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Leadership in education : a field test of Hersey and Blanchard's situational leadership theory.

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

A Dissertation Presented

By

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A C K N O W L E D G E M E N T S

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ABSTRACT

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

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Purpose

The purpose of this study was to test the basic premise of Situational Leadership Theory (SLT), that leader effectiveness results from the adaptation of leadership style to follower task-relevant maturity. The general hypothesis was:

> Principal effectiveness is positively correlated with the congruency between principal leadership style and teacher task-relevant maturity.

Fourteen specific null hypotheses were stated, seven for task-relevant maturity from principals' perspective and seven for task-relevant maturity from teachers' perspective. It was hypothesized that, at each level of maturity, no significant difference in effectiveness would result from principals' use of the four leadership styles. The rejection level for the null hypotheses was established at .05.

Methodology

To test the null hypotheses, a field test was designed with twenty-one elementary school principals and eighty-five of their teachers. Each teacher used the Job Responsibilities Form to choose five responsibilities about which the data were collected. The Maturity Scale was used to obtain measures of teachers' task-relevant maturity from principals' perspective and from teachers' perspective. The Leadership Style and Effectiveness Form was used to measure principals' leadership style, teachers' performance and satisfaction, and principals' effectiveness from teachers' perspective. The Leadership Style and Performance Form was used to measure teachers' performance from principals' perspective (this form also measured principals' leadership style from principals' perspective, but those data were not used in this study).

Results

Due to insufficient data, six of the fourteen hypotheses were not tested. Of the eight that were tested, six were accepted in the null form and two were rejected. The accepted hypotheses and one of the rejected hypotheses contradicted SLT. The other rejected hypothesis partially validated SLT. In summary, there was only one instance when matches between leadership style and task-relevant maturity correlated with leader effectiveness.

Conclusions

There were strong indications that the Maturity Scale did not discriminate levels of task-relevant maturity accurately. There were also questions about the instruments which measured leadership style and effectiveness, the data collection procedure, and the population. Based on these methodological considerations, it was not possible to make a definitive statement about the validity of SLT.

Nevertheless, some conclusions were possible. One was that Styles 2, 3, and 4 were all effective with some teachers in some situations. Another was that there was a tendency, though not significant, for S2 to be perceived as the most effective style regardless of maturity level. A third was that the high relationship styles (S2 and S3) were perceived to be significantly more effective than the low relationship styles (S1 and S4) regardless of task-relevant maturity.

These conclusions reaffirmed the need to conduct further research with theories of situational leadership, to address the methodological issues regarding measurement of maturity, leadership style, and effectivness, and to use the results of research to develop improved theories.

In addition to these conclusions, two recommendations for modifying SLT were suggested. One was to change

the term task-relevant maturity to performance quotient. The other was to expand the dimension relationship behavior to two dimensions, supportive behavior and participative behavior.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

This research was conducted to validate Situational Leadership Theory (SLT) which was developed by Paul Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard (1969, 1977). Specifically, the study tested SLT's contention that leader effectiveness is a function of a leader's adapting his/her leadership style to the task-relevant maturity of his/her follower(s). The research was done with educators; it examined relationships between principals and teachers in elementary schools.

Statement of the Problem

There have been three phases of research in the field of leadership, the first focused on trait theories. The second focused on leadership styles. The third is still focusing on situational theories.

Research with trait theories attempted to identify personality traits which distinguish leaders from non-leaders. Twenty years of such research yielded one trait —intelligence—which is common among leaders (Gibb, 1954; Stogdill, 1948). However, since many intelligent people are not leaders, research with trait theories produced no results of lasting value.

Leadership style theories attempted to classify leader behavior in terms of various continua. Research with these theories attempted to determine which style was the most effective. The best known and most widely researched of these theories is the Ohio State Model developed by the Bureau of Business Research at Ohio State University (Stogdill and Coons, 1957). The model scales two dimensions, *initiating structure* and *consideration*, from low to high and uses the resulting continua to form a matrix. The matrix defines four leadership styles: one which is high on initiating structure, one which is high on consideration, one which is high on both dimensions, and one which is low on both dimensions. Research with the Ohio State Model has not been able to find a single style which is most effective (Porter, Lawler, and Hackman, 1975).

Situational theories accept the premise that no one style is the best. Each 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), *Style 2* (S2), *Style 3* (S3), and *Style 4* (S4) to refer to the four leadership styles. S1 is high on task behavior. S2 is high on task behavior and high on relationship behavior. S3 is high on relationship behavior. Ans S4 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 willingness but high on ability. Maturity level three (M3) is high on willingness but low on ability. And maturity level four (M4) is high on both willingness and ability.

