hypo-

theses. However, answers dealing with the twelve hypotheses posed in Chapter I are handled specifically in Chapter V, along with the summary, conclusions, and recommendations.

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CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The study of leadership has always seemed to fascinate researchers in all the many components of administration. For this reason the literature is abundant due to the efforts of many who have attempted to understand leadership and its relationship to administration within an organization.

Still, the need for research regarding effective leadership in education is very relevant and timely. The traditional concept of the school organization as a rational, well-defined system, operating independently, requiring minimal leadership effort, simply is not accurate any longer (Griffith, 1979). The authoritarian, task-oriented leader whose effectiveness was solely measured on efficiency and productivity can not exist without adapting his leadership style in some situations.

The main purpose of this review of the literature is to historically examine the trends of leadership theory and research, particularly those trends that influenced the work of Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory (1982).

Pre-Ohio State Leadership Studies

The earliest studies (1900-1933) regarding management were conducted by so-called efficiency experts. The most prominent figure associated with the "scientific" movement was Frederick Taylor. Taylor was a chief engineer who believed that individuals could be programmed machines. The key to the scientific management approach was the concept of man as a machine (Taylor, 1911). He was concerned with how to organize a work environment so efficiently that anyone could do a good job. Taylor and his associates thought that workers were motivated by economics, limited by physiology, required constant supervision in order to become efficient. With this concept in mind, Taylor's research focused mainly on physical production, time and motion studies, and methods for the most efficient completion of tasks.

The organization of the work environment into a well-oiled machine was assembled into five functions by Henri Fayol (1925). Similar to Taylor, Fayol pursued the scientific approach to management. For Taylor to achieve the most efficient completion of tasks the following steps were followed (Urwick, 1952, p. 74):

Plan - means to study the future and arrange the plan of operations.

Organize - means to build up material and human organization of the business, organizing both people and materials.

Command - means to make the staff do their work.

Coordinate - means to unite and correlate all activities.

Control - means to see that everything is done in accordance with the rules which have been laid down and the instructions which have been given.

The basic features of the traditional or classical administrative models emphasized formal or bureaucratic organization. Managers were concerned with the division of labor, the allocation of power, and the specifications of each position. The managers neglected individual idiosyncracies and the social dynamics of people at work. The constant emphasis upon task completion and the lack of concern for people led to the formation of the human relations movement.

The human relations movement period was from 1930-1950 and was associated with Elton Mayo. He was basically concerned with the neglected variable that the scientific management developers omitted in their theory, namely the effects of the interpersonal relationship that have evolved in the work environment. Mayo was able to study this phenomena at the Western Electric Company, where he examined the effects of illumination on productivity. The findings of his research, historically known as the Hawthorne study, led to the birth of the human relations movement.

The Hawthorne studies (1924) began with three experiments conducted to study the relation of quality and quantity of illumination to efficiency in industry. The first experiment results were puzzling. The increase in production rates did not correspond with

increases in lighting, nor did production fall off with less illumination. In a second experiment, a test group in which illumination intensities were varied was compared to a control group with illumination held constant. Both groups showed increases in production rates that were not only substantial but also nearly identical. Finally, in a third experiment, when lighting for the test group was decreased and that for the control group held constant, the efficiency of both groups increased. The conclusions were neither as simple nor as clear-cut as the experimenters had originally anticipated. The Hawthorne company called upon two Harvard professors--Elton Mayo and Emil Roathisberger (1933)--to continue studying the relationship between physical conditions of work and productivity. Mayo and his team started their experiments with a group of women. The researchers added a few variables to the work environment. They improved the working conditions, scheduled rest periods, company lunches, and shorter work weeks. Confused by the results of these new management techniques, the researchers decided to remove all benefits and return to the original working conditions. This radical change did affect the production of the women. However, instead of an output reduction, the level rose to a new all-time high.

The researchers discovered that the reasons for the increase in the production were not related to the changes of the physical working conditions, but rather to the human aspects. The study indicated that as a result of all the special attention and concern the women were

receiving, they felt like an important part of the company. The women began feeling that they were members of a cohesive work group. The group began fulfilling unsatisfied needs of affiliation, competence and achievement. Therefore, the women worked harder and more effectively than ever before.

The most significant factor affecting organizational productivity was found to be the interpersonal relationships that were developed on the job, not just pay and working conditions. Mayo also discovered that when the workers felt that their own goals were opposite from management's (occurred mainly with groups closely supervised, with little control of their environment), productivity remained at low levels.

The significance of the interpersonal relationships redirected the concept of management from emphasis on organizational structure to employee's motivation and satisfaction. Subsequent to the Hawthorne findings, Abraham Maslow (1954) examined the basis of individuals and their need-disposition levels relative to sound management motivational strategies.

Researchers currently still continue to search for motivational factors which when understood by leaders can be used to accomplish both organizational and personal goals. Even with all of this new research, the underlying factors of understanding human motivational needs can be

found in Maslow's research of the individuals and their hierarchy of needs structure. This hierarchy includes physiological, safety, social, esteem and self-actualization. Maslow states:

Degrees of Relative Satisfaction

...So far our theoretical discussion may have given the impression that these five sets of needs are somehow in such terms as the following: If one need is satisfied, then another emerges. This statement might give the false impression that a need must be satisfied 100 percent before the next need emerges. In actual fact, most members of our society who are normal are partially unsatisfied in all their basic needs at the same time.

A more realistic description of the hierarchy would be in terms of decreasing percentages of satisfaction as we go up the hierarchy of prepotency. For instance, if I may assign arbitrary figures for the sake of illustration, it is as if the average citizen is satisfied perhaps 85 percent in his physiological needs, 70 percent in his safety needs, 50 percent in his love needs, 40 percent in his self-esteem needs, and 10 percent in his self-actualization needs.

As for the concept of emergence of a new need after satisfaction of the prepotent need, this emergence is not a sudden, saltatory phenomenon, but rather a gradual emergence by slow degrees from nothingness. For instance, if prepotent need A is satisfied only 10 percent, then need B may not be visible at all. However, as this need A becomes satisfied 25 percent, need B may emerge 5 percent, as need A becomes satisfied 75 percent, need B may emerge 50 percent, and so on (1954, p. 53-54).

Therefore, Maslow's (1970) hierarchy of needs was not intended to be an all-or-none framework, but rather one that may be useful in predicting behavior on a high or a low probability basis. Figure 2 demonstrates the need structure for people.

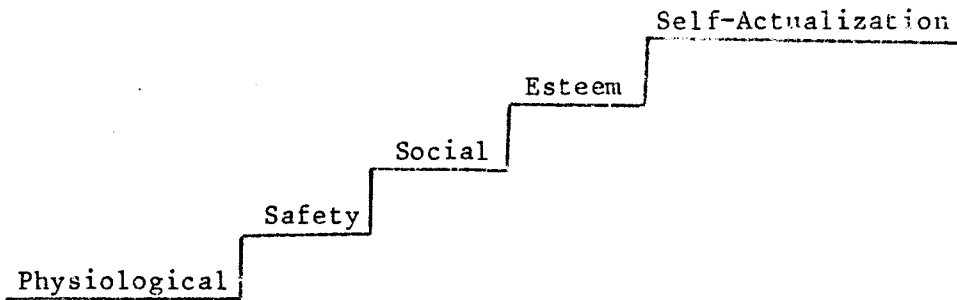


Figure 2. Self-actualization needs when dominant in the need structure (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982, p. 67)

The physiological needs are the basic human needs to sustain life itself: food, clothing, and shelter. Until these needs are satisfied, the person's major activity will be at a very low level, and will provide very little motivation. But when their needs are satisfied, other levels of needs become individual. And when these needs are somewhat satisfied, other needs emerge. Once the physiological needs become satisfied, the safety or security needs become dominant.

Safety needs are quite evident and very common among most people. We all have a desire to remain free from the hazards of life--accidents and economic instability. Therefore, individuals and organizations are interested in providing some assurance that their catastrophes could be avoided if possible. Along with this feeling of security, the individuals also have a great desire for social affiliation. However, in many instances, people seek affiliation because they desire to have their beliefs confirmed. In satisfying these basic needs, it does not mean that individuals will become more productive. In fact if creativity or initiative is necessary in their jobs, an overemphasis on

security can thwart desired behavior. This indicates that the next two levels of need may be the most important regarding the motivation of individuals on given tasks. They are esteem and self-actualization.

The need for esteem or recognition appears in two forms, prestige and power. Prestige motive is becoming more evident in our society today, especially with the concern we have for keeping up with the Joneses. Gellerman (1968) describes prestige as:

...a sort of unwritten definition of the kinds of conduct that other people are expected to show in one's presence; what degree of respect or disrespect, formality or informality, reserve or frankness.

Prestige seems to have an effect on how comfortably or conveniently one can expect to get along in life. In any case, prestige is something intangible bestowed upon an individual by society. The other aspect of prestige which is used to influence behavior is power.

There tends to be two kinds of power: position and personal. Individuals who are able to influence the behavior of others because of their position in the organization have position power, while individuals who derive their influence from their personality and behavior have personal power; some people are endowed with both types of power. Of all the needs identified by Maslow, the one that social and behavioral scientists know least about is self-actualization. Although little research has been done on the concept of self-actualization, there are data on two motives that are related to it--competence and achievement.

Competence implies control over environmental factors--both physical and social according to White (1959). He explained further that people with this motive do not wish to wait passively for things to happen; they want to be able to manipulate their environment and make things happen. It seems that in adults the need to make things happen manifests itself in a desire for job maturity and professional growth. Achievement-motivated people set moderately difficult but potentially achievable goals. These achievement-oriented people are more concerned with personal achievement than with the rewards of success. They do not reject rewards, but the rewards are not as essential as the accomplishment. Money, to achievement-motivated people, is valuable primarily as a measurement of their performance. They have a desire to seek situations in which they get concrete feedback on how well they are doing.

Achievement-motivated people are the backbone of most organizations. However, when they are promoted and their success depends not only on their own work but on the activities of others, they may be less effective. They are highly task-oriented and work to their capacity; they tend to expect others to do the same. Consequently, they sometimes lack the human skills and patience necessary for being effective managers of people who are competent but have a higher need for affiliation than they do. Thus while achievement-motivated people

are needed in organizations, they do not always make the best managers. Contradictions to these motivational needs of individuals and job performance can be found in McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y.

According to McGregor (1960), traditional organizations, with their centralized decision-making, superior-subordinate pyramid, and external control of work, are based upon assumptions about human nature and all these human motivation needs. Theory X assumes that most people prefer to be directed, are not interested in assuming responsibility, and want safety above all. Accompanying this philosophy was the belief that people are motivated by money, fringe benefits, and the threat of punishment. Managers who accept Theory X assumptions attempt to structure, control, and closely supervise their employees. These managers feel that external control is clearly appropriate for dealing with unreliable, irresponsible, and immature people.

In today's democratic society, with a high standard of living, management by direction and control may not succeed, McGregor concluded because it is a questionable method for motivating people whose physiological and safety needs are reasonably satisfied and whose social esteem and self-actualization needs are becoming predominant.

McGregor decided that management needed practices based on a more accurate understanding of human nature and motivation. With his feelings regarding the importance of human nature, he developed an alternate theory of management called Theory Y. This theory assumes that people are not by nature lazy and unreliable. It postulates that

people can be basically self-directed and creative at work if properly motivated. Therefore, it should be an essential task of management to release this potential in individuals. According to this theory people can achieve their own goals best by developing their own efforts toward accomplishing organizational goals (figure 3).

There is a safeguard that students of administration should be concerned about regarding Theory Y and Theory X. The impression that one might get from the discussion of Theory X-Theory Y is that managers who accept Theory X assumptions about human nature usually direct, control, and closely supervise people while Theory Y managers are supportive and facilitating. This could lead to the thinking that Theory X is bad and Theory Y is good. This assumption is not very accurate. McGregor implied that most people have the potential to be mature and self-motivated, which implies that a manager must recognize the difference between attitude and behavior. Therefore, one should consider Theory X and Theory Y as attitudes or predispositions toward people. So even though Theory Y is the best attitude managers should have regarding people, it may not be appropriate to behave consistent with those assumptions all the time. Managers may have Theory Y assumptions about human nature, but they may find it necessary to behave in a very directive, controlling manner with some people until Theory Y attitudes can be utilized. This concern for attitude and behavioral variables relative to their influence in judging leader effectiveness in accomplishing organizational and individual goals

Theory X	Theory Y
1. Work is inherently distasteful to most people.	1. Work is as natural as play, if the conditions are favorable.
2. Most people are not ambitious, have little desire for responsibility, and prefer to be directed.	2. Self-control is often indispensable in achieving organizational goals.
3. Most people have little capacity for creativity in solving organizational problems.	3. The capacity for creativity in solving organizational problems is widely distributed in the population.
4. Motivation occurs only at the physiological and safety levels.	4. Motivation occurs at the social, esteem, and self-actualization levels, as well as physiological and security levels.
5. Most people must be closely controlled and often coerced to achieve organizational objectives.	5. People can be self-directed and creative at work if properly motivated.

Figure 3. List of assumptions about human nature that underline McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982, p. 55)

opened a completely new era of administration; namely, the behavioral science approach. Therefore, the remainder of this literature review concentrates on the behavioral approach to leadership study.

The behavioral approach is a synthesis of all previous approaches to the study of leadership. It incorporates the concept that a task completion is a goal of a leader from the scientific approach. In addition, it recognizes the fact that leaders possess personal traits and needs which are grounded in the human relations movement. Finally, the emphasis of the behavioral approach is on the observed behavior of the leader.

Burns (1979) summarized that great leaders are sensitive to the fundamental needs and value of others. He contended that leadership and education are ultimately similar because they both consisted of "reciprocal raising of levels of motivation rather than indoctrination coercion" (p. 380-383). He felt that leadership was an aspect of power, but that leaders differed from powerholders. Powerholders were concerned with achieving only their own goals, whereas leaders addressed themselves to the wants and needs of followers as well as to their own.

Selecting a leadership study in this respect is a form of decision making that includes electing to exercise leadership and determining the type of leadership that is appropriate. Huckaby (1980) states:

...in most situations leaders choose their behavior with no regard to classification and often without opportunity to consciously examine the contributing factors. The decisions reflect their knowledge and values as well as their perceptions of the existing situational variables....It is impossible for educational leaders to make decisions, including choices of leadership style, without making value judgements (p. 613).

Value is assigned to situational variables by considering one variable to be more important than others. Huckaby further stated that "Leadership trainers neglect their responsibility to the educational profession if they suggest that leadership styles be selected solely on the basis of situational demands" (p. 615). Instead, decisions must be based primarily on the purposes to be achieved with an awareness of the situational implication for leadership behavior.

The bulk of literature suggests that no one style or type of leadership is consistently more effective than another. Leaders perceived to be effective are task oriented at times and concerned with socio-emotional needs at other times. Today's educational leaders should recognize which leadership style is most appropriate to use in various work situations. The leaders then should be sufficiently skilled to adapt their style to match either the task or relationship variable. According to Sexton (1977), the empirical study in which these two variables were originally discovered was the Ohio State leadership studies.

Ohio State Leadership Studies Era

Scholars at the Personnel Research Board of Ohio State University organized a study in 1945 to investigate personality traits of leaders. Andrew Halpin (1966), in the Ohio Studies of Leadership, developed a Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) to measure the leader's behavior on two dimensions: initiating structure (task behavior) and consideration (relationship behavior). Initiating structure referred to task-related behavior and consideration referred to the relationship behavior. The research found these to be separate and distinct dimensions. A high score on one dimension did not necessitate a low score on the other. The combination of initiating structure and consideration were visually presented on two separate axes rather than the single continuum that had been used. Four quadrants were developed to show the various combinations of initiating structure and consideration (figure 4). Consideration and initiating structure were dimensions of observed behavior as perceived by others. Examples of these behaviors according to Halpin (1957) were:

Consideration:

The leader finds time to listen to group members.

The leader is willing to make changes.

The leader is friendly and approachable.

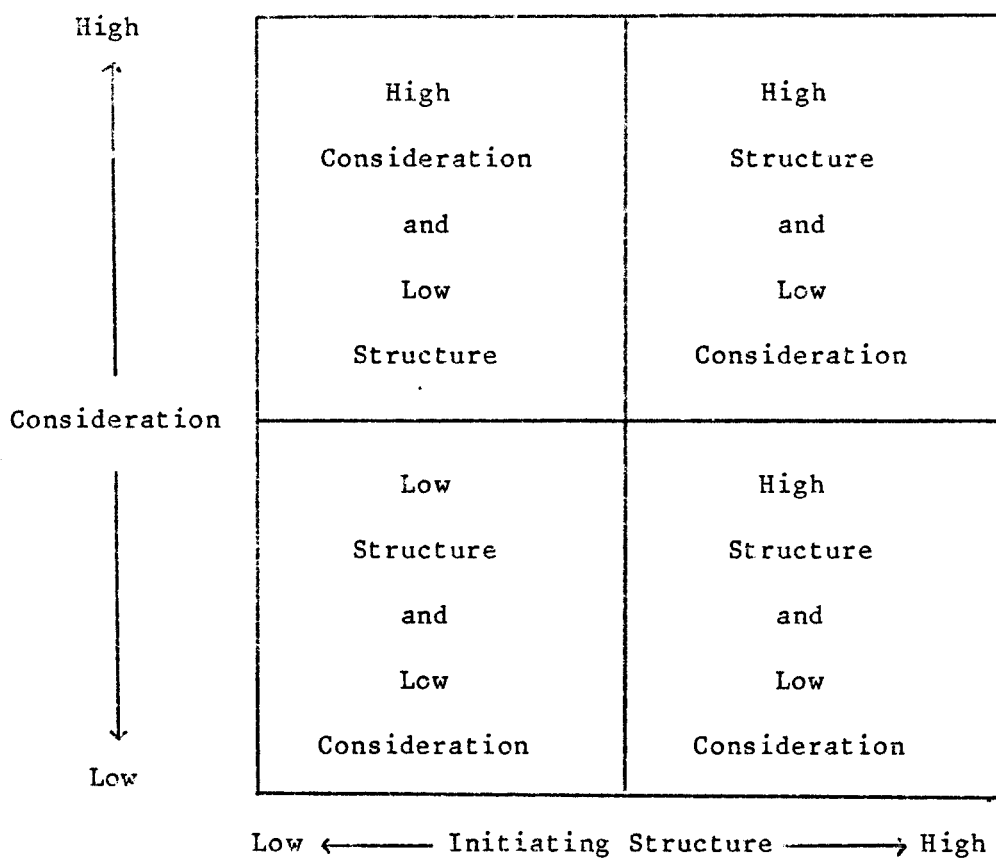


Figure 4. The Ohio State leadership studies
(Hersey & Blanchard, 1982, p. 95)

Initiating structure:

The leader assigns group members to particular tasks.

The leader asks the group members to follow standard rules and regulations.

The leader lets group members know what is expected of them.

One of the main objectives of the Ohio State Leadership studies was to develop methods to further research leadership. The LBDQ had the advantage of collecting data in a minimum of time for the researcher and participant, thus making possible studies for further research. Halpin (1957) modified the LBDQ for use with Air Force personnel manning the B-29 aircraft. With this modification an extensive factorial study was made to determine key leadership behaviors.