In essence, SLT says 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. In other words, effectiveness results from matching leadership style with task-relevant maturity. Specifically, SLT claims that effective leader behavior results from the use of S1 with M1, S2 with M2, S3 with M3, and S4 with M4.

One study has been done which examines the relationship between leader behavior and maturity. Smith (1974) used the Personality Orientation Inventory (POI) dimensions of *time competency* and *inner directedness* to measure teachers' maturity. She used the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) to measure leader behavior. And she used measures of student achievement, student attitudes, and teacher satisfaction to measure effectiveness. Her results indicated that high task principals are more effective with low maturity teachers and high relationship principals are more effective with average maturity teachers. However, these relationships only held up with the time competency dimension. With inner directedness, there were not such distinctions. Thus, her results were not conclusive. In addition, her methodology did not provide an adequate test of SLT since the theory is based on task-relevant maturity and her measures of maturity

were general measures. The same criticism applies to her measures of leader behavior since the LBDQ does not collect data in relation to specific tasks.

Given this history, the problem addressed in this study was to test the basic premise of SLT: that leader effectiveness is a function of matching leadership style with followers' task-relevant maturity. Methodologically, this was done by measuring task-relevant maturity, leadership style, and leader effectiveness in relation to specific tasks.

Definition of Terms

Task-relevant Maturity: According to SLT, task-relevant maturity is defined in terms of job maturity and pscyhological 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,

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" (Hersey and Blanchard, 1977, p. 161).

Leadership Style: This term referes 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 and Blanchard, 1977). SLT defines leadership style in terms of task behavior and relationship behavior. Four styles of leadership are defined as follows:

S1 is high on task behavior, low on relationship behavior,

S2 is high on both task and relationship behavior,

S3 is low on task behavior, high on relationship behavior

S4 is low on both task and relationship behavior.

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 (Hersey and Blanchard, 1977, pp. 114-116).

Purpose of the Study

SLT has been accepted by a wide range of people in various work environments. This acceptance verifies the theory's strong face validity. Nevertheless, there needs to be empirical evidence to support the theory. The

purpose of this study was to investigate the adequacy of SLT in one environment where it has been widely used—the elementary school. Specifically, the relationship between principals and teachers in elementary schools was examined as one example of leader-subordinate relationships.

To test the adequacy of SLT, the following hypothesis was investigated:

> Principal effectiveness is positively correlated with the congruency between principal leadership style and teacher task-relevant maturity.

This hypothesis can be represented by the formula E = f(M-S), effectiveness is a function of the difference between task-relevant maturity and leadership style. The greater the difference between M and S, the lower E should be. Conversely, the smaller the difference between M and S, the higher E should be. Highest effectiveness should occur when the difference is zero. The predicted relationships are depicted in Figure 1.

S4	E1	E2	E3	E4
S3	E2	E3	E4	E3
S2	E3	E4	E3	E2
S1	E4	E3	E2	E1
	M1	M2	M3	M4

Figure 1. Predicted relationships among the variables of SLT.

As the grid indicates, highest effectiveness should result from matches between task-relevant maturity and leadership style. In addition, effectiveness should decrease steadily as leadership style becomes increasingly distant from task-relevant maturity.

Methodology

To investigate the above hypothesis and the depicted relationships among variables, a field test was conducted. Task-relevant maturity was measured from teachers' and principals' perspectives. Leadership style was measured from teachers' perspective. Leader effectiveness was measured on the basis of teacher performance, teacher satisfaction, and principal ability to create conditions where performance and satisfaction are high. All measures were in relation to specific job responsibilities which teachers selected.

Delimitations

The research design employed in this study is described by Kerlinger (1973) as a field study. He writes, "Field studies are strong in realism, significance, strength of variables, theory orientation, and heuristic quality" (p. 406). He also writes, "Despite these strengths, the field study is a scientific weak cousin of laboratory and field experiments. Its most serious

weakness, of course, is its ex post facto character. Thus, statements of relations are weaker than they are in experimental research" (p. 408). He points out that variables are more complex and more difficult to measure precisely (p. 408). And he concludes that with ex post facto research, hypotheses are a must, results must be treated with caution, and results usually show correlations, not causal relationships (p. 392).

Another delimitation was related to the population. Kerlinger indicates that participants in field studies usually cannot be randomly selected since they are already part of significant groups (p. 379). This was clearly a problem with this study. The research was delimited to apply only to elementary school principals and teachers in New England. A further delimitation was that all subjects were selected solely on the basis of willingness to participate, thus they may represent