A factor analysis of intercorrelations resulted in the emergence of four factors. The four factors identified were consideration, initiating structure, production emphasis, and social awareness. The factors of consideration and initiating structure were extremely significant and accounted for 83% of the total factor variance. Based on this research, further improvements on the LBDQ were made which resulted in a form that emphasized consideration and initiating structure. The shortened form had high reliability and descriptions of respondents showed significant similarities in the analysis of their leaders. The following results were noted in regard to the Air Force studies relative to initiating and consideration:

Consideration tends to be correlated negatively with leadership effectiveness ratings by superiors, while Initiating Structure is positively related to effectiveness ratings. Consideration is more highly related than Initiating Structure to an index of crew satisfaction (Halpin, 1957, p. 51).

The success of the military studies precipitated a number of subsequent studies of significance dealing with educators and the LBDQ. One such leadership study of fifty Ohio School superintendents conducted by Halpin (1956) is today considered a classic piece of research. This study of superintendent leadership behavior dealt with three kinds of relationships.

1. The relationship between descriptions of the superintendent's behavior as a leader obtained from the members of his board of education, the members of his immediate staff, and the superintendent himself.
2. The relationships between the expectations of the board members, the staff, and the superintendent himself in respect to how he should behave as a leader.
3. The relationship between descriptions of how the superintendent actually behaved as a leader and expectations of how he should behave.

Essentially the groups agreed on the leadership ideology of the superintendent. Effective leadership behavior was characterized by high scores on initiating and consideration, while the reverse was true of ineffective leadership. In short, the effective leader was one who clearly delineated the group, and established well-defined patterns of

organization, channels of communication, and ways of getting the job done, and whose behavior at the same time reflected friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth in the relationships between himself and the members of the group (Halpin, 1956). It is important to state that the expectations of superintendents and the real behavior of superintendents fell significantly short of this ideal.

In summary, it is evident that the Ohio State Leadership studies made a major contribution to the study of leadership. The LBDQ made research with larger groups possible, and the factors of consideration and initiating structure made it possible to describe the qualities of leadership. However, one major essential area was not accomplished, identifying potential leaders based on their knowledge of the leadership process.

Based on these findings, several theories added to and enriched the concepts developed in the Ohio State Leadership studies. Consideration and initiating structure were key determinants in the development of these theories which some have advocated as the single best style of leadership. One such study was conducted by Blake and Mouton (1964) which is known as the Managerial Grid.

The Managerial Grid was concerned with defining what it was that was managed in an organization. Once this was identified, Blake and Mouton (1964) examined possibilities for the improvement of the

organization. They proposed three organizational universals: organizational purposes, people, and power or hierarchy. Essentially the latter represented the supervision of people by some type of boss. The universals are represented graphically on a 9 by 9 grid (figure 5).

These five ideal types are numbered by degrees of concern. In situational terms, according to Reddin (1971), the ideal type of manager behavior is described on the grid position as:

1.1 - Impoverished exertion of minimum effort to get required work done is appropriate to sustain organizational membership.

1.9 - Country Club thoughtful attention to needs of people for satisfying relationships leads to a comfortable friendly organization atmosphere and work tempo.

9.1 - Task efficiency in operations results from arranging conditions of work in such a way that human elements interfere to a minimum degree.

9.9 - Team work accomplishment is from committed people; interdependence through a common stake in organization purpose leads to relationships of trust and respect.

5.5 - Middle of the road. Adequate organization performance is possible through balancing the necessity to get out work while maintaining morale of people at a satisfactory level (p. 9).

The universals are represented as concern for people on the vertical axis and concern for production on the horizontal axis. The points of interaction represent how the boss applied concern for people or production to achieve organizational purposes.

In summary, Blake and Mouton (1978) took strong exception to situational leadership theories. They did not feel a manager should change positions of leadership style based on the situation. It was their belief that the best way to manage was team management approach,

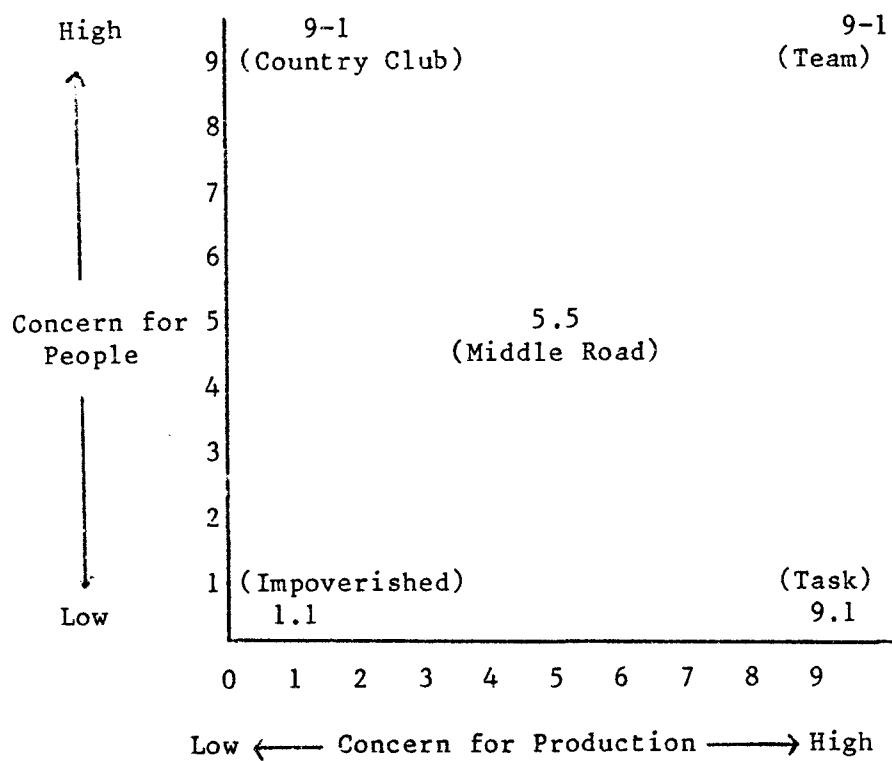


Figure 5. The managerial grid leadership styles (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982, p. 96)

which for them is management style 9.9, because it was based on maximum concern for people and production. Further research investigating the importance of relationship behavior was conducted by Rensis Likert and his development of the System Four Management theory.

Likert and his colleagues at the Institute for Social Research at the University of Michigan emphasized the need to consider both human resources and capital resources as assets requiring proper management. The Likert Leadership Model was closely related to the human relations models with the exception that he recognized situational variables.

Likert's work evolved from a number of studies that he reviewed in his first major publication, New Patterns of Management (1961). He conducted a meta-analysis of a number of studies dealing with productivity and the job-centered versus the employee-centered manager. Although the conclusions did not always support the employee-centered manager, it was generally concluded that managers who were helpful, used general supervision, and were employee-centered, were more likely to have higher-producing sections. Likert was definitely interested in production and the variables that produce greater effectiveness within the organization.

System Four Management (Likert, 1967) was based on the use of the principle of supportive relationships, the use of group decision-making and group methods of supervision, and the manager's high performance goals. The organization was arranged in working groups rather than typical man-to-man supervision. The work groups were overlapping

within the organizational structure in order to develop a linking pin. This concept allowed for two-way interaction or communication within various levels of the organization. The group process of decision-making and supervision allowed for communication on important decisions. The groups were concerned with high productivity, high quality, and low costs. At the same time, the manager was accountable for all decisions, for their execution, and for results. Likert styles of organization can be depicted on a continuum through four systems:

System 1 is a task-oriented, highly structured authoritarian management style.

System 4 is a relationship-oriented management style based on teamwork, mutual trust, and confidence.

Systems 2 and 3 are intermediate stages between the two extremes.

However, prior to implementing System Four Management, a number of situational variables must be understood. System Four can work only when each person in an organization is a member of one or more effectively functioning work groups that have a high level of group loyalty, effective skills, and high performance goals.

Other situational requirements which impose limitations on the decision-making process must be considered. It is the responsibility of the leader to make the decision if the group is divided in their opinion on a given topic. However, in some instances, the leader may disagree with the group and may try to sway the group in another direction. In any case, if the leader decides to follow the group

concerns, the responsibility for the outcome is the leader's. The final variable to consider is time. In certain cases the time factor for reaching a decision does not provide sufficient time for research and discussion through the group process. In those instances the leader must make the decision (Likert, 1961).

In summary, Likert's System Four was concerned with the humanistic element and production. It stated that proper concern for the employee, with a means to provide for group decisions and two-way communication, would result in higher production when the group and the manager were dedicated to the goals of the organization.

As a result of this humanistic approach to management, a problem began to emerge for the modern manager. The manager became very concerned about how one could act democratically with followers and at the same time maintain the necessary control and authority within the organization in order to complete specified tasks. As a result of research and training, there was a question as to the efficiency of highly directive leadership and an increasing emphasis on problems concerning the motivation and needs of followers. The end result of this left a manager with some confusion and concerns. The manager was often divided between exerting strong directive leadership or laissez faire permissive leadership. Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958) offered some relief to these confused managers by presenting a concept of a range of possible behaviors available to the manager.

Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958) developed a theory offering different patterns of leadership behavior that a manager could choose from in relating himself to his subordinates. This was a reaction to the assumptions concerning leadership as being either democratic or authoritarian. Their concept of observed leadership behavior over a continuum (authoritarian to a democratic leader) was based upon three factors a manager should consider in deciding how to lead his group. These were (p. 65):

1. Forces in the manager
 - a. leader's value system
 - b. leader's confidence in subordinates
 - c. leader's inclination
 - d. leader's feeling of insecurity in an uncertain situation
2. Forces in the subordinate
 - a. high need for independence
 - b. readiness to assume responsibility for decision making
 - c. interest in problem and feelings that it is important
 - d. identity with goals of the organization
 - e. knowledge and expertise to deal with problems
 - f. expectations in sharing decisions
 - g. confidence in the leader

3. Forces in the situation
 - a. type of organization
 - b. group effectiveness
 - c. problem itself
 - d. pressure of time

Therefore, before a manager could make a decision the three forces had to be considered. Depending upon these forces, the manager could apply the degree of supervision needed to attain the task desired. The forces of manager authority and subordinate freedom are depicted in figure 6.

This continuum moved from a highly autocratic process to that of a process in which the group made decisions within prescribed limits. The leader had to make a choice as to what point on this continuum would be used by the manager.

It is obvious from this information that managers were even anxious about their responsibility and the effectiveness of their followers to complete a given task. Along with this concern the managers were conscious of the motivation and needs of their followers. Several writers began to address themselves to these situational concerns which opened a new field of leadership study called contingency management.

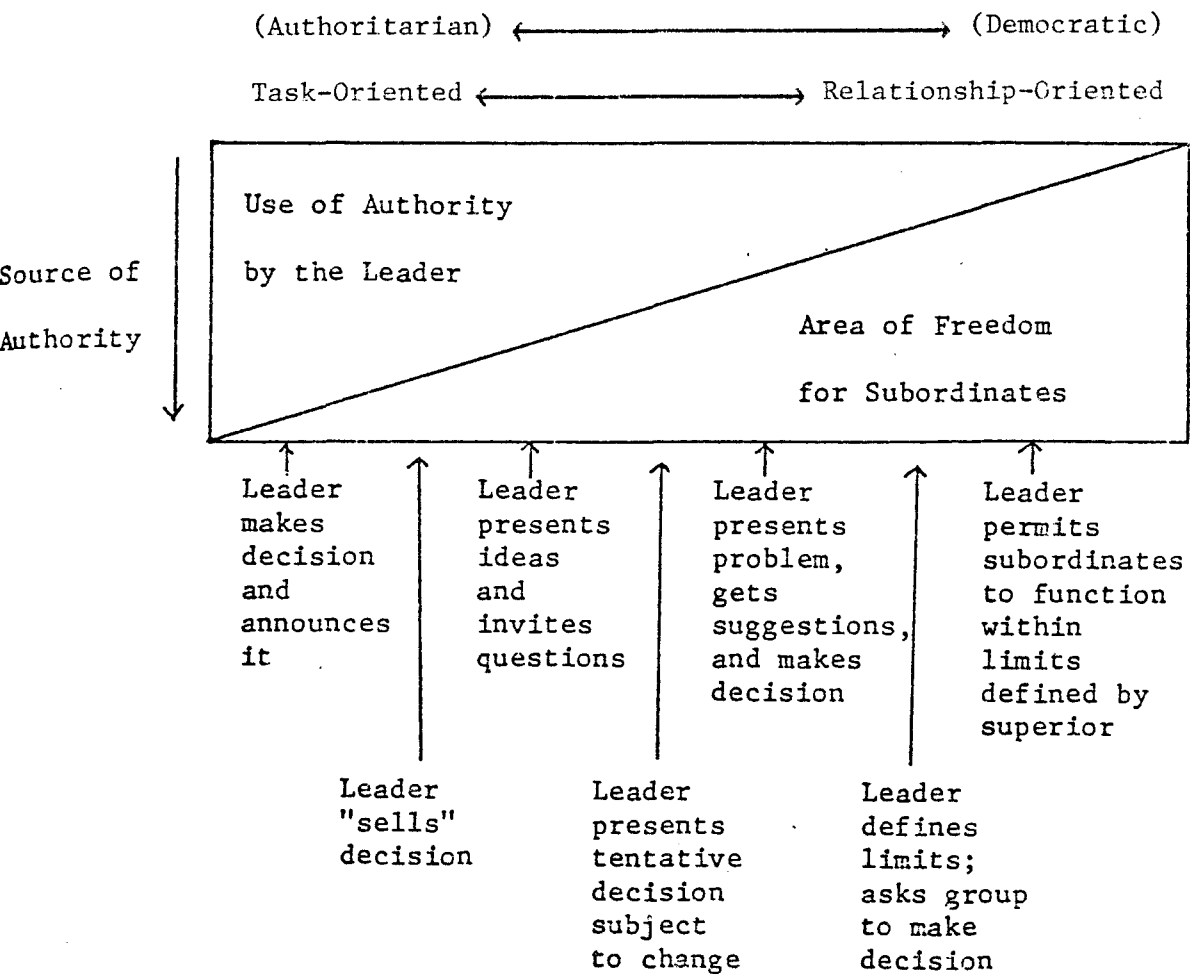


Figure 6. Continuum of leader behavior
(Hersey & Blanchard, 1982, p. 92)

Contingency Leadership Studies

One such researcher, Fred Fiedler (1967), in an attempt to categorize leadership styles in terms of decisive and participatory styles, based his theory on specific circumstances under which various leadership styles are most appropriate, indicating that one style does not fit all situations. His Contingency Model theory "...postulates that effectiveness of a group is contingent upon the relationship between leadership style and the degree to which the group situation enables the leader to exert influence" (p. 13). He defined leadership style "...as the underlying need structure of the individual which motivates his behavior in various leadership situations" (p. 15).

The Contingency theory postulated two major leadership styles: primarily task oriented and primarily relationship oriented. Fiedler measured leadership styles by use of interpersonal perception scores on a questionnaire that asked the leader to describe his most and least preferred co-worker or LPC (least preferred co-worker). He found that:

...task oriented type of leadership style is more effective on group situations which are either very favorable for the leader or which are very unfavorable. The relationship oriented leadership style is more effective in situations which are intermediate in favorableness. Favorableness of a situation is defined as the degree to which the situation enables the leader to exert influence over his group (p. 20).

To analyze the group with which he is going to work, the leader needs to determine the following factors about the group and choose his style accordingly and/or change the composition of the group or the situation (figure 7). The factors in order of importance are:

1. Leader member personal relationship
2. Task structure
3. Position power of the leader.

Leader-member relations are the degree to which a leader is personally liked and accepted. It is undoubtedly the single most important factor determining interactions between the leader and his group.

Task structure is normally thought of in two dimensions, highly structured or unstructured. Some situations have highly regimented tasks while others require creativity and development before the task is clearly identified.

Position power is the ability of the leader to command respect and loyalty along with the authority to carry out the responsibility of the leader. In some situations groups demand exertive leadership while others require more permissive leadership.

With these concepts in mind, it is necessary to see how the concept of situational favorableness and leadership style interact. It has been found that when a leader is well liked, has a clearly defined task, and is in a powerful position, he/she is in a highly favorable position to complete the assigned task. In reverse, a leader who is

Effective style	→ Task-oriented		Relations-oriented				Task-oriented	
Leader influence	→ Favorable			Intermediate				Unfavorable
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Leader-member relations		Good			Moderate			Poor
Task structure	Structured		Unstructured		Structured		Unstructured	
Leader position power	S*	W**	S*	W**	S*	W**	S*	W**

*S = Strong

**W = Weak

Figure 7. Fiedler's contingency theory of leadership
(Fiedler, 1967, p. 54)

disliked, has a vague task, and is powerless is in a very poor position. Further, Fiedler (1965) postulated that in very favorable or unfavorable situations in which the task must be accomplished by group effort, the autocratic, task-oriented, managing leader works best. In situations of moderate difficulty or with less structure, the non-directive, permissive, relation-oriented leader is more successful.

In summary, Fiedler used his Contingency theory to analyze the impact of training and experience on leadership effectiveness. He concluded that what training actually increased was not leadership effectiveness, but the favorability of the leader's situation. A second researcher who was concerned with effectiveness and the ability of the leader to change his style was William Reddin.

William Reddin (1971) developed a theory of managerial effectiveness referred to as 3-D theory. He clearly called his theory a situational theory. The term 3-D referred to the most effective leadership style since it was a style that integrated three dimensions of behavior in Reddin's theory. Using dimensions of leadership behavior, task orientation (TO), and relationship orientation (RO), he developed four leadership styles of behavior (figure 8).

As previous behavioral studies indicated, Reddin utilized the concept that any one style is not effective in all situations. He then introduced a third dimension, effectiveness, indicating that effectiveness of a style depends on the situation in which it is used. Therefore, each of his four basic styles, related, integrated,

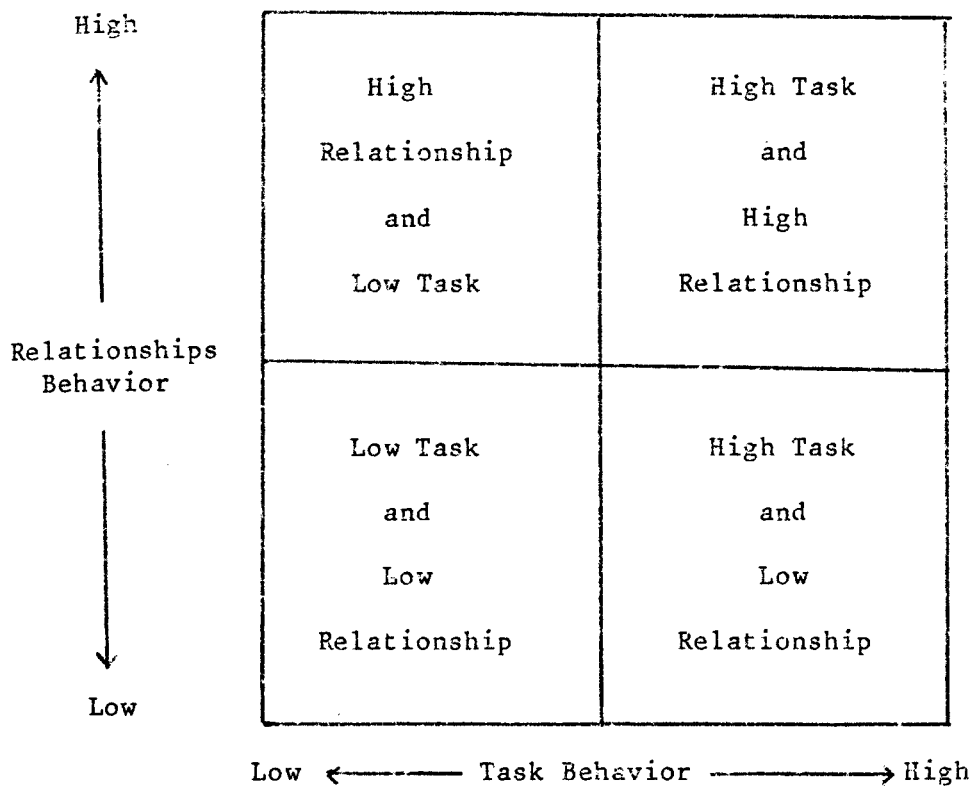


Figure 8. Basic leader behavior styles
(Hersey & Blanchard, 1982, p. 107)

separated, and dedicated, have a less effective and more effective equivalent resulting in four less effective and four more effective leadership styles.

The dedicated manager tended to dominate others. He was classified as high task and low relationship. This person identifies with the organization, tends to emphasize the technical rather than the human system, and is highly production-oriented.

The integrated manager likes to be a part of the work situation, is concerned about communication, and emphasizes good teamwork. Generally, this person would be classified as high task and high relationship.

The related manager accepts his subordinates as he finds them. He generally is not overly concerned about time and production and views the organization as a social system. This person is considered to be low task and high relationship.

Finally, the separated manager is concerned about status quo, generally writes all communications, and has little personal contact with subordinates. Generally, this manager identifies with the organization as a whole and is considered to be low task and low relationship.

Reddin (1970) added the dimension of effectiveness and ineffectiveness to these basic styles. In certain cases, the basic style can be effective and appropriate under certain conditions.

The following are less effective and more effective styles in relation to Reddin's basic styles:

<u>Less Effective</u>	<u>Basic Style</u>	<u>More Effective</u>
Compromiser	Integrated	Executive
Autocrat	Dedicated	Benevolent Autocrat
Missionary	Related	Developer
Deserter	Separated	Bureaucrat

In order to understand the effectiveness dimension of each of these basic styles, one should examine the continuum of ineffective-effective.

The compromiser understands advantages of being oriented to task and relationship behavior but is unwilling to make decisions, while the effective counterpart, the executive, maximizes efforts of others in relationship to long- and short-term goals.

The autocrat puts the immediate task before all other considerations at the expense of all relationships, while the benevolent autocrat is self-assured regarding the ability to do the job. This person is concerned with long- and short-range goals while having the ability to induce others to do what is needed without creating resentment.

Inversely, the missionary puts harmony and relationships above all other considerations. This person's ineffectiveness stems from failure to take risks that may disrupt order and bring about higher

production. The developer, on the other hand, places trust in people, develops the talents of others, and provides a work atmosphere conducive to maximum satisfaction and motivation of the individual.

The deserter often displays a lack of interest in both task and relationship. This attitude creates a morale problem with subordinates. The bureaucrat does not display interest either, but follows the rules and policies which makes him effective.

Effectiveness is determined by the qualities that a manager possesses. These qualities are in terms of skills the manager must possess as no one style is always effective. Reddin (1970) states that "three managerial skills are necessary if the manager is to be effective; namely, Situational Sensitivity, Style Flexibility, and Situational Management skill" (p. 15).

Situational sensitivity means the manager must be able to read and diagnose the situation in order to match leadership style to the needs of the situation. Style flexibility is the manager's skill to use a number of styles as varying situations present themselves.

According to Reddin, these eight managerial styles then are not eight additional kinds of behavior. They are the names given to the four basic styles when used appropriately or inappropriately. Through the use of both basic and managerial styles, 3-D distinguishes sharply between behavior and effectiveness of behavior. In his 3-D Management Style theory, Reddin was the first to add an effectiveness dimension to the task concern and relationship concern dimensions of

earlier attitudinal models such as the Managerial Grid. His pioneer work influenced the development of the Tri-Dimensional Leader Effectiveness Model which postulated that a variety of styles may be effective or ineffective depending upon the situation.

Through adding an effectiveness dimension to the task behavior and relationship behavior dimensions of the earlier Ohio State Leadership Model, Reddin integrated the concepts of leader style with situational demands of a specific environment. When the style of a leader is appropriate to a given situation, it is termed effective; when the style is inappropriate to a given situation, it is termed ineffective. Therefore, if the effectiveness of a leader-behavior style depends upon the situation in which it is used, it follows that any of the basic styles may be effective or ineffective depending upon the situation. The difference between the effective and ineffective styles is often not the actual behavior of the leader but the appropriateness of this behavior to the environment in which it is used. The third dimension is the environment which, depending on the interaction of the basic style, results in the degree of effectiveness or ineffectiveness.

According to Hersey and Blanchard (1982) concerning the Reddin Model, it is important to keep in mind that the third dimension is the environment in which the leader is operating. One might think of the leader's basic style as a particular stimulus, and it is the response to this stimulus that can be considered effective or ineffective. Also,

it is an important part because theorists and practitioners who argue that there is one best style of leadership are making value judgments about the stimulus, while those taking a situational approach to leadership are evaluating the response or the results rather than the stimulus. This concept is illustrated in the diagram below (figure 9).

Effectiveness appears to be an either/or situation in this model; in reality it should be represented as a continuum. Any given style in a particular situation could fall somewhere on this continuum from extremely effective to extremely ineffective. Therefore, effectiveness is a matter of degree and there could be an infinite number of forces on the effectiveness dimension rather than only three. To demonstrate this fact, the effectiveness dimension has been divided into quartiles ranging on the effective side from +1 to +4 and on the ineffective side from -1 to -4 (Greene, 1979). The four effective and the four ineffective styles are, in essence, how appropriate a leader's basic style is to a given situation as seen by followers and associates. Table 1 briefly describes one of the many different ways each style might be perceived as effective or ineffective by others (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982).

In summary, the effectiveness of the leader will depend on the appropriate behavior he/she is to choose to match the situation. Reddin lists the skills a leader needs to use in order to diagnose and, if necessary, change the situation. These skills are:

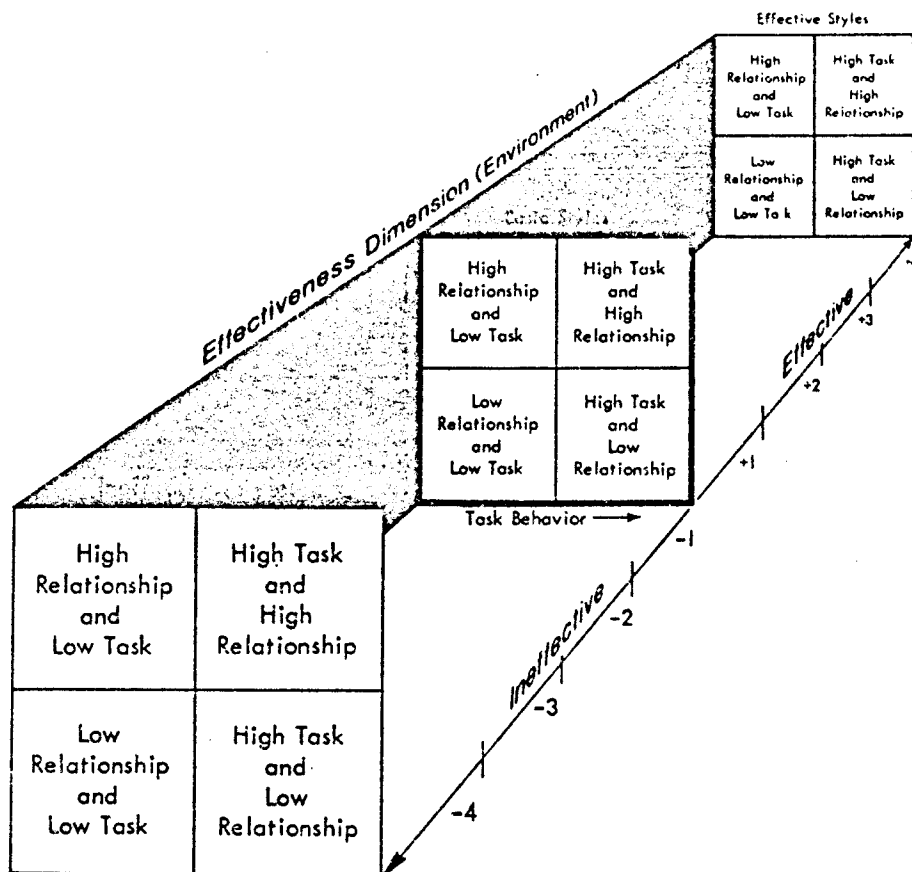


Figure 9. Reddin's Tridimensional Leader Effectiveness Model (Reddin, 1970, p. 97)

Table 1. How the basic leader behavior styles may be seen by others when they are effective or ineffective

(Hersey & Blanchard, 1982, p. 107)

Basic Styles	Effective	Ineffective
High task and low relationship (telling)	Seen as having well-defined methods for accomplishing goals that are helpful to the followers	Seen as imposing methods on others; sometimes seen as unpleasant, and interested only in short-run output
High task and high relationship (selling)	Seen as satisfying the needs of the group for setting goals and organizing work, but also providing high levels of socio-emotional support	Seen as initiating more structure than is needed by the group and often appears not to be genuine in interpersonal relationships
High relationship and low task (participating)	Seen as having implicit trust in people and as being primarily concerned with facilitating their goal accomplishment	Seen as primarily interested in harmony; sometimes seen as unwilling to accomplish a task if it risks disrupting a relationship or losing "good person" image
Low relationship and low task (delegating)	Seen as appropriately delegating to subordinates decisions about how the work should be done and providing little socioemotional support where little is needed by the group	Seen as providing little structure or socio-emotional support when needed by members of the group

1. Style flex - leader's flexibility to change his style to fit the situation.
2. Situational sensitivity - skill to read the situation.
3. Situational management skill - skill to change the situation if it needs to be changed.

Both style flex and situational management skills were direct reflections of Fiedler's Contingency theory. Ideal leadership styles which were most effective were developer, bureaucratic, benevolent dictator, and executive. All of these styles integrate a high level of RO and TO dimensions. Finally, Reddin felt that his 3-D theory could be used to train better managers.

Reddin's research indicated a positive response in answer to the general problem of this thesis. Did an effective leader utilize more than one leadership style in dealing with his followers? The purpose of this study was to examine the model of Situational Leadership Theory; namely, that the leader's effectiveness resulted from the adaptation of leadership style to the follower's task-relevant maturity. Recent Situational Leadership research indicated that task-relevant maturity was closely related to the needs of the followers. The stated problem in this research involves the concept of not only leadership effectiveness and style, but also follower maturity. A possible solution was found in Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory.

This theory maintained that the leader should engage in different combinations of task and relationship behavior depending upon the maturity of members of the group in relation to a specific task. According to their model, task behavior organized and defined the roles of followers and explained what, when, where, and how tasks were to be accomplished (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982).

Originally, the theory was called the Life Cycle Theory of Leadership (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969) and emphasized the follower as well as the leader. It was concerned with the amount of structure and socioemotional support necessary in relation to the maturity of the follower. It was felt that as the leader and follower developed a mutual trust and respect, the leader and follower would experience developmental changes in their relationships through a process that would develop a mature and effective follower. It was the belief of the authors that,

An organization is a unique living organism whose basic component is the individual and this individual is our fundamental unit of study. Thus, our concentration is on the interaction of people, motivation, and leadership (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982, p. 14).

Hersey and Blanchard's (1982) most recent work, Situational Leadership Theory, was described theoretically and practically so it could be used by practicing leaders to understand and hopefully modify their leadership styles.

As did other situational theorists, Hersey and Blanchard (1982) reaffirmed their position regarding the need for more than a single style of leadership. They stated:

The multiplicity of role demands require today's educational administrator to be an adaptive leader; that is - an individual who has the ability to vary his leadership behavior appropriately in differing situations. Although early literature in educational administration and management seemed to suggest a single ideal or normative style, the preponderance of evidence from recent empirical studies clearly indicates that there is no single all-purpose leadership style. Successful leaders are those who can adapt their leader behavior to meet the demands of their own unique environment (p. 309).

Hersey and Blanchard were concerned with the process of management which leads to the accomplishment of organizational goals and objectives. They stated that management is a special kind of leadership in which accomplishment of organizational goals is paramount.

Leadership (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982) was defined as:

The process of influencing the activities of an individual or a group in efforts toward goal achievement in a given situation. From this definition of leadership, it follows that the leadership process is a function of the leader, the follower, and other situational variables (p. 84).

To be an effective leader one must possess three key skills. The skills are technical skill, which refers to the process required to perform specific tasks; human skill, which refers to the ability and judgment to work through people; and conceptual skill, which refers to the ability to understand the overall organization and the place of one's own responsibility within an organization (Katz, 1955).

With these points in mind, let us examine the major concepts of Situational Leadership theory. As with most of the theories which have been reviewed, the basic theoretical concepts came from the research of

the Ohio State Leadership Studies. The elements of initiating structure and consideration were identical to task and relationship behaviors.

Hersey and Blanchard (1982) defined task behavior as:

The extent to which leaders are likely to organize and define roles of members of their group (followers); who explain what activities each is to do and when, where and how tasks are to be accomplished; characterized by endeavoring to establish well defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and ways to getting jobs accomplished.

Relationship behavior is defined as:

The extent to which leaders are likely to maintain personal relationships between themselves and members of their group (followers) by opening up channels of communication, providing socio-emotional support, psychological strokes, and facilitating behavior (p. 103-104).

Based on Situational Leadership Theory, these behaviors were not seen as either/or behaviors but as varying combinations to meet the needs of the situation.

The amount of each of these behaviors resulted in the development of four leadership styles:

High Task/Low Relationship was referred to as telling because it was characterized by one-way communication in which the leader defined the roles of followers and told them what, how, when, and where to do various tasks.

High Task/High Relationship Behavior was referred to as selling because with this style most of the direction was still provided by the leader. He or she also attempted through two-way communication and socioemotional support to stimulate the follower(s) into accepting decisions that had been made.

High Relationship/Low Task Behavior was called participating because with this style the leader and the follower(s) shared in decision-making through two-way communication and much facilitating behavior from the leader since the follower(s) had the ability and knowledge to perform the task.

Low Relationship/Low Task Behavior was labeled delegating because the style allowed follower(s) to "run his own show" through delegation and general supervision since the follower(s) was high in both task and psychological maturity.

Situational Leadership Theory was based on the strength of these behaviors in relation to a third factor of follower maturity. Maturity was defined by Hersey and Blanchard (1982),

...as the capacity to set high but attainable goals (achievement-motivation), willingness and ability to take responsibility, and education and/or experience of an individual or a group (p. 161).

Figure 10 shows the relationship of group maturity to a particular task. The leader engaged in high task/low relationship behavior (S1) with that group. A very mature (M4) group required low task/low relationship (S4) behavior from the leader. The effective leader was one who accurately assessed the group's maturity and adapted the leader

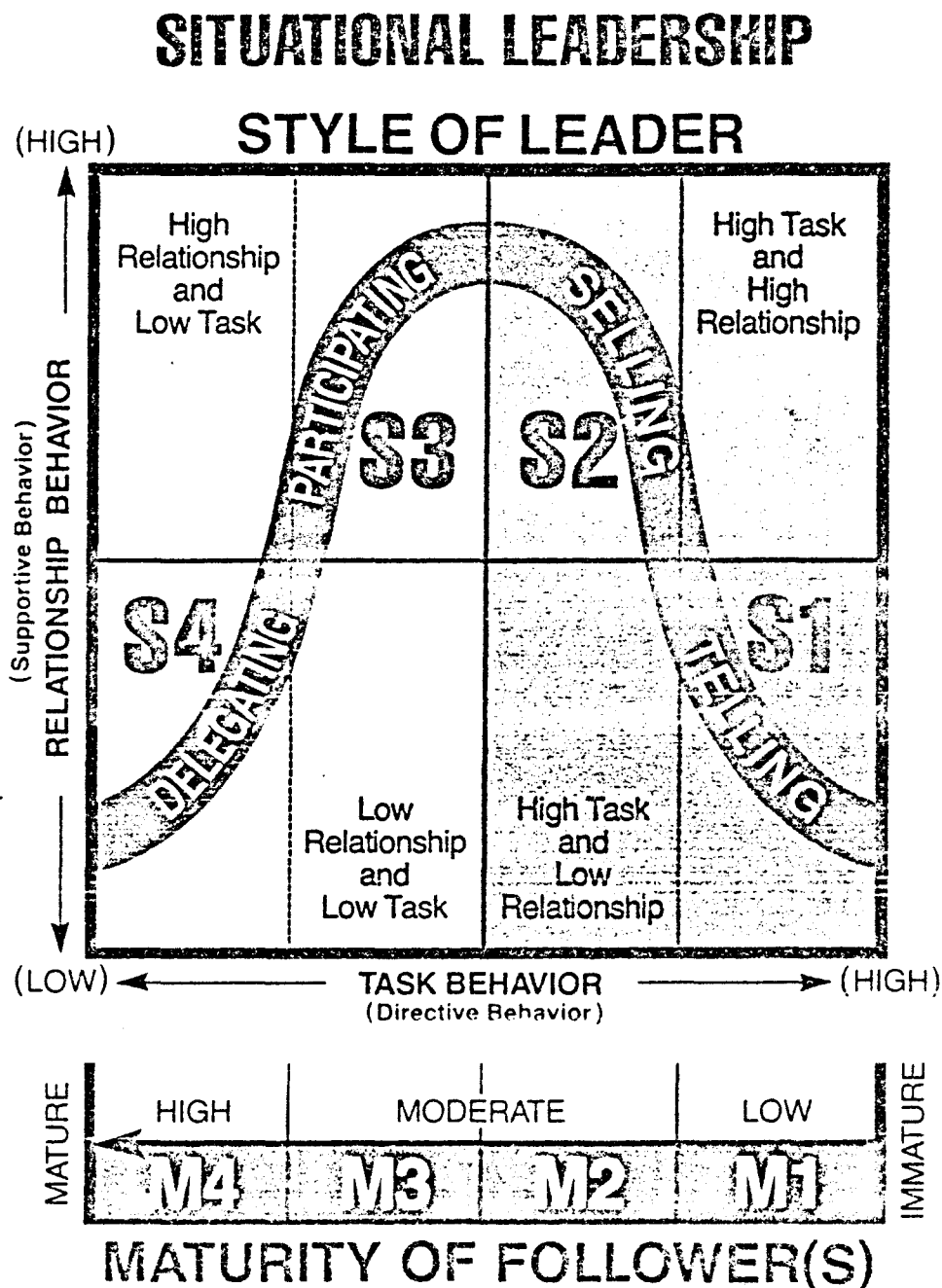


Figure 10. Leadership styles (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982, p. 194)

behavior accordingly. As the level of maturity of the followers continued to increase in terms of task accomplishment, leaders began to reduce their task behavior. These variables of maturity would be considered only in relation to a specific task to be performed. That is to say, an individual or a group was not mature or immature in any total sense. People tended to have varying degrees of maturity depending on the specific task, function, or objective that a leader was attempting to accomplish through their efforts. Thus, a teacher may have been very responsible in organizing lesson plans but very casual about handling discipline in the classroom. As a result, it may have been appropriate for a principal to provide little supervision for this teacher when organizing the classroom curriculum, yet closely supervise when class discipline was the issue.

In other words according to Situational Leadership Theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982), the level of maturity of their followers continued to increase in terms of accomplishing a specific task and leaders began to reduce their task behavior and increase their relationship behavior. This would have been the case until the individual or group reached a moderate level of maturity. As the followers began to move into an above average level of maturity, it became appropriate for leaders to decrease not only task behavior but relationship behavior as well. Now the individual or group was not only mature in terms of the performance of the task but also is psychologically mature.

Since the individual and group provided their own strokes and reinforcement, a great deal of socioemotional support from the leader was no longer necessary. People at this maturity level saw a reduction of close supervision and an increase in delegation by the leader as a positive indication of trust and confidence. Thus, Situational Leadership Theory focused on the appropriateness or effectiveness of leadership styles according to the task-relevant maturity of the followers. This cycle was illustrated by a bell-shaped curve superimposed upon the four leadership quadrants, as shown in figure 10. It meant that as the maturity level of one's followers develops along the continuum from immature to mature, the appropriate style of leadership moved accordingly along the curvilinear function (figure 10).

To determine which leadership style was appropriate to use in a given situation, one had to determine first the maturity level of the individual or group in relation to a specific task that the leader was attempting to accomplish through their efforts. Once this maturity level was identified, the appropriate leadership style could be determined by constructing a right angle (90 degree angle) from the point on the continuum that identified the maturity level of the followers to a point where it intersected on the curvilinear function in the style of the leader portion of the model. The quadrant in which that intersection took place suggested the appropriate style to be used by the leader in that situation with followers of that maturity level. Let us look at an example in figure 10.

Suppose a superintendent has determined that a principal's maturity level in terms of administrative paper work (reports, attendance records) is low. Using Situational Leadership Theory, he or she would place an X on the maturity continuum as shown in figure 10 (above M1). Once the superintendent had decided that he or she wanted to influence the principal's behavior in this area, the superintendent could determine the appropriate initial style to use by constructing a right angle from the X drawn on the maturity continuum to a point where it intersects the bell-shaped curve (designated in figure 10 by O). Since the intersection occurred in the S1 quadrant, it is suggested that when working with people who demonstrated M1 maturity on a particular task, a leader would use an S1 style (high task/low relationship behavior). If one followed this technique for determining the appropriate leadership style for all four of the maturity levels, it would become clear that the four maturity designations (M1, M2, M3, M4) corresponded to the four leader behavior designations (S1, S2, S3, S4); that is, M1 maturity needed S1 style, M2 maturity needed S2 style, etc.

In this example, low relationship behavior did not mean that the superintendent was not friendly or personable to the principal. It was suggested that the superintendent, in supervising the principal's handling of administrative paper work, should spend more time directing the principal in what to do and how, when, and where to do it, than providing socioemotional support and reinforcement. The increased

relationship behavior should occur when the principal begins to demonstrate the ability to handle necessary administrative paper work. At that point, a movement from Style 1 to Style 2 may be appropriate.

Situational Leadership Theory contended that in working with people who were low in maturity (M1) in terms of accomplishing a specific task, a high task/low relationship (S1) had the highest probability of success; in dealing with people who were of low to moderate maturity (M2), a moderate structure and socio-emotional style (S2) appeared to be most appropriate; while in working with people who were of moderate to high maturity (M3) in terms of accomplishing a specific task, a high relationship/low task style (S3) had the highest probability of success; and finally, a low relationship/low task style (S4) had the highest probability of success in working with people of high task relevant maturity (M4). Thus Situational Leadership was the interaction between the amount of direction and socioemotional support in relation to the needs of the follower. Needs in this case were in relation to the maturity of the individual to perform and be confident in that performance.

The leader diagnosed the situation to determine the maturity of followers. It was advocated that as the maturity of followers increased in terms of accomplishment of specific tasks, the leader would begin to reduce task behavior and increase relationship behavior. The reverse was true in cases where the individual or group was less mature.

As followers became above-average in maturity, it was expected that the leader should reduce both task and relationship behaviors. It was felt that a person or group that had achieved this level of sophistication was able to provide personal direction and those necessary psychological strokes. Essentially, Situational Leadership Theory states that when a leader diagnosed a particular situation and chose a style that was most appropriate to that situation, the result was a highly effective interaction of leadership style and follower maturity which resulted in the ultimate in production.

Cawelti (1979) stated that "the maturity level is an insufficient determinant of leadership style" (p. 377). He felt it was an important factor which was not developed in the well known Ohio State Studies on initiating structure and consideration behavior, nor was it used in Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid where the most appropriate style demonstrated equal concern for people and production. For Cawelti, a more difficult aspect of leadership training was the matter of appropriate relationship behavior. He stated,

People can be trained to improve task behavior such as goal setting, structuring work, etc., more easily than to learn how to use praise and socioemotional support (relationship behavior) effectively (p. 400).

The question then arose: Can an individual change his leadership style? Leadership style, as used in the literature, was frequently defined by two major leader behaviors, consideration and structure. It was the perceived behavior pattern that a person exhibits when attempting to influence the activities of others. These

behaviors, identified by Halpin (1957) in the Ohio State University Studies, are measured by asking subordinates to rate behaviors. While some people tended to be more democratic and considerate or directive and structuring in their approach than others, Fiedler (1965) in a article considered to what extent these behaviors could be changed at will as required by many leadership training programs. He feels that there is little evidence that this can be done. One reason was that individuals did not see themselves accurately, that is, as others see them.

To illustrate this perception problem, Fiedler (1967) described a study by I. R. Gochman in which self-descriptions of considerate and structuring behaviors from 40 leaders of small military units were obtained. Gochman then asked the leaders' subordinates to describe the leaders' behaviors on an identical questionnaire. Although the leaders and subordinates were in close daily contact, the correlation between leader- and member-described consideration scores was only 0.23 and that for structuring was only 0.18, neither being significant.

Fiedler concludes that "it seems highly unlikely, therefore, that these leaders can choose to change their behavior in a specific way that will be apparent to the members of the group" (p. 395). He felt that the goal of training be construed as teaching leaders to modify their situations rather than their leadership style in order to bring about improved organization performance.

According to Huckaby (1980), situational models, as proposed by Fiedler and Hersey and Blanchard, were based on a need to recognize that the appropriateness of any leadership style depended on the extent to which it was suited to the situation. These models provided knowledge in the form of conceptual tools that assisted leaders in understanding the relationship between certain situational demands and leader effectiveness. "Knowledgeable leaders possess many tools and have the ability to employ them appropriately" (p. 615).

Using the constructs in their model, Hersey and Blanchard required more data to support their hypotheses regarding Situational Leadership theory. Consequently, they developed the Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description instrument which will be discussed in detail in Chapter III. Basically, this instrument was used by Hersey and Blanchard to help leaders examine their leadership style, style range and leadership effectiveness. These leadership variables will be extensively examined in the final phase of this literature review.

Situational Leadership Studies

The current writers researching Situational Leadership Theory have demonstrated that organizational leadership had two major dimensions--the performance of the organization and the socioemotional needs of persons in the organization. In addition, the majority of the evidence showed that no one style of leadership is consistently more

effective than another. Leaders perceived to be more effective are task-oriented at times and concerned with socio-emotional needs at other times. One such study which examined leadership style and effectiveness in a school setting was conducted by Smith (1975).

Smith found support for the precursor to Situational Leadership Theory, Hersey and Blanchard's Life Cycle Leadership Theory, in her investigation of the relationship between leader effectiveness and the existence of a match of leadership style with follower maturity in urban elementary schools. Follower maturity was defined as teacher's time competence and inner-directed support or independence, and was measured by a Personnel Orientation Inventory. Principals' leader effectiveness was defined in terms of three types of school district data: student achievement test scores, student attitudes about school, and teacher job satisfaction. Principals' leadership styles were identified by principal responses to the Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description.

Smith found significant positive correlations between effectiveness and Style 1 behavior when matched with low-level follower maturity and effectiveness, and Style 2 and 3 when matched with average-level follower maturity. Further, a stepwise regression of time-competence, task, and relationship as related to effectiveness showed the directions of the relationships to be as predicted by the

Life Cycle theory. Smith concluded that the findings suggested applicability of this theory in the selecting, pairing, and training of urban elementary school principals and staff.

Beck (1978) identified the teacher maturity level of his elementary school sample by teachers' and principals' responses to a maturity scale developed by Hambleton, Blanchard, and Hersey. He investigated the concept that leader effectiveness results from the adaptation of leadership style to follower task relevant maturity. A field test was designed with twenty-one elementary school principals and eighty-five teachers to research this Situational Leadership Theory major concept.

The conclusions reported were that there were strong indications that the maturity scale did not discriminate levels of the relevant maturity accurately. There were also questions about the instruments which measured leadership and effectiveness and the data collection procedure. As a result of these methodological problems, the researcher was unable to make a definitive statement about the validity of Situational Leadership theory. However, some conclusions were possible. First, there was a tendency for Style 2 (high relationship/high task) to be perceived as the most effective style regardless of the followers' maturity level. Second, the high relationship styles (S2-S3) were perceived to be significantly more effective than the low relationship styles (S1-S4) regardless of task-relevant maturity.

Clark (1981) also used the Hambleton, Blanchard and Hersey Maturity Scale to identify teacher maturity level, but had only the teacher participants respond to the instrument. He field-tested the Situational Leadership Theory Model using a sample of 50 principals, 275 teachers and 7 central office supervisors in a large city school district in Massachusetts. Each follower completed the leadership style and maturity scale instruments relative to a specific task generated by a state-mandated teacher evaluation program. The panel of seven central office supervisors provided leader effectiveness data on each principal. Clark reported:

In some cases leadership style/maturity level matches were correlated with high leader effectiveness; in other cases, style-maturity matches were associated with low leader effectiveness (p. 4900).

Again, the Maturity Scale appeared to fail to discriminate levels of maturity and the validity results were inconclusive. As in the Beck (1978) study, Styles 2, 3, and 4 were considered by teachers to be effective in some situations, with the high relationship styles (Styles 2 and 3) rated as most effective. Style 4 was considered least effective in many cases, even when matched with the theoretically appropriate maturity level. Style 3 was found to be the most prevalent style, i.e., the style exhibited most frequently by principals.

These conclusions suggest the need to conduct future research in various education settings with improved methodology and refined instrumentation. Further, Situational Leadership Theory should have perhaps been adapted for use in public school districts by compensating

for the apparent need of the followers for high relationship leader behaviors. Also, the concept of degree of difficulty should be integrated into the task-relevant component of the follower maturity level portion of the theory to encourage followers to report lower levels of maturity. In addition, the past and/or present leader/follower relationship should be factored into the leadership style portion of the Situational Leadership Theory.

Boucher (1980) examined the relationship between leader effectiveness and the existence of a match of leadership style with follower maturity in a college-level intramural/recreational sport environment. Maturity level of student followers was identified by student responses to an Ability to Perform Appraisal form, and leader effectiveness of program directors was identified by student responses to a Leadership Effectiveness Appraisal form. Leadership style was considered to be two dimensional, consisting of task-oriented and relationship-oriented behavior. Task relevant ability maturity was the psychological willingness and the technical, educational, or experimental capabilities to perform a job optimally. Leadership effectiveness was considered to be the dependent variable based upon the perception of the individual follower. A total of 174 leader-follower dyads from 120 randomly selected colleges and universities were used in the study.

The results of the study suggest the partial validation of the Situational Leadership Theory model. Matches were considered to be leader dyads where the leader style and followers task relevant ability

were congruent. A T-test yielded a T of 294, indicating there was a meaningful difference in the mean effectiveness of the Situational Leadership Theory variables. Boucher then conducted four separate analyses of each leadership quadrant. He discovered a statistically significant relationship in all but the Style 2 quadrant of high relationship and high task. Specifically, he grouped his data into leader style/follower maturity matches and nonmatches. He found mean effectiveness for the matched groups to be significantly higher than for the unmatched groups. However, when the interaction between match and effectiveness was analyzed separately for each leadership style, three of the four styles yielded nonsignificant results. Boucher concluded that the findings suggested partial validation of the Situational Leadership Theory Model in intramural/recreational sport environments.

Other studies investigated correlations of principals' leadership effectiveness with other variables. Fish (1981) investigated the relationship between principals' leadership styles and leader effectiveness as indicated by teacher satisfaction with the early childhood program in which they worked. Principals' leadership styles were identified using two versions of the Situational Leadership questionnaire: the LEAD-Self for the principals' responses, and the LEAD-Other for teachers' responses. Level of teacher satisfaction was identified through the use of a questionnaire designed by the researcher. This research method was somewhat different from all of the studies reported

in this review. All of the other studies chiefly used a quantitative design which was rooted in statistical procedures. The qualitative design of Fish relied on observation, interviews, and some quantitative procedures. She observed and interviewed directors, teachers, and parents from seven large child development centers. Fish also administered two leadership questionnaires, the LEAD-Self and LEAD-Other instruments (see Appendices A and B) in order to compare her findings.

The comparison of data produced some discrepancy between the questionnaire data and the interview data. Specifically, the questionnaires were reporting the traditional results, namely the support for relationship behavior and less task-relevant behavior. However, when she probed into the concerns and recommendations of her interview data, she discovered a strong support for task-relevant behavior from both leaders and followers. These results were in direct contrast to the findings of Beck and Clark. They both supported the concept that followers and leaders seldom preferred task-relevant behavior over relationship behavior. Beck, Clark and Fish determined effectiveness through the perceptions of followers concerning the leaders' behaviors, clearly suggesting that high relationship behaviors from leaders appeared to be needed by followers, independent of their task maturity level. Also, low relationship behavior by leaders appeared not to be

desired by followers at any maturity level. Conversely, "the perception of supervisors regarding leaders who do not behave in a Style 1 (high task/low relationship) and Style 4 (low task/low relationship) mode are perceived as ineffective" (p. 1469).

Diamond (1979) investigated the relationships between K-5 teachers' perceptions of the elementary principals' effectiveness in the utilization of situational leadership and the teachers' self-assessed levels of self-actualization. More specifically, an attempt was made to determine the following: (1) If there was a significant relationship between the effectiveness of the elementary principals' use of situational leadership behavior, as measured by Hersey and Blanchard's Leadership Effectiveness Adaptability Description (LEAD-Other) and K-5 teachers' level of self-actualization as measured by Shostrom's Personal Orientation Inventory (POI). (2) If teachers' perceptions of any variables within the LEAD-Other (style, style profile, style adaptability) were consistently identified with high levels of self-actualization. (3) If there were any subvariables within the POI which were consistently identified with high levels of LEAD adaptability.

From a sample of 116 classroom teachers (K-5) in a small district in Florida, data were collected utilizing Shostrom's Personal Orientation Inventory (POI) and Hersey and Blanchard's Leadership Effectiveness Adaptability Description (LEAD-Other) instruments. Diamond found no statistically significant relationship between effectiveness

scores and teachers' self-assessed levels of self-actualization. The LEAD-Other data of this study did indicate that teachers who perceived the principal as effective also perceived the principal's leadership behavior as a Style 2. Teachers who perceived the principal as ineffective perceived the leader behavior as Style 4. There was little difference between the number of teachers who viewed their principals' leadership behavior as Style 2 versus Style 4.

Diamond concluded his study with specific recommendations for further study. They included: (1) studies to determine if principals could be trained to vary their leadership style; (2) studies to determine the teachers' perceptions of their principals' actual behavior rather than through analysis of test scores only; and (3) studies to determine appropriate norms for teacher populations on the POI.

Weston (1979) conducted a study comparing elementary school principals' leadership effectiveness and styles with those of directors of elementary education using a Hersey and Blanchard instrument titled LEAD-Schools. Specifically, the study examined differences between elementary principals and directors of elementary education on variables of leadership effectiveness, leadership style, and style range in relation to school situations described in LEAD-Schools, an experimental instrument developed by Hersey, Blanchard and Hambleton.

The subjects were a random sample of elementary principals and all directors of elementary education in the Cooperating School District of the St. Louis Suburban Area. Each subject was mailed LEAD-Schools and asked to respond. The total sample was eighty-four elementary principals and directors of elementary education. The final sample included fifty-eight subjects or sixty-nine percent of the original sample.

Weston reported that the results of an analysis of variance indicated more similarities than differences between the two leader groups. On a forty-point effectiveness scale, the mean effectiveness score was 17.56 for principals and 15.92 for directors. Both groups had a dominant leadership style of high task/high relationship (Style 2) and both failed to use the style of low task/low relationship (Style 4) to any degree.

Walter et al. (1980) examined the validity issue by investigating the relationship between responses on a version of the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ-XII) and responses on a newly developed education version of LEAD-Self. It was assumed that both instruments would measure common constructs. The LEAD measures task and relationship behavior and the LBDQ-XII measures, among other dimensions, initiating structure and consideration. Their findings indicated that principals perceived by teachers as "always" initiating structure tended to have high task/low relationship (Style 1) responses on the LEAD-Self and did not have high effectiveness scores. Principals

perceived as "seldom" or "never" initiating structure tended to have low task/high relationship (Style 3) responses on the LEAD-Self. These findings were considered to be some indication of validity of the education version of the LEAD.

Further, principals indicating high task/low relationship behaviors (Style 1) were viewed by teachers as considerate, whereas principals indicating high task/high relationship behaviors (Style 2) were perceived as being able to reconcile conflicting demands. Principals indicating high relationship/low task behavior (Style 3) were viewed unfavorably by teachers. Teachers saw them as not assuming their proper role, and as unable to reconcile conflicting demands, tolerate uncertainty, or predict outcomes accurately. Principals indicating low task/low relationship behaviors (Style 4) were perceived as emphasizing production.

Summary

Leadership in general and effective leadership were the focus of investigation and research. Research in leadership was divided into three distinct periods. The first period (pre-Ohio State Leadership Studies) focused on theories which sought to identify specific personality traits which distinguished leaders from non-leaders, while the second period (Ohio State Leadership Studies) focused on leadership style theories. The researchers attempted to find a particular leadership style that was the most effective. The development of the

Ohio State Model which proposed two dimensions, initiating structure and consideration, was used to form a matrix for the development of four different leadership styles. However, the variety of the studies which tested four different styles indicated that there was no one single style which proved to be universally the most effective.

The third period (Contingency Leadership Studies) of research in the field of leadership dealt with the most recent theories, situational theories. The essence of these theories was that no one leadership style was best; but rather, one particular style would be most effective in a specific situation.

During the last fifteen years, Situational Leadership Theory has enjoyed support in industrial and educational settings. However, of the major theories, Fiedler's Contingency Theory is the only situational theory that has been validated. Even so, it seemed to be the theory with the least applicability. Research indicated that Situational Leadership Theory, by using the four basic styles from years of research of the Ohio State Studies, allowed for greater leadership behavior than the contingency model. Also it was developmental in nature which could be used to facilitate both personal and organizational growth. Analysis of the review of this literature seemed to suggest that Situational Leadership Theory was very comprehensive, practical, and rooted in sound leadership research. However, as indicated in the most current research regarding Situational Leadership Theory, the theory was unable to solicit the maturity

factors of followers accurately with the current method of collecting data. Therefore, its major limitation was that it had not been subjected to research which could validate its major premises.

Regardless, Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory has been accepted by a wide range of people in various work environments. This acceptance verified and supported Situational Leadership Theory's strong face validity. The purpose of this study was to investigate and supply evidence to validate Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory in the school environment. It was a field test of the basic premise of Situational Leadership Theory that adapting leadership styles to follower task-relevant maturity resulted in leader effectiveness from the perception of the follower. Specifically, the research examined the effect Situational Leadership Theory training has upon leadership style and effectiveness and the resulting relationships between teachers and principals.

Footnotes

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CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents a description of the study and the population, instrumentation, procedures for data collection, scoring and analysis.

Sample

The population consisted of elementary school principals and their teachers. The school principals were selected for this research because of the Situational Leadership Training they received as part of an administrative inservice program. The administrators were employed in two northern Illinois public school districts, representing twenty-nine schools.

All of the principals, twenty-nine in total, were required to participate in Situational Leadership Theory training. At the conclusion of the required training, the principals were invited to volunteer for follow-up leadership sessions throughout the school year. A total of sixteen principals agreed to participate in the follow-up leadership training sessions. Twelve of the sixteen principals worked in K-6 schools, while the remainder of the sample

were at the junior high level. The principals' experience ranged from two to twenty-three years, and fifty-five percent of the group had worked in their buildings for over ten years (see Appendix A). The student population ranged from 200 in the smallest elementary school to 608 students in the largest junior high building.

The sixteen principals were requested to identify teachers in their buildings whom, first, they had worked with for a minimum of one year, and, second, they felt would accurately report their leadership ability. The teachers were requested to complete a pre-and post-questionnaire covering the leadership style flexibility and effectiveness of their principals. The total number of teachers who participated in the study was sixty-four.

The sixteen principals all received follow-up instruction for improving their diagnostic skills in problem situations. The principals had a total of four seminar sessions scheduled throughout the school year. At the conclusion of the seminar sessions, the principals and their teachers were given the LEAD instruments to measure the principals' leadership effectiveness gains.

The researcher discovered that based upon the LEAD results, the school districts concluded that six-months was an insufficient amount of time in which to measure any significant behavior changes in the principals. Therefore, in order to thoroughly research the effects that Situational Leadership Training had upon the behaviors of school

principals, a longevity follow-up study would have to take place. Also, the results would provide needed information to assist in the validation process of Situational Leadership Theory.

The sample chosen for this longevity research was the extended leadership training session in which sixteen principals volunteered to participate. However, due to the time period of three years between the original training year and this research, the number of principals available was reduced to eleven. Five principals were unavailable because of retirement, reassignment, or career change. Also, the teachers who participated in the original data-gathering year were not available because their identities were never revealed to the school districts. However, the sample of teachers was determined by using the same criteria from the training year; that is: to have worked with the principal for at least one year.

Instrumentation

The primary instrument utilized to establish the principals' leadership style and effectiveness was the Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description (see Appendix B and C). These were the identical instruments used during the principals' initial training year.

The LEAD was developed by Hersey and Blanchard and first appeared in the literature in the Training and Development Journal (1969). It was designed to measure three aspects of the leader's

behavior: (1) basic style, (2) number of styles, and (3) style adaptability effectiveness. The LEAD has two versions, the LEAD-Self and LEAD-Other. The first, LEAD-Self, measured the principal's self-perception of how he behaved as a leader (see Appendix B). The principals' data was judged in relationship to the perceptions of a style by others. Therefore, this research data depended upon how closely the principal's style identification matched that of the teacher's perception.

The instrument used to measure the accuracy of the principal's self-generated data was the LEAD-Other (see Appendix C). This instrument was developed to measure the teachers' perceptions of the principal's style, style range and style adaptability. The comparison became essential in this study because it served as the basis for comparing the data between the LEAD instruments and the results from the teachers and principals structured interview surveys. In addition to the style, style range and style adaptability, the LEAD instruments also produced an effectiveness quotient when used with the Tridimensional Leader Effectiveness Model of Reddin's (see Appendix D). The four leadership quadrants of the Tri-Dimensional model depicted the task/relationship behaviors that a leader should demonstrate to ensure optimum effectiveness. Hence, improving one's diagnostic problem-solving skills was essential to improving a leader's effectiveness rating. The LEAD instrument was designed to measure a leader's diagnostic skills. The LEAD (Appendices B and C) consists of twelve unique task-relevant situations in which the

leader was to select one of the alternative solutions which corresponded to Hersey and Blanchard's four leadership styles. These alternatives also were correlated to the four quadrants of the Tridimensional Model (Appendix D). Therefore, the choices the principal selects produced both leadership style and effectiveness scores.

The scoring procedure for the LEAD instruments was based upon a weighting of +2 to -2 for responses to each of the twelve situations. The most appropriate leader behavior for a given situation was weighted +2, the second best alternative was weighted +1, the third was weighted -1, and the least appropriate leader behavior was weighted -2 (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982). The instruments then yielded an effectiveness, or style adaptability score, ranging from -24, least effective, to +24, most effective.

In addition, the LEAD instruments provided information about the number of styles the principal exhibited. Examination of the questionnaire responses was used to determine in which style categories responses occurred and the frequency of those responses. The leader's basic style was considered the style category receiving the greatest number of responses. Supporting styles were those in which a style category received two or more responses. The basic and supporting style then comprised the leader's style range (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982).

A complete study of the standardization and validity study of the LEAD instruments was presented in the manual for that instrument by Greene (1980). Greene described how the LEAD-Self was standardized on the responses of 264 managers who ranged in age from 21 to 64. Fourteen percent were at the high level of management, 55 percent were middle managers, and 30 percent of the subjects were at the entry level of management. The twelve-item validities for the adaptability scores ranged from 0.11 to 0.52 with 83 percent of the coefficients at 0.25 or higher. Eleven coefficients were significant at the 0.01 level and one was significant at the 0.05 level.

In two administrations spaced over a period of six weeks, the reliability of the LEAD-Self was reported as moderately strong. Seventy-five percent of the managers had maintained their basic leadership style. The contingency coefficients were both 0.71 and each was significant at the 0.01 level. Greene (1980) concluded, "the LEAD-Self scores remained relatively stable across time, and the user may rely on the results as consistent measures" (p. 2). Finally according to Greene, the logical validity of the instrument was clearly established; the face validity was based on a review of the items; and content validity was established through the procedures employed to create the original set of items.

Many other empirical studies of Situational Leadership Theory used the LEAD instruments modifications as research tools for gathering leadership data for their analyses. As a result of these leadership studies, approximately half of them were able to provide partial support for Situational Leadership Theory.

Two such studies were conducted by Beck (1978) and Clark (1981). Both researchers investigated the premise that leader effectiveness resulted from the adaptation of leader style to the followers' task-relevant maturity. The LEAD instruments in these two studies were used in conjunction with the Hersey, Blanchard and Keilty maturity scale (see Appendix E). Beck and Clark reported that the special maturity scale data failed to discriminate the maturity levels of the teachers which made their research findings very inconclusive. However, they reported that information collected with the LEAD instruments from the teachers and principals regarding their perceptions was accurate.

Boucher (1980) also examined the relationship between leader effectiveness in a college-level recreational sports program. The leadership style data was also correlated with the Hersey, Blanchard and Keilty maturity instrument (Appendix E). The scores derived from the LEAD-Self and the maturity appraisal form provided sufficient evidence to partially validate Situational Leadership Theory.

Two other studies which examined the correlations between the principals' leadership effectiveness and their diagnostic skills were conducted by Fish (1981) and Diamond (1979). These studies compared

the data regarding the principals effectiveness from the LEAD instrument and an interview tool and found significant discrepancies. These conflicts developed in relationship to the effectiveness ratings as measured by the Reddins' Tridimensional Effective Model and the statements collected by the researcher over the same subject. However, the information from the interviews did support the leadership style data which was collected by the LEAD instruments.

Concerned with the discrepancies in his study regarding the effectiveness ratings produced on the LEAD and that collected from the interview, Diamond (1980) had strong recommendations regarding future leadership studies. He concluded that further perception studies should concentrate on actual behavior in conjunction with analyses of the scores on the LEAD instruments.

Further advantages for the use of both instruments were cited by Selltiz, Wrightsman, et al. (1960). They felt that the major advantage of the questionnaire approach was its insurance of uniformity from one measurement situation to another. Another advantage of the surveys which were conducted through personal interviews was that they offered additional information when used in conjunction with standard questionnaire forms. They felt that many people reacted more favorably to a personal interview than to an impersonal questionnaire. The flexibility offered with the use of the interview technique ensured greater validity in that the interviewee was completely sure of the questions asked. The interviewer

was in a position to observe not only what the respondent said but also how he said it. The instrument which was used to conduct the structured interview was based on the validated LEAD instruments. Its purpose was to gain more insight and subjective information to complement the closed questionnaire results. A more complete explanation of the qualitative instruments used in this research will be discussed in the next segment of this chapter, beginning with the teacher's questionnaire and concluding with the principal's survey.

Teacher Interview Questionnaire

This instrument was specifically developed for this study by the researcher. Its primary purpose was designed to help teachers select specific behaviors of their principals which would result in identifying the principals' basic styles, number of styles, and effectiveness leadership styles.

The form listed seven questions with two requiring multiple responses and one seeking open-ended comments (see Appendix F). The form requested the teachers to identify which leadership style was most dominantly used and which style was used least frequently. In addition, the teachers were requested to rate each of the four styles according to how effective their principal would demonstrate that style.

The instrument attempted to make operational the two dimensions central to the model, task behavior and relationship behavior. All the comments were analyzed for the common traits which would indicate the leader's most dominant style and the leadership style used least.

Piloting of this instrument was conducted by giving successive drafts to a panel of educational administration experts, Dr. Donald Torreson, Superintendent of Schools, Dr. Barbara Nunney, Associate Superintendent for Instruction, and Dr. Robert Wilhite, Assistant Curriculum Director, until no further modification was warranted.

Principals' Leadership Questionnaire

This instrument format was developed by the researcher specifically for this leadership study. It was designed to collect data regarding the school principal's leadership styles and effectiveness. The principals' questionnaire consists of twelve questions dealing with on-the-job situational problems and four alternative solutions to these problems (see Appendix E).

The questionnaire problems and alternatives were similar to those on the LEAD-Self instrument. However, the major difference was that through the structured interview the principal discussed his logic or rationale for selecting the solution to the questions. Specifically, the researcher read the situational problem and

possible solutions and then informed the principal of his answer. The principals' verbal answers and comments were recorded on the questionnaire.

The interview data was coded and placed into one of the four leadership styles from the Hersey and Blanchard model. The data was analyzed in relation to how closely the information correlated with the two basic variables of Situational Leadership Theory, task behavior and relationship behavior. Specifically, all of the principals' responses dealing with a directing-type role (initiating structure, opinion-giving, controlling) and aggressive-type behaviors (criticizing, attacking personalities, demonstrating) were placed into the S1 category of high task and low relationship. All the responses which dealt with clarifying-type behaviors (questioning, elaborating, synthesizing, gaining commitment) and manipulative roles (topic jumping, justifying) were placed into quadrant S2 of the Leadership Model. High relationship and low task (S3) were supporting-type statements (encouragement, harmonizing, mediating, reducing tensions) or dependent-type roles (nurturing, appeasing, placating, sympathy seeking). Finally, any of the principals' statements which were attending-type behaviors such as active listening, monitoring, information-gathering, or avoidance in nature were placed into the last category of the Hersey and Blanchard Situational Leadership Model of low relationship and low task (S4).

Due to the fact that the interview questionnaire was similar to the LEAD-Self instruments and that the principals' responses could be categorized into a basic leadership quadrant, it was possible to produce a quantitative score similar to the standard scoring procedures of the LEAD instruments. Namely, the data was run through the Tridimensional Leadership Model (see Appendix D), which yielded a basic leadership style, style range, and style effectiveness.

Piloting of this instrument was done in two stages. The first stage involved giving successive drafts to a panel of school experts until no further modification was suggested. The panel members were Dr. Raymond Rodriguez, Junior High principal, Dr. Donald Torreson, Superintendent of Schools, and Dr. Barbara Nunney, Assistant Superintendent of Instruction.

Design of Study

The survey data was collected using the LEAD questionnaire and the LEAD interview. Each instrument was used with both teachers and principals. The LEAD questionnaire data provided needed uniformity for comparison with the structured interview data, and the interview instrument provided the principals and teachers an opportunity to qualify their responses on the LEAD instrument.

The study did not have a control group; however, it did compare two sets of data from the principals over two treatment periods. In the first period data was collected during the original treatment

period which was six months after the specialized training. In the second period the data was collected three years following the specialized leadership training.

Data Collection

The data were collected in four procedural steps. The first step involved the survey questionnaire data from the original group of trained principals. The two versions of the LEAD instruments were used to gather the pre and postdata during this stage of the research. The primary objective was to assess the principals' leadership styles and effectiveness for training purposes. The data were collected during the summer workshop prior to the leadership training by Dr. Ronald Warwick of the National College of Education. The postdata were collected from sixteen principals who had volunteered to participate in the follow-up study group.

The sixteen principals received follow-up training regarding the diagnostic skills needed to implement Situational Leadership Theory effectively. The sessions dealt with performance management, management process, and power techniques. Following the six-month training period, a posttest was administered to these principals and their teachers in order to examine the impact of situational leadership upon their leadership abilities.

In the third phase of the research, an invitational letter was sent to each of the sixteen principals who participated in the extended situational leadership training. From the invitational letter, eleven of the principals agreed to participate in the follow-up study to their leadership training. The five principals who did not accept the invitation to participate had either resigned from their administrative positions or retired from the field of education.

The participating school principals were sent a copy of the LEAD-Self questionnaire to complete and return within two weeks. The school district's personnel directors agreed to supply a list of teachers who had spent a minimum of one year in each of the participating principal's buildings. From this list four teachers were randomly selected and invited to participate in the study. These procedures were planned for two purposes: one, to assure the teachers of complete anonymity, and second, to improve the accuracy of the information given regarding their principals' leadership ability. Further, all the teachers were contacted at home and asked to participate in the study. After a total of forty-four teachers agreed to participate (four per principal), each teacher was sent the LEAD-Other instrument and requested to return it within two weeks. As will be discussed in the analysis section, the data from the initial situational leadership training year were measured against the results from three years of usage of the skills the principals developed in their leadership training. In the final phase the data

were collected by the researcher in structured interviews with the teachers and principals. Each interview was prearranged by phone and the questions were all mailed prior to the actual conference date. The entire interview process took approximately two and one-half months to complete.

Administration of the Instruments

The LEAD instruments were designed to be administered in both a large-group setting and a single individual. There was no time limit for the completion of the instruments. However, approximately twenty minutes allowed most individuals to complete the LEAD-Self or LEAD-Other.

The leadership interview instruments developed for this study were designed to be administered individually. Again, there was no time limit placed upon the completion of the structured interviews. The average time that the teacher interviews took was approximately twenty to twenty-five minutes, while the principal interviews lasted between sixty and ninety minutes.

Scoring

The style scores were determined by circling the response option selected for each situation from the LEAD instruments in Table 1 below. Then the number of times each style was selected was counted by totaling each column. The combined total of the four

style scores equaled twelve. The scores from Column 1 and 2 were posted on the Tridimensional Model corresponding with the quadrants and subcolumn number. For example, the Column 1 score was posted in Style 1, Column 2 posted in Style 2, etc., until all four styles were plotted. The quadrant with the highest numerical value became the dominant style, while the least value quadrant was the least-used style. Next, the scores from the attitude table were quantified and an effective score plus or minus was factored. This score was then posted on the bottom line of the scoring sheet (Appendix D).

This scoring model produced a dominant leadership style and reported how effective or ineffective the individual was when making decisions regarding the maturity level of followers.

The adaptability score was obtained by indicating the response option selected for each situation on Table 2. Then a total of the numerical values yielded the adaptability score. The weighting of +2 to -2 was based upon the Situational Leadership Model. The leader behavior with the highest probability of success was weighted +2. The behavior with lowest probability of success was weighted -2. The second best alternative was +1 and the third was -1.

Leadership Interview. The interview data were coded and placed into the categories which emerged during the content analysis phase of the research. The analyses were judged in relation to the two basic variables of Situational Leadership Theory, task behavior, and

relationship behavior. These findings were then placed into the Situational Leadership model and scored in a similar manner as the standard LEAD instruments.

Analysis

The data were arranged in categories in the research so that each principal had a score corresponding to the following headings: LEAD Pretest, Posttest (6 months), Posttest three years, Number of Styles, Basic Style, Interview, and Effectiveness. The means and standard deviations were calculated for all pretest and posttest scores on basic style, number of styles, and on effectiveness. The differences in the pretest and posttest effectiveness and number of styles scores were assessed using a paired T-test analysis which could best handle continuous variables, interval data and testing for the differences between two means. In addition, the differences in the pretest and posttest style scores as well as style scores obtained from the interviews were assessed using a chi-square. The relationship between the principals' scores on the LEAD-Self and each teacher's score on the LEAD-Other were analyzed by using the Pearson product moment coefficient of correlation analysis.

The structured interview was based upon the LEAD instruments which utilized a content analysis technique. Interview data were coded and placed into one of the four leadership styles from the Hersey and Blanchard model and processed through the Tridimensional Leadership Model.

This chapter focused on the validity studies of the leadership assessment instruments, data collection instruments, and procedures followed. The analysis of the data and findings related to the hypotheses below formed the basis for the next chapter.

Hypotheses

1. There is no significant difference between the teachers' and principals' identification of the principal's basic leadership style before and after situational leadership training after six months between pretest and posttest.

2. There is no significant difference between the teachers' and principals' identification of the principal's basic leadership style before and after situational leadership training after three years between pretest and posttest.

3. There is no significant difference in the principals' identification of the number of leadership styles exhibited before and after situational leadership training after six months between pretest and posttest.

4. There is no significant difference in the principals' identification of the number of leadership styles exhibited before and after situational leadership training after three years between pretest and posttest.

5. There is no significant difference in the teachers' identification of the number of principal's leadership styles exhibited before and after situational leadership training after six months between pretest and posttest.

6. There is no significant difference in the teachers' identification of the number of principal's leadership styles exhibited before and after situational leadership training after three years between pretest and posttest.

7. There is no significant difference in the principal's identification of his leadership effectiveness before and after situational leadership training after six months between pretest and posttest.

8. There is no significant difference in the principal's identification of his leadership effectiveness before and after situational leadership training after three years between pretest and posttest.

9. There is no significant difference in the teachers' identification of the principal's leadership effectiveness before and after situational leadership training after six months between pretest and posttest.

10. There is no significant difference in the teachers' identification of the principal's leadership effectiveness before and after situational leadership training after three years between pretest and posttest.

11. There is no significant difference between the teachers' and principals' identification of the principal's leadership effectiveness before and after situational leadership training after six months between pretest and posttest.

12. There is no significant difference between the teachers' and principals' identification of the principal's leadership effectiveness before and after situational leadership training after three years between pretest and posttest.

Footnotes

Beck, J. D. W. Leadership in education: A field test of Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory (unpublished Doctoral dissertation, University of Massachusetts, 1978). Dissertation Abstracts International, 1978, 39, 03, 1202A.

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CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Introduction

The purpose of this research was to analyze Situational Leadership Theory developed by Hersey and Blanchard in a school setting. The basis of the theory was that leader effectiveness results from the adaptability of leadership style to the followers task relevant maturity.

In this chapter the results of the data were reported and analyzed in relationship to the leadership behavior between school principals and teachers. Area One deals with the principals' and teachers' identification of the principal's basic leadership style. Area Two reported and analyzed the principals' and teachers' identification of the number of styles used by the principal. Area Three reported the data relative to the principals' and teachers' identification of the principal's effectiveness.

The data was arranged in categories so that each principal had scores corresponding to the following headings: Lead Pretest (A), Lead Posttest Six Months, Number of Styles, Basic Style Interview, Effectiveness, and Post Three Years.

The means and standard deviations were calculated for all pretest and posttest scores on basic style, number of styles, and effectiveness. The differences in the pretest and posttest effectiveness and number of styles were assessed using a paired T-test analysis for continuous variables and interval data. In addition, the differences in the pretest and posttest style scores as well as style scores obtained from the interviews, were assessed using a chi-square statistical procedure. The relationship between the principals' and the teachers' identification of the principal's leadership style and effectiveness was analyzed by calculating the Pearson-product moment coefficient of correlation analysis.

The structured interviews were based upon the LEAD instrument and evaluated using a content analysis technique. The interview data was coded and placed into one of the four leadership styles in Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Model and scored through the Tridimensional Leadership Model.

The population consisted of eleven elementary school principals and their teachers. The school principals were selected for this research because of the leadership training they received as part of their yearly administrative in-service program. The administrators were from two northern Illinois public school districts representing twenty-nine schools. Specific demographic data is located in Appendix A.

Area 1: Basic Principal Leadership Style

Table 2 summarizes the principals' self-identification of basic leadership style. During the pretraining period assessment, five principals (45%) identified Style 2 (selling) as basic. The remaining six principals (55%) all identified basic styles of S3, participation (27%); S2-S4, selling, delegating (18%); and S2-S3, selling, participating (9%).

At the six-month post-assessment stage, six principals (55%) identified Style 3, participating, as their basic style. Two of the principals (18%) identified leadership Style 4, delegating, as their basic style. The remaining sample of principals (27%) identified leadership Styles 1,3, telling, participating (9%); Styles 2,3, selling, participating (9%); and Styles 2,4, selling, delegating (9%), as their basic leadership style.

At the three-year post-assessment four principals (36%) identified Style 3, participating, as their basic one. The other seven principals (64%) were distributed among the remaining five categories.

Within two months of the post three-year assessment, the principals' interview data revealed that six principals (55%) identified Style 3, participation, as basic. Three principals (27%) identified Style 2, selling, and two principals (18%) identified Style 4, delegating, as their basic leadership style.

Table 2. Principals' self-identification of
basic leadership style

Style	Pretraining	Post 6 Months	Post 3 Years	Interview
1				
2	5 (45%)		2 (18%)	3 (27%)
3	3 (27%)	6 (55%)	4 (30%)	6 (55%)
4		2 (18%)	1 (9%)	2 (18%)
1,2			1 (9%)	
1,3		1 (9%)	1 (9%)	
2,3	1 (9%)	1 (9%)	1 (9%)	
2,4	2 (18%)	1 (9%)		
1,2,3,4	_____	_____	_____	_____
N	11	11	11	11

There was an increase of basic styles identified by principals throughout the various stages of the study. Table 2 revealed four basic styles in the preassessment, five of the six-post, six-month stage, and seven at the three-year interval. Overall, there was a 28% increase in basic style identification by the principals. Style 1 (telling) was the only style not identified as basic by any of the principals throughout the study. However, Style 1 (telling) was identified in combination with Styles 2, 3, and 4 throughout the assessment periods identified in Table 2.

The basic leadership style most identified throughout the study was Style 3 (participating). In addition, the consistency of Style 3 (participating) as being the most dominant style chosen was supported by the interview data (55%) as well. Additional analysis of the interview data revealed single style dominance as having a high-relationship preference. Table 3 reported the teachers' identification of the principals' leadership styles.

The teachers identified six principals (55%) as being basic Style 2 (selling) at the pretraining period. Also during this time period, leadership Style 1, telling (9%) and Style 3, participation (9%), were identified by the teachers as basic styles. The remaining teachers identified S1, S2, S3, and S4 for 18% of the principals.

Table 3. Teacher identification of principal's
basic leadership style

Style	Pretraining	Post 6 Months	Post 3 Years	Interview
1	1 (9%)	---	---	2 (18%)
2	6 (55%)	5 (45%)	9 (82%)	2 (18%)
3	1 (9%)	2 (18%)	---	7 (64%)
4	---	---	---	---
1,2	1 (9%)	1 (9%)	1 (9%)	---
1,3	---	---	---	---
2,3	---	3 (27%)	---	---
2,4	---	---	1 (9%)	---
1,2,3,4	<u>2 (18%)</u>	<u>---</u>	<u>---</u>	<u>---</u>
N	11	11	11	11

At the six-month post-assessment period, teachers identified five principals (45%) using basic Style 2, selling. The balance of the teachers identified the principals as using the following basic leadership styles, Style 3, participation (18%); Styles 2, 3, selling, participation (27%); and Styles 1, 2, telling, selling (9%).

During the three-year post-assessment, nine principals (82%) were identified as basic Style 2, selling, while the remaining two principals (18%) were identified as S1:S2 or S2:S4.

Within two months of the three-year post-assessment, the interview data indicated seven principals (64%) with basic Style 3, participation. Further, the interview data also indicated two principals (18%) with basic Style 1, telling, and two principals with basic Style 2 (18%).

The basic leadership style identified by the teachers consistently for principals was Style 2, selling. It was the only style was identified by teachers at each assessment period of the study. During the pretraining and post six-month assessment period, the teachers identified Style 2, selling, for approximately 50% of the principals, which increased to 82% at the three-year post-assessment data.

For the three-year period in which the data was collected from the teachers, leadership Style 3, participating, was not the basic style chosen. However, in the teacher interview data, Style 3, participation, was identified as the basic style for seven principals

(64%). In addition, Table 3 reported that basic Style 4, delegating, was never identified as a style for the principals throughout the study.

In the following four tables presented, the author reported and analyzed the degree of agreement or disagreement between the principals' basic leadership-style identification and the teachers' identification of the principals' basic leadership styles at various time periods during the study.

In Table 4 the areas of basic agreement among the principals and teachers were Style 2, selling, and Style 3, participating. Of the five principals (46%) who identified themselves as basic Style 2, selling, only three principals (27%) were also identified by the teachers as demonstrating the same style. The remaining two principals (18%) were identified by the teachers as either Style 1, telling or Style 1-2, telling-selling, which resulted in disagreement with the principals. The three principals (27%) who identified themselves as basic Style 3, participating, achieved agreement with 33% of the teachers identifying principals with basic Style 3, participating. The two remaining principals (27%) identified basic leadership styles which totally disagreed with teachers' identification of the principals' basic styles.

In analyzing the data in Table 4, there was minor agreement between principal and teacher identification of common basic leadership style. Only in basic Style 2, selling, and Style 3, participation, was there indicated a slight agreement (36%).

Table 4. Principal and teacher agreement/disagreement
of basic leadership style (pretraining)

Principal's Basic Style	Teacher Identification									Total
	S1	S2	S3	S4	S1-S2	S1-S3	S2-S3	S2-S4	S1-2, 3-4	
P R Style 1										
I N Style 2	1	3*			1					5
C	20%	10%			20%					46%
I P Style 3		2	1*							3
A		67%	33%							27%
L I Style 4										
D E Style S1-S2										
N T Style S1-S3										
I F Style S2-S3	1									
I	100%									
C A Style S2-S4										1
T										9%
I O Style 1-2,3-4									2*	
N									100%	

The chi-square statistical analysis of the data in Table 4 was $\chi^2(12) = 15.64$ with a $p > .05$. This indicated little or no significant agreement among the principals' identification of their basic leadership styles and teachers identification of the principals' basic leadership styles before Situational Leadership Training.

Six principals (55%) identified Style 3, participation, as their basic style in Table 5. Of these, only one principal (17%) was viewed as Style 3 (participating) by the teachers, resulting in agreement with the principals. Also, in agreement with the teachers' identification of basic style is the one principal (9%) who identified his basic Style 2-3. The remaining five principals' (45%) assessment of their basic styles and the identification of the teachers did not achieve any areas of agreement.

Post six-month training data of the principal selection of basic leadership style indicated no selection of S1, S2, and S4 independently. Also, six principals (55%) did select Style 3 (participation) as their basic style. In three cases there was 50% partial-to-total agreement among principals and teachers. Despite this data agreement, the chi-square statistical analysis of Table 5 data indicated little to no agreement among principals in teachers' identification of leadership styles six months after leadership training. The chi-square numeration was $\chi^2(12) = 11.98$ with $p > .05$ indicating no significant relationship between principal and teacher agreement of basic leadership styles.

Table 5. Principal and teacher agreement/disagreement
of basic leadership style (post 6-month)

Principal's Basic Style	Teacher Identification									Total	
	S1	S2	S3	S4	S1-S2	S1-S3	S2-S3	S2-S4	S1-2, 3-4		
P R I N C I D E N T I F I C A T I O N	Style 1										
	Style 2										
	Style 3		3 50%	1* 17%			2 33%				5 55%
	Style 4			1 50%	1 50%						2 18%
	Style S1-S2										
	Style S1-S3		1 100%								1 19%
	Style S2-S3						1* 100%				1 9%
	Style S2-S4		1 100%								1 9%
	*Matches										

At the post three-year assessment period, the only category agreement between the principal was Style 2, selling, (18%). Four principals (36%) selected Style 3, participation, and were assessed by teachers as having basic Style 2, selling. There was partial agreement between principal and teacher identification of basic leadership style in three additional cases.

There was partial to total agreement in principal and teacher identification of basic leadership style in five cases (45%). The chi-square statistical analysis reported for Table 6 is $\chi^2(12) = 22.00$, with $p > .05$. The conclusion drawn from this analysis was that there was significant agreement between teachers' and principals' identification of leadership styles three years after Situational Leadership Training.

Table 7 reported seven cases of total agreement between the researcher's assessment of principals' basic leadership style and teachers' selection of principals' basic style. Basic Style i was not identified for any of the principals from the data collected from the interviews by the researcher.

The data described in Table 7 seemed to indicate a high degree of agreement between the interview data indicating principals' basic style and teacher data of principal leadership behavior. The justification for this statement was that total agreement was indicated in seven of the eleven principals (64%) studied. In addition, the chi-square statistical analysis of the interview data was $\chi^2(14) = 22.00$, with $p > .01$ indicating an extremely high

Table 6. Principal and teacher agreement of basic leadership style (post 3-years)

Principal's Basic Style	Teacher Identification										
	S1	S2	S3	S4	S1-S2	S1-S3	S2-S3	S2-S4	S1-2, 3-4	Total	
P R I N C I P A L	Style 1										
	Style 2		2*								2
			100%								18%
	Style 3		4								4
			100%								36%
	Style S1-S2		1								1
			100%								9%
	Style S1-S3		1								1
			100%								9%
	Style S2-S3		1								1
			100%								9%
	Style S2-S4										
	Style S1-2,3-4							1			1
								100%			9%
O N	*Matches										

Table 7. Principal and teacher agreement of basic leadership style (post 3-year interview)

	Principal's Basic Style	Teacher Identification									Total
		S1	S2	S3	S4	S1-S2	S1-S3	S2-S3	S2-S4	S1-2, 3-4	
P R I N C I P A L	Style 1										
	Style 2	1 33%	1* 33%	1 33%							3 27%
	Style 3			6* 100%							6 55%
I D E N T I F I C A T I O N	Style 4	1 50%	1 50%								2 18%
	Style S1-S2										
	Style S1-S3										
	Style S2-S3										
	Style S2-S4										
	Styles S1-2,3-4										
	*Matches										

significant relationship between the principals and the teachers relative to the identification of the principals' basic leadership style.

Area 2: Principals' Number of Leadership Styles

An effective leader was one who accurately assessed the group's maturity and adapted his behavior accordingly. As the level of maturity of the followers continued to increase in terms of task accomplishment, the leader began to adjust his leadership style. Thus, it might have been appropriate for a principal to provide little supervision in some situations and more supervision in other situations with the same teachers. Situational Leadership Theory focused on the appropriateness of leadership style according to the task-relevant maturity of the follower. As the maturity level of one's follower developed along a continuum, from immature to mature, the principal's leadership style should have adjusted and changed. Therefore, a school principal should have exhibited a number of styles depending on the situation and maturity level of the teacher on a specific task.

There were four basic leadership styles inherent in the Situational Leadership Theory. The four leadership styles in the model were: Style 1 (telling), Style 2 (selling), Style 3 (participating), and Style 4 (delegating). The principals were all rated according to the number of designated behavioral styles which the four leadership styles were used. The information was collected for this study

through the LEAD interview and questionnaire. The data from these instruments were analyzed by calculating the means and standard deviations of the number of leadership styles exhibited by the principals.

Table 8 indicated the difference between means of pre-training-post six months, pretraining-post 3 years, and pretraining-LEAD interview. Differences between means were determined by calculating a T-test analysis for dependent samples. The results demonstrated that there were no significant differences with a $p > .05$ at six months, three years, and LEAD interview data. However, the reader should recognize that the possibility for principals to increase their number of styles over the various analyses periods were slight, due to the high number of styles originally identified in the pretraining assessment.

The relationship between the principals' number of styles identified and the teachers' number of styles identified was analyzed through calculating the Pearson product moment correlation. The results were presented in Table 9.

The correlations indicate that there was no significant relationship between the principals' and teachers' identification of principals' number of leadership styles. Also, no prediction could have been stated relative to the number of leadership styles exhibited by principals through teacher observations.

Table 8. Principal identification of number of
leadership styles and T-test analysis

	X	S.D.	T-test	
Pretraining	3.72	.65		
6-Month Post	3.91	.30	-.04	p > .05
3-Year Post	3.75	.47	-.55	p > .05
LEAD Interview	3.55	.52	-.35	p > .05

Table 9. Correlation of principal and teacher
identification of number of leadership styles

Assessment Stage	Correlation	P
Pretraining	$r = .17$	$p > .05$
Post 6-Months	$r = -.14$	$p > .05$
Post 3-Years	$r = .03$	$p > .05$
LEAD Interview	$r = -.17$	$p > .05$

Area 3: Principals' Effectiveness

The effectiveness of a leader's style depended upon the situation in which it was used. Therefore, each of the four leadership styles, S1 (telling), S2 (selling), S3 (participating), and S4 (delegating), had a less/more effectiveness possibility. Essentially, when a principal's style was appropriate to a situation, it was designated effective; when the style was inappropriate to a given situation, it was designated ineffective. The effectiveness of a leader's style, therefore, did not depend upon the actual behavior of the principal, but rather upon the appropriateness of the behavior to the environment and the follower's identification of the type of behavior. Area 3 in the study reported and analyzed data relative to principals' effectiveness.

The principals' effectiveness was statistically analyzed using means, standard deviations, T-test for dependent means, and Pearson product-moment correlations.

Table 10 reported the summary of principal effectiveness data as identified by the principals in the study. Table 10 reported that there was no significant difference in principals' effectiveness as identified by the principal between pretraining and six-month post. However, there was a significant difference between pretraining and three-year post data relative to principal identification of effectiveness. The data indicated that this relationship was highly significant and was calculated at the $p < .01$ level.

Table 10. Principal's effective score as identified by principals

	Pretraining	Post 6-Month	Post 3-Year	LEAD Interview
Means	7.27	10.45	20.09	10.00
S.D.	5.82	3.39	2.59	4.75
T-test ($d_f = 10$)		-1.58	-6.46	-1.20
Probability		$p > .05$	$p < .01$	$p > .05$
Significant/Not Significant		Not Sign.	Sign.	Not Sign.

In analyzing the pretraining to the post LEAD interview, data concluded that there was no significant effectiveness difference in the principals' identification of style effectiveness. The data in Table 11 reported teachers' identification of principal effectiveness.

The teachers did not identify a significant change in principal effectiveness within the first six months following Situational Leadership Training. However, the teachers significantly identified an increase in principal effectiveness by the three-year post assessment period. Significance was calculated at the $p < .01$ level which indicated an extremely high difference in leader effectiveness growth.

Correlations between the principal and teachers' data were reported in Table 12. The principals' effectiveness scores as assessed by the principals and the teachers were not significantly related at the pretraining, post six-month and post three-year stage at the $p > .05$ level. The two groups being compared in the correlations calculated the mean effectiveness scores of the principals' self-assessment and the total teacher population.

The final table (13) reported the significance between the principal and teacher mean score. The data that was analyzed was the mean of the principals' self-effectiveness identification scores and the mean of the teachers' identification of the principals' effectiveness. The conclusions drawn from the data in Table 13 stated that no significance was found between the two sample means.

Table 11. Principal effectiveness score as
identified by teachers

	Pretraining	Post 6-Month	Post 3-Year
Means	3.89	5.05	11.02
S.D.	3.37	4.22	5.77
T-test ($df = 10$)		-1.16	-3.77
Probability		$p > .05$	$p < .01$
Significant/ Not Significant		Not Sign.	Sign.

Table 12. Principal/teacher effectiveness
correlations

Pretraining	Post 6-Month	Post 3-Years
$r = .30$	$r = -.12$	$r = .02$
$p > .05$	$p > .05$	$p > .05$

Table 13. Principal/teacher effectiveness scores

Pretraining	Post 6-Month	Post 3-Years
$r = .75$	$r = .70$	$r = 1.46$
$p > .05$	$p > .05$	$p > .05$

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This chapter presents a summary of the results, interpretation of the findings, and recommendations for further research.

Summary

The purpose of the study was to examine the leadership characteristics of principals in elementary education as it related to Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory. The basis of this theory was that the leader's effectiveness resulted from the adaptability of leadership style to the followers' task-relevant maturity. Essentially the principal's success depended upon his ability to adjust his leadership style to match the maturity of the teachers for that particular situation. The study examined the relationship between leaders' basic styles (Area 1), number of styles (Area 2), and leader effectiveness (Area 3).

Twenty-nine principals received Situational Leadership Training as part of a summer institute program. However, due to the three-year longevity of this study, eleven principals remained in the

experimental group. The data was collected using the LEAD questionnaire and structured follow-up interviews. Each instrument was used with both teachers and principals. The study did not have a control group; however, it did compare two sets of data from the principals over two treatment periods.

Each principal had scores arranged in categories corresponding to the following areas: Pretraining, Posttest Six-Months, Posttest Three Years, Interview, Basic Leadership Style, and Effectiveness. The means and standard deviation were calculated for all pretest scores and posttest scores. The differences were all assessed using paired T-test and chi-square statistical procedures. The relationship between the various scores was analyzed by conducting the Pearson product moment coefficient.

Based upon the review of the Situational Leadership Theory, effectiveness is related to behavior appropriate to follower maturity level. The related literature also concluded that elementary school principals demonstrated leadership Styles 2 and 3 most frequently and minimally exhibited Styles 1 and 4. The present study supported the related research findings in that leadership Styles 2 and 3 were most often identified by principals and teachers. Styles 1 and 4 were least identified by principals and teachers as being practiced in the schools included in this study.

The summary of findings from this study concluded that, following Situational Leadership Training, principals increased their number of leadership styles. Also, principals and teachers agreed that there was significant increase in effectiveness of the principals in the elementary schools studied.

Conclusion

The following conclusions were stated specifically from the interpretation of the data reported and analyzed in the previous chapter.

Area 1: Basic Principal Leadership Style

1. Principals increased their basic leadership styles as identified by the principals during the pretest to three-year posttest period (28% use, four to seven styles).
2. Principals did not identify Style 1, telling, as a single basic style at any time period during the study.
3. Principals identified Style 3, participation, most consistently and most frequently as their basic leadership style throughout the study.
4. Teachers identified Style 2, selling, most consistently and most frequently as the principals' basic leadership style throughout the study.
5. Teachers did not identify Style 4, delegating, as being demonstrated by principals in any time period during the study.

6. Even though the data suggested minor agreement between principal and teacher identification of common basic leadership style, the statistical analysis of this data indicated no significant agreement at the pretest stage of the study.

7. Even though three specific cases indicated partial-to-total agreement between principal and teacher identification of basic style, the statistical analysis of the data indicated no significant agreement at the six-month posttest stage of the study.

8. Principals and teachers agreed significantly ($\chi^2_{12} = 22.00$, $p > .05$), in the identification of basic leadership styles at the three-year posttest stage of the study.

9. Principals and teachers agreed significantly ($\chi^2_{14} = 22.00$, $p > .01$), in the identification of basic leadership styles at the interview stage of the study, $p > .05$.

Therefore,

Hypothesis 1. There are no significant differences between the teachers' and principals' identification of the principal's basic leadership style before and after Situational Leadership Training after six-months between pretest and posttest. Is Accepted. $p > .05$.

Hypothesis 2. There is no significant difference between the teachers' and principals' identification of the principal's leadership style before and three years between pretest and posttest. Is Rejected. $p > .05$.

Area 2: Principal's Number of Leadership Styles

1. Principal's identification of number of basic leadership styles at various stages of the study indicated no significant increase with $p > .05$.

2. Principal's and teacher's identification of the number of basic leadership styles at various stages of the study indicated no significant correlations at the $p > .05$ level.

Therefore,

Hypothesis 3. There is no significant difference in the principal's identification of the number of leadership styles exhibited before and after Situational Leadership Training after six-months between pretest and posttest. Is Accepted. $p > .05$

Hypothesis 4. There is no significant difference in the principal's identification of the number of leadership styles exhibited before and after Situational Leadership Training after three years between pretest and posttest. Is Accepted. $p > 0.5$

Hypothesis 5. There is no significant difference in the teacher's identification of the number of principal's leadership styles exhibited before and after Situational Leadership Training after six months between pretest and posttest. Is Accepted. $p > .05$

Hypothesis 6. There is no significant difference in the teacher's identification of the number of principal's leadership styles exhibited before and after Situational Leadership Training after three years between pretest and posttest. Is Accepted.

$p > .01$

Area 3: Principal Effectiveness

1. Principals indicated no significant increase in effectiveness between the pretest to six-month posttest stage of the study.

2. Principals indicated an extremely significant increase in effectiveness between the pretest to three-year posttest stage of the study (T_{10} -test = 6.46, $p > .01$).

Therefore,

Hypothesis 7. There is no significant difference in the principal's identification of his leadership effectiveness before and after Situational Leadership Training after six months between pretest and posttest. Is Accepted. $p > .05$

Hypothesis 8. There is no significant difference in the principal's identification of his leadership effectiveness before and after Situational Leadership Training after three years between pretest and posttest. Is Rejected. $p < .01$.

3. Teachers indicated no significant change in effectiveness of the principal's leadership style between the pretest to six-month posttest stage of the study.

4. Teachers indicated an extremely significant increase in effectiveness of the principal's leadership style between the pretest and three-year posttest stage of the study.

Therefore,

Hypothesis 9. There is no significant difference in the teacher's identification of the principal's leadership effectiveness before and after Situational Leadership Training after six months between pretest and posttest. Is Accepted. $p > .05$

Hypothesis 10. There is no significant difference in the teacher's identification of the principal's leadership effectiveness before and after Situational Leadership Training after three years between pretest and posttest. Is Rejected. $p < .01$

5. The principal's effectiveness data as assessed by themselves and the teachers indicated no significant correlation at each level of the study: pretest, six-month posttest, and three-year posttest.

6. The "mean" of the principal self-effectiveness identification scores and the "mean" of the teacher identification of the principal's effectiveness indicated no significance.

Therefore,

Hypothesis 11. There is no significant difference between the teacher's and principal's identification of the principal's leadership effectiveness before and after Situational Leadership Training after six months between pretest and posttest. Is Accepted. $p > .05$

Hypothesis 12. There is no significant difference between the teacher's and principal's identification of the principal's leadership effectiveness before and after Situational Leadership Training after three years between pretest and posttest. Is Accepted.

$p > .05$

Summary of Conclusions

Principals did increase their basic leadership styles as a result of training. The increase in principal leadership style did not indicate itself within a six-month period but became evident over a three-year period of time. This demonstrated that Situational Leadership Training of school principals over an extended period of time did have a positive impact on the daily behavior patterns of school principals. This impact was indicated by the extremely high increase in the principals' and teachers' perception of the principal's job effectiveness between pretraining and the post-test three-year stage of the study.

The leadership behavior patterns of the school principals became identifiable as a result of the teachers working with the principals in their schools. This was concluded because of the significantly high agreement between principals' and teachers' identification of the principals' basic leadership style at the three-year and interview stages of the study.

Principals indicated Style 3, participation, as their most consistent and frequent style. Teachers indicated Style 2, selling, as the principal's most consistent and frequent basic leadership

style. Principals did not identify Style 1, telling, as a single basic style at any stage in the study. Teachers did not indicate Style 4, delegating, as a single basic style demonstrated by the principals.

The study showed that the leaders had an increase in the number of basic styles and effectiveness. Yet, the number of leadership styles used by the principals did not increase significantly during any stage of the study. Therefore, the conclusion drawn was that a principal's style range is not as relevant to effectiveness as the appropriate selection of leadership style in a given situation. There were a number of leadership styles reported by the principals during the pretest stage of the study which reduced the possibility of leadership style growth for the principals in future stages of the study.

The findings suggested three possible interpretations. One, that practicing school principals, regardless of their field experience, can be trained to be perceived as more effective by their teachers and themselves. Two, principals' and teachers' identification of leadership styles did become evident over an extended period of time. Three, assessment of any training program over a short period of time (six months or one year) could lead to an inaccurate conclusion. Extensive time, three years, is needed to allow training results to develop, be implemented, and recognized.

Recommendations

Situational Leadership Theory directly addresses the major leadership behaviors required in educational leadership positions today. The human interaction situations that influence motivation and behavior are critical to any educational institution. The present study indicated areas of growth and common recognition of leadership styles over an extended time period.

Additional study is needed to investigate the Situational Leadership Theory in order to assess its validity and credibility of the leadership level.

1. Situational Leadership Theory needs to be examined by practicing school administrators as to its relevance to their positions.

2. Assessment materials need to be developed to better identify various leadership styles consistent with the theory and used in the field of education at all levels.

3. Additional training programs need to be designed and implemented to train school administrators with follow-up analysis and training.

4. Leadership styles in future studies should not be limited only to four major styles. Combination of leadership styles need to be considered as "increases" so that growth can be identified.

5. Change in leadership behavior is possible but may not be recognized unless an extended period of time is allowed before conclusions are drawn. Long-range studies after training should be designed and fostered.

6. Situational Leadership Theory is an area that should be included in any leadership training and/or academic sequence program.

7. Follow-up research should be conducted with practicing school administrators. However, the methodological approach should include a control group in order to discriminate between increased job effectiveness resulting from leadership training or from job longevity.

8. Leader effectiveness measurements should include a greater variety of research instruments along with the Reddin Tridimensional Effectiveness Model. This should allow for more discrimination in the effectiveness scores.

9. Central office administrators should be added to the sample. It is important to add the superior's perception of the principal's leadership styles to future studies.

10. A teacher interview questionnaire should be developed and coded to the Situational Leadership Theory Model. This will provide data which can be statistically correlated to other samples in a study.

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APPENDIX A

Building Data

Building	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Size of Building	583	337	329	56	385	353	281	526	532	681	320
Years of Teacher Experience	7-24	6-15	11-26	4-19	12-23	8-16	8-17	4-25	7-24	9-15	7-20
Teachers' Years with Principal	1	2	9-10	1-3	4-23	1-15	1-9	4-11	4-16	1-5	7-10
Number of Teachers in Study at Completion	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Years as Principal	5	7	22	4	11	19	18.5	15	23	4	2

APPENDIX B

Leader Effectiveness & Adaptability Description

1 SITUATION

Subordinates are not responding lately to this leader's friendly conversation and obvious concern for their welfare. Their performance is declining rapidly.

ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS

This leader would . . .

- A. emphasize the use of uniform procedures and the necessity for task accomplishment.
- B. be available for discussion but would not push his involvement.
- C. talk with subordinates and then set goals.
- D. intentionally not intervene.

2 SITUATION

The observable performance of this leader's group is increasing. The leader has been making sure that all members were aware of their responsibilities and expected standards of performance.

ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS

This leader would . . .

- A. engage in friendly interaction, but continue to make sure all members are aware of their responsibilities and expected standards of performance.
- B. take no definite action.
- C. do what could be done to make the group feel important and involved.
- D. emphasize the importance of deadlines and tasks.

3 SITUATION

This leader's group is unable to solve a problem. The leader has normally left the group alone. Group performance and interpersonal relations have been good.

ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS

This leader would . . .

- A. work with the group and together engage in problem-solving.
- B. let the group work it out.
- C. act quickly and firmly to correct and redirect.
- D. encourage group to work on problem and be supportive of their efforts.

4 SITUATION

This leader is considering a change. The leader's subordinates have a fine record of accomplishment. They respect the need for change.

ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS

This leader would . . .

- A. allow group involvement in developing the change, but would not be too directive.
- B. announce changes and then implement with close supervision.
- C. allow group to formulate its own direction.
- D. incorporate group recommendations but direct the change.

5 SITUATION

The performance of this leader's group has been dropping during the last few months. Members have been unconcerned with meeting objectives. Redefining roles and responsibilities has helped in the past. They have continually needed reminding to have their tasks done on time.

ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS

This leader would . . .

- A. allow group to formulate its own direction.
- B. incorporate group recommendations, but see that objectives are met.
- C. redefine roles and responsibilities and supervise carefully.
- D. allow group involvement in determining roles and responsibilities, but would not be too directive.

SITUATION

This leader stepped into an efficiently run organization. The previous administrator tightly controlled the situation. The leader wants to maintain a productive situation, but would like to begin humanizing the environment.

ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS

This leader would . . .

- A. do what could be done to make group feel important and involved.
- B. emphasize the importance of deadlines and tasks intentionally not intervene.
- C. get group involved in decision-making, but see that objectives are met.

<p>7</p> <p>SITUATION</p> <p>This leader is considering changing to a structure that will be new to the group. Members of the group have made suggestions about needed change. The group has been productive and demonstrated flexibility in its operations.</p>	<p>ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS</p> <p><i>This leader would . . .</i></p> <p>A. define the change and supervise carefully.</p> <p><input checked="" type="radio"/> B. participate with the group in developing the change but allow members to organize the implementation.</p> <p>C. be willing to make changes as recommended, but maintain control of implementation.</p> <p>D. avoid confrontation; leave things alone.</p>
<p>8</p> <p>SITUATION</p> <p>Group performance and interpersonal relations are good. This leader feels somewhat unsure about his lack of direction of the group.</p>	<p>ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS</p> <p><i>This leader would . . .</i></p> <p><input type="radio"/> A. leave the group alone.</p> <p><input type="radio"/> B. discuss the situation with the group and then he would initiate necessary changes.</p> <p>C. take steps to direct subordinates toward working in a well-defined manner.</p> <p>D. be supportive in discussing the situation with the group but not too directive.</p>
<p>9</p> <p>SITUATION</p> <p>This leader has been appointed by a superior to head a task force that is far overdue in making requested recommendations for change. The group is not clear on its goals. Attendance at sessions has been poor. Their meetings have turned into social gatherings. Potentially they have the talent necessary to help.</p>	<p>ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS</p> <p><i>This leader would . . .</i></p> <p>A. let the group work out its problems.</p> <p><input checked="" type="radio"/> B. incorporate group recommendations, but see that objectives are met.</p> <p>C. redefine goals and supervise carefully.</p> <p>D. allow group involvement in setting goals, but would not push.</p>
<p>10</p> <p>SITUATION</p> <p>Subordinates, usually able to take responsibility, are not responding to the leader's recent redefining of standards.</p>	<p>ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS</p> <p><i>This leader would . . .</i></p> <p>A. allow group involvement in redefining standards, but would not take control.</p> <p>B. redefine standards and supervise carefully.</p> <p>C. avoid confrontation by not applying pressure; leave situation alone.</p> <p><input checked="" type="radio"/> D. incorporate group recommendations, but see that new standards are met.</p>
<p>11</p> <p>SITUATION</p> <p>This leader has been promoted to a new position. The previous manager was uninvolved in the affairs of the group. The group has adequately handled its tasks and direction. Group interrelations are good.</p>	<p>ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS</p> <p><i>This leader would . . .</i></p> <p>A. take steps to direct subordinates toward working in a well-defined manner.</p> <p>B. involve subordinates in decision-making and reinforce good contributions.</p> <p><input checked="" type="radio"/> C. discuss past performance with group and then examine the need for new practices.</p> <p>D. continue to leave the group alone.</p>
<p>12</p> <p>SITUATION</p> <p>Recent information indicates some internal difficulties among subordinates. The group has a remarkable record of accomplishment. Members have effectively maintained long-range goals. They have worked in harmony for the past year. All are well qualified for the task.</p>	<p>ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS</p> <p><i>This leader would . . .</i></p> <p>A. try out his solution with subordinates and examine the need for new practices.</p> <p>B. allow group members to work it out themselves.</p> <p>C. act quickly and firmly to correct and redirect.</p> <p><input checked="" type="radio"/> D. participate in problem discussion while providing support for subordinates.</p>

APPENDIX C

Leader Effectiveness & Adaptability Description

<p>1</p> <p>SITUATION</p> <p>Your subordinates are not responding lately to your friendly conversation and obvious concern for their welfare. Their performance is declining rapidly.</p>	<p>ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS</p> <p>A. Emphasize the use of uniform procedures and the necessity for task accomplishment.</p> <p>B. Make yourself available for discussion but don't push your involvement.</p> <p>C. Talk with subordinates and then set goals.</p> <p>D. Intentionally do not intervene.</p>
<p>2</p> <p>SITUATION</p> <p>The observable performance of your group is increasing. You have been making sure that all members were aware of their responsibilities and expected standards of performance.</p>	<p>ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS</p> <p>A. Engage in friendly interaction, but continue to make sure that all members are aware of their responsibilities and expected standards of performance.</p> <p>B. Take no definite action.</p> <p>C. Do what you can to make the group feel important and involved.</p> <p>D. Emphasize the importance of deadlines and tasks.</p>
<p>3</p> <p>SITUATION</p> <p>Members of your group are unable to solve a problem themselves. You have normally left them alone. Group performance and interpersonal relations have been good.</p>	<p>ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS</p> <p>A. Work with the group and together engage in problem-solving.</p> <p>B. Let the group work it out.</p> <p>C. Act quickly and firmly to correct and redirect.</p> <p>D. Encourage group to work on problem and be supportive of their efforts.</p>
<p>4</p> <p>SITUATION</p> <p>You are considering a change. Your subordinates have a fine record of accomplishment. They respect the need for change.</p>	<p>ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS</p> <p>A. Allow group involvement in developing the change, but don't be too directive.</p> <p>B. Announce changes and then implement with close supervision.</p> <p>C. Allow group to formulate its own direction.</p> <p>D. Incorporate group recommendations, but you direct the change.</p>
<p>5</p> <p>SITUATION</p> <p>The performance of your group has been dropping during the last few months. Members have been unconcerned with meeting objectives. Redefining roles and responsibilities has helped in the past. They have continually needed reminding to have their tasks done on time.</p>	<p>ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS</p> <p>A. Allow group to formulate its own direction.</p> <p>B. Incorporate group recommendations, but see that objectives are met.</p> <p>C. Redefine roles and responsibilities and supervise carefully.</p> <p>D. Allow group involvement in determining roles and responsibilities but don't be too directive.</p>
<p>6</p> <p>SITUATION</p> <p>You stepped into an efficiently run organization. The previous administrator tightly controlled the situation. You want to maintain a productive situation, but would like to begin humanizing the environment.</p>	<p>ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS</p> <p>A. Do what you can to make group feel important and involved.</p> <p>B. Emphasize the importance of deadlines and tasks.</p> <p>C. Intentionally do not intervene.</p> <p>D. Get group involved in decision-making, but see that objectives are met.</p>

<p style="text-align: center;">SITUATION</p> <p>7 This leader is considering changing to a structure that will be new to the group. Members of the group have made suggestions about needed change. The group has been productive and demonstrated flexibility in its operations.</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS</p> <p><i>This leader would . . .</i></p> <p>A. define the change and supervise carefully. B. participate with the group in developing the change but allow members to organize the implementation. C. be willing to make changes as recommended, but maintain control of implementation. D. avoid confrontation; leave things alone.</p>
<p style="text-align: center;">SITUATION</p> <p>8 Group performance and interpersonal relations are good. This leader feels somewhat unsure about his lack of direction of the group.</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS</p> <p><i>This leader would . . .</i></p> <p>A. leave the group alone. B. discuss the situation with the group and then he would initiate necessary changes. C. take steps to direct subordinates toward working in a well-defined manner D. be supportive in discussing the situation with the group but not too directive.</p>
<p style="text-align: center;">SITUATION</p> <p>9 This leader has been appointed by a superior to head a task force that is far overdue in making requested recommendations for change. The group is not clear on its goals. Attendance at sessions has been poor. Their meetings have turned into social gatherings. Potentially they have the talent necessary to help.</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS</p> <p><i>This leader would . . .</i></p> <p>A. let the group work out its problems. B. incorporate group recommendations, but see that objectives are met. C. redefine goals and supervise carefully. D. allow group involvement in setting goals, but would not push.</p>
<p style="text-align: center;">SITUATION</p> <p>10 Subordinates, usually able to take responsibility, are not responding to the leader's recent redefining of standards.</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS</p> <p><i>This leader would . . .</i></p> <p>A. allow group involvement in redefining standards, but would not take control B. redefine standards and supervise carefully. C. avoid confrontation by not applying pressure; leave situation alone. D. incorporate group recommendations, but see that new standards are met.</p>
<p style="text-align: center;">SITUATION</p> <p>11 This leader has been promoted to a new position. The previous manager was uninvolved in the affairs of the group. The group has adequately handled its tasks and direction. Group interrelations are good.</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS</p> <p><i>This leader would . . .</i></p> <p>A. take steps to direct subordinates toward working in a well-defined manner B. involve subordinates in decision-making and reinforce good contributions. C. discuss past performance with group and then examine the need for new practices. D. continue to leave the group alone.</p>
<p style="text-align: center;">SITUATION</p> <p>12 Recent information indicates some internal difficulties among subordinates. The group has a remarkable record of accomplishment. Members have effectively maintained long-range goals. They have worked in harmony for the past year. All are well qualified for the task.</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS</p> <p><i>This leader would . . .</i></p> <p>A. try out his solution with subordinates and examine the need for new practices. B. allow group members to work it out themselves. C. act quickly and firmly to correct and redirect. D. participate in problem discussion while providing support for subordinates.</p>

APPENDIX D

Leader Effectiveness & Adaptability Description

DIRECTIONS FOR SCORING

Circle the letter that you have chosen for each situation on the same line to the right, under Column I (STYLE RANGE) and the Column II (STYLE ADAPTABILITY). After you have circled alternative actions, total the number of circles for each sub-column under Column I (STYLE RANGE) and Column II (STYLE ADAPTABILITY) and carry totals in the spaces provided below.

		COLUMN I (Style Range) Alternative Action				COLUMN II (Style Adaptability) Alternative Action				
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	
SITUATIONS	1	A	C	B	D	D	B	C	A	
	2	D	A	C	B	B	D	C	A	
	3	C	A	D	B	C	B	A	D	
	4	B	D	A	C	B	D	A	C	
	5	C	B	D	A	A	D	B	C	
	6	B	D	A	C	C	A	B	D	
	7	A	C	B	D	A	C	D	B	
	8	C	B	D	A	C	D	D	A	
	9	C	B	D	A	A	D	B	C	
	10	B	D	A	C	B	C	A	D	
	11	A	C	B	D	A	C	D	B	
	12	C	A	D	B	C	A	D	B	
Sub-columns	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)		
		Multiply by								
		(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	
		-2	-1	+1	+2					
		<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	TOTAL

Processing Data from Column I (Style Range)

Sub-column totals from Column I (Style Range) can be located on the basic styles, (the middle portion) of the Tri-Dimensional Leader Effectiveness Model¹ below. The column numbers correspond to the quadrant numbers of the leadership model as follows:

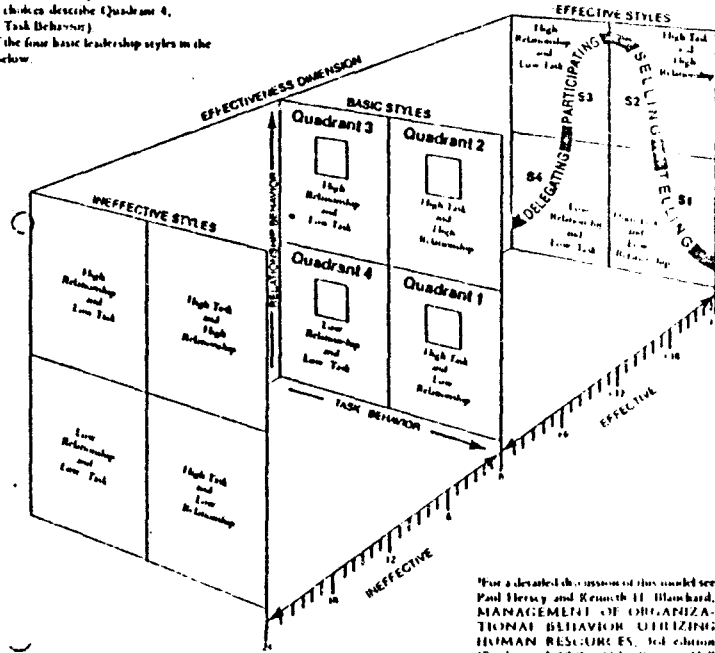
- Sub-column (1) — alternative action choices describe Quadrant 1, (High Task/Low Relationship Behavior)
- Sub-column (2) — alternative action choices describe Quadrant 2, (High Task/High Relationship Behavior)
- Sub-column (3) — alternative action choices describe Quadrant 3, (High Relationship/Low Task Behavior)
- Sub-column (4) — alternative action choices describe Quadrant 4, (Low Relationship/Low Task Behavior)

Enter the totals associated with each of the four basic leadership styles in the boxes provided on the leadership model below.

Processing Data from Column II (Style Adaptability)

Multiply the totals entered in sub-columns (a), (b), (c), and (d) under column II by the positive and negative factors in the same sub-columns. Enter the product in the space provided directly below. (Be sure to include pluses and minuses.) Then add all four figures and record the sum in the box designated TOTAL.

Then place an arrow (N) at the corresponding number along the ineffective or effective dimension of the leadership model below.



THE TRI-DIMENSIONAL LEADER EFFECTIVENESS MODEL¹

¹For a detailed discussion of this model see Paul Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard, *MANAGEMENT OF ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR UTILIZING HUMAN RESOURCES*, 3rd edition (Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1977).

APPENDIX E

MATURITY STYLE MATCH

— Staff Member Rating Form —



The purpose of this Staff Member's Rating Form is to help you determine your perception of the match between the leadership style that your manager is using with you and your maturity level.

The *leadership style* of your manager describes your perception of the behavior that manager engages in when attempting to influence your behavior. *Maturity* refers to your ability and willingness in regard to a particular objective or responsibility.

Directions

Part I — Leadership Style

To determine your perception of the leadership style your manager is using with you, do the following:

1. Write your name, today's date and your manager's name in the spaces provided below. Then select one to six of your major objectives or responsibilities and write them in the numbered columns above the four descriptors of leadership style. If you intend to share the information from this instrument in a coaching process with your manager, we recommend that you sit down with your manager prior to using the Maturity Style Match and agree upon what your major objectives are.
2. For each of your major objectives go through the following process: Read the four descriptions of leader behavior below. From those four select the style that you feel comes closest to describing your manager's usual behavior with you in relation to that objective. Put a "P" in front of that descriptor. That is your manager's *primary style*. Your manager's primary style would be the style that person tends to use most of the time with you when you are working on that objective.

If, in essence, that is the only major style your manager uses, a "P" is all you need to place under that particular objective. If, however, there is another of those four descriptors that your manager often uses in reference to that objective besides his or her primary style, place an "S" in front of that style. This is your manager's *secondary style*. You can designate for each objective only two choices: one primary style (P) and one secondary style (S).

Name _____ Date _____ Manager's name _____

Major Objectives or Responsibilities

Major Objectives or Responsibilities						
1	2	3	4	5	6	
						1. Provides specific instructions and closely supervises performance.
						2. Explains decisions and provides opportunity for clarification.
						3. Shares ideas and facilitates in making decisions.
						4. Turns over responsibility for decisions and implementation.

Part II — Maturity

To determine your perception of your maturity level in terms of each of the six aforementioned objectives, do the following.

1. Transfer the objectives that you wrote in Part I to the corresponding numbered spaces in Part II.
2. Note that two scales, one measuring *ability* and the other measuring *willingness*, appear to the right of where you wrote each objective.
3. Rate each objective you have chosen independently on the two scales by circling a number or the dot (•) on either side of the number.

1 Objective or Responsibility

This person is ABLE: has the necessary knowledge and skill

A Great Deal 4 Quite a Bit 3 Some 2 Little 1

JOB MATURITY

This person is WILLING: has the necessary confidence and motivation

Usually 4 Often 3 On Occasion 2 Seldom 1

PSYCHOLOGICAL MATURITY

2 Objective or Responsibility

This person is ABLE: has the necessary knowledge and skill

A Great Deal 4 Quite a Bit 3 Some 2 Little 1

JOB MATURITY

This person is WILLING: has the necessary confidence and motivation

Usually 4 Often 3 On Occasion 2 Seldom 1

PSYCHOLOGICAL MATURITY

3 Objective or Responsibility

This person is ABLE: has the necessary knowledge and skill

A Great Deal 4 Quite a Bit 3 Some 2 Little 1

JOB MATURITY

This person is WILLING: has the necessary confidence and motivation

Usually 4 Often 3 On Occasion 2 Seldom 1

PSYCHOLOGICAL MATURITY

4 Objective or Responsibility

This person is ABLE: has the necessary knowledge and skill

A Great Deal 4 Quite a Bit 3 Some 2 Little 1

JOB MATURITY

This person is WILLING: has the necessary confidence and motivation

Usually 4 Often 3 On Occasion 2 Seldom 1

PSYCHOLOGICAL MATURITY

5 Objective or Responsibility

This person is ABLE: has the necessary knowledge and skill

A Great Deal 4 Quite a Bit 3 Some 2 Little 1

JOB MATURITY

This person is WILLING: has the necessary confidence and motivation

Usually 4 Often 3 On Occasion 2 Seldom 1

PSYCHOLOGICAL MATURITY

6 Objective or Responsibility

This person is ABLE: has the necessary knowledge and skill

A Great Deal 4 Quite a Bit 3 Some 2 Little 1

JOB MATURITY

This person is WILLING: has the necessary confidence and motivation

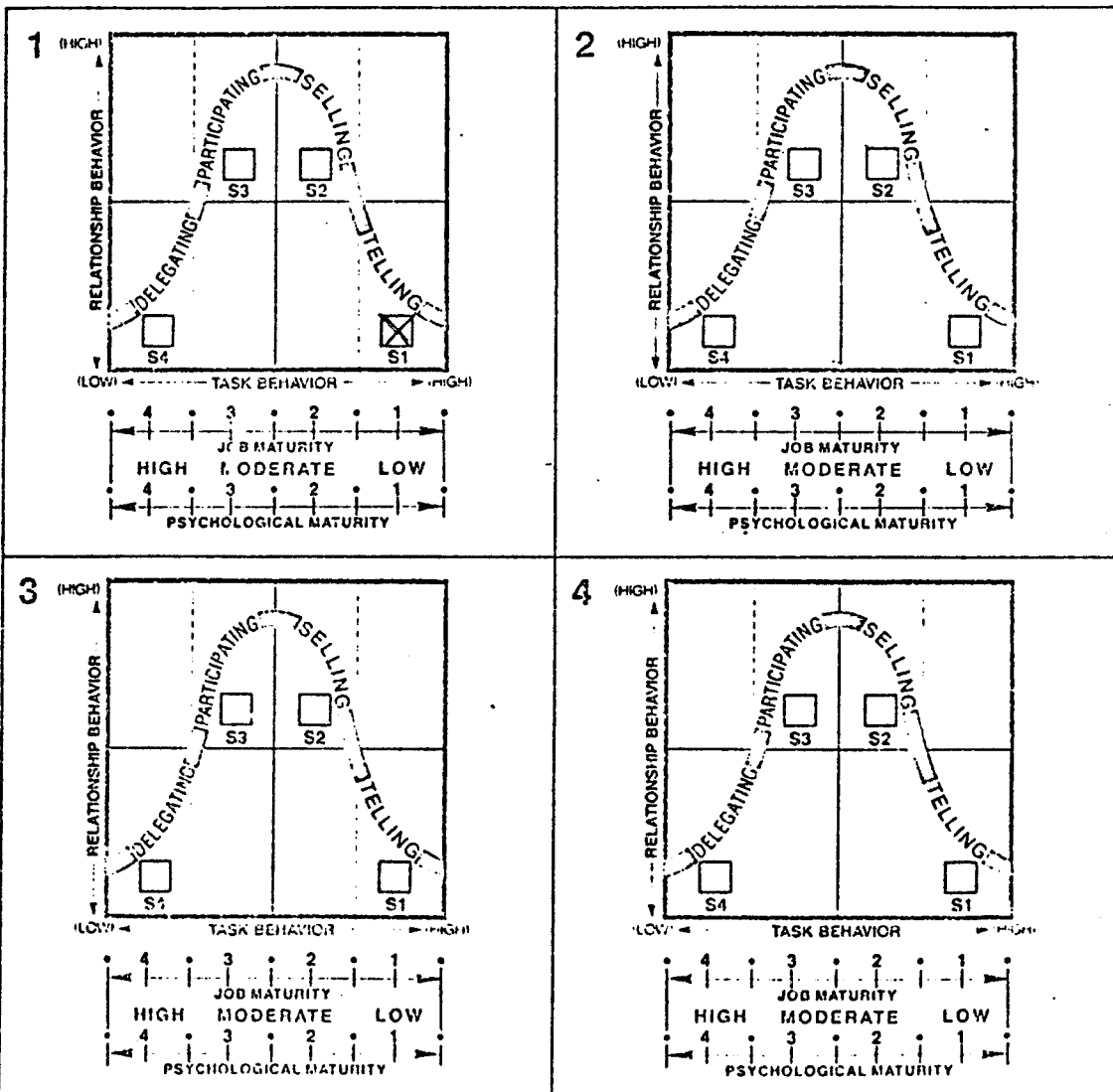
Usually 4 Often 3 On Occasion 2 Seldom 1

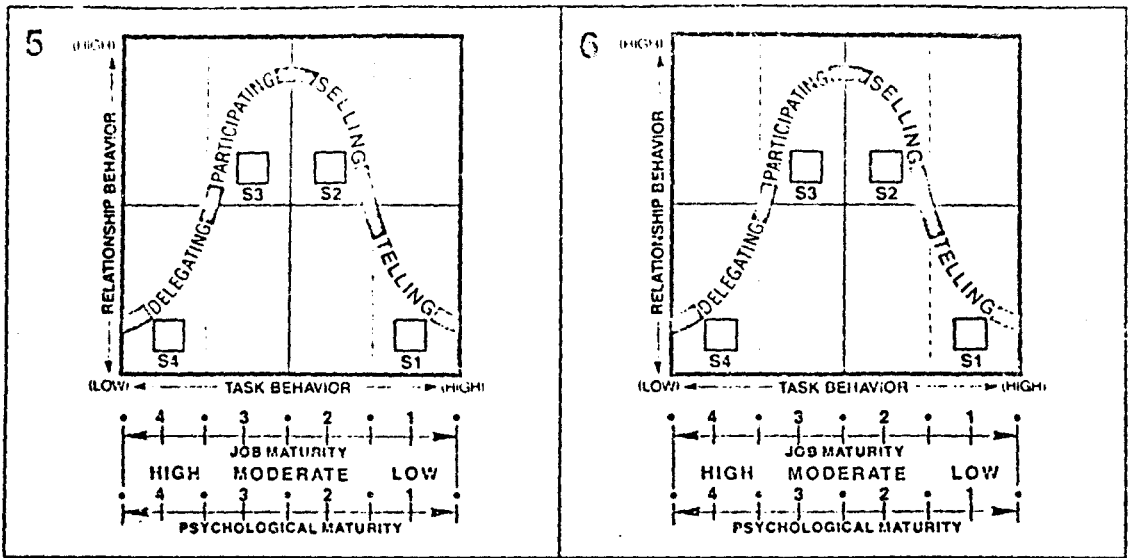
PSYCHOLOGICAL MATURITY

Part III — Integration of Style and Maturity

For each objective you have been analyzing in Part I and Part II you will find a Situational Leadership Model in Part III. In combining your data from Part I and Part II use the numbered figure in Part III that corresponds to the numbered objective and do the following:

1. Transfer the designations from part I for primary style (P) and secondary style (S), if selected, and enter them in the appropriate boxes in the Situational Leadership Models below. The style descriptor numbers correspond to the style numbers on the leadership model as follows:
 Descriptor (1) = S1 — Telling
 Descriptor (2) = S2 — Selling
 Descriptor (3) = S3 — Participating
 Descriptor (4) = S4 — Delegating
2. Now transfer the maturity ratings you made for each objective in Part II and recircle them below the appropriately numbered Situational Leadership Model in Part III.
3. Draw a line connecting your ability and willingness ratings in each of the Situational Leadership Models to show the range of maturity for each objective.





Part IV — Maturity Style Match Matrix

In order to determine, based on your ratings, the most appropriate leadership style that your manager should use with you for each objective, use the Maturity Style Match matrix as follows:

1. For Objective 1 locate on the matrix the ability score on the horizontal axis and the willingness score on the vertical axis.
2. Draw an imaginary line into the matrix from the ability and willingness scores. The box where those two lines would meet indicates the appropriate style or styles your manager should be using with you in terms of that specific objective. In the matrix, T = Telling, S = Selling, P = Participating and D = Delegating.
3. Put a check mark or marks in the style quadrant or quadrants in Situational Leadership Model 1 in Part III which is identified by the matrix as the appropriate style(s) your manager should be using for Objective 1.
4. Repeat this procedure for the remaining objectives.
 - Compare the check mark or marks generated from the data matrix with the primary and secondary style designations that you made earlier for each objective. This comparison gives you some insight into whether your manager is using "over leadership," "under leadership" or a "high probability style match."
 - "Over leadership" is where you have high levels of maturity but your manager is using telling and selling styles to a greater degree than necessary. "Under leadership" is where you have low levels of maturity but your manager is using participating and delegating styles more than is appropriate. A "high probability style match" would be when the style(s) of your manager tends to correspond with the maturity levels designated.

MATURITY SCALE MATCH MATRIX

WILLINGNESS	4	D	D	D	PD	P	P	SP	S	S
	3	D	D	PD	P	P	SP	S	S	S
	2	PD	PD	P	P	P	SP	S	S	TS
	1	P	P	P	P	P	SP	S	S	TS
	4	P	SP	SP	SP	S	S	S	TS	T
	3	SP	SP	S	S	S	S	TS	T	T
	2	S	S	S	TS	TS	TS	T	T	T
	1	S	S	TS	TS	T	T	T	T	T
			4	3	2	1				
		ABILITY								

APPENDIX F

Principal's Name: _____

Teacher Interview

Name: _____

School: _____

1. How many total years have you been teaching?
2. How many years have you worked with this principal?
3. Consider the following types of leadership styles such as a principal might exhibit with a faculty: 1) Telling, 2) Selling, 3) Participating, and 4) Delegating.
 - (a) On a regular basis, which style or styles do not think your principal uses most often?
 - (b) Which do you think is used least often?
4. Consider the four styles again--Telling, Selling, Participating, and Delegating. On a rating scale of 1 to 5, with 5 being the highest, how would you rate your principal in being effective in each style in a normal situation?
 - (a) Telling _____
 - (b) Selling _____
 - (c) Participating _____
 - (d) Delegating _____
5. Have you noticed (1) no change, (2) some change, or (3) considerable change in your principal's choice of leadership styles during the past three years?
6. Are you aware of whether or not your principal has been receiving any leadership training or study?
7. Comments:

APPENDIX G

Principals LEAD Interview

Name: _____

Date: _____

School: _____

SituationWhy?

1. Your subordinates are not responding lately to your friendly conversation and obvious concern for their welfare. Their performance is declining rapidly.

Your choice was _____.

-
2. The observable performance of your group is increasing. You have been making sure that all members were aware of their responsibilities and expected standards of performance.

Your choice was _____.

-
3. Members of your group are unable to solve a problem themselves. You have normally left them alone. Group performance and interpersonal relations have been good.

Your choice was _____.

-
4. You are considering a change. Your subordinates have a fine record of accomplishment. They respect the need for change.

Your choice was _____.

5. The performance of your group has been dropping during the last few months. Members have been unconcerned with meeting objectives. Redefining roles and responsibilities has helped in the past. They have continually needed reminding to have their tasks done on time.

Your choice was _____.

6. You stepped into an efficiently run organization. The previous administrator tightly controlled the situation. You want to maintain a productive situation, but would like to begin humanizing the environment.

Your choice was _____.

7. You are considering changing to a structure that will be new to your group. Members of the group have made suggestions about needed change. The group has been productive and demonstrated the ability in its operations.

Your choice was _____.

8. Group performance and interpersonal relations are good. You feel somewhat unsure about your lack of direction of the group.

Your choice was _____.

9. Your superior has appointed you to head a task force that is far overdue in making requested recommendations for change. The group is not clear on its goals. Attendance of sessions has been poor. Their meetings have turned into social gatherings. Potentially they have the talent necessary to help.

Your choice was _____.

10. Your subordinates, usually able to take responsibility, are not responding to your recent redefining of standards.

Your choice was _____.

11. You have been promoted to a new position. The previous supervisor was uninvolved in the affairs of the group. The group has adequately handled its tasks and direction. Group interrelations are good.

Your choice was _____.

12. Recent information indicates some internal difficulties among subordinates. The group has a remarkable record of accomplishment. Members have effectively maintained long-range goals. They have worked in harmony for the past year. All are well qualified for the task.

Your choice was _____.

APPROVAL SHEET

The dissertation submitted by Salvatore Vincent Pascarella has been read and approved by the following committee:

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The final copies have been examined by the chairman of the dissertation and the signature which appears below verifies the fact that any necessary changes have been incorporated and that the dissertation is now given final approval by the committee with reference to content and form.

The dissertation is therefore accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education.

4-23-85

Date

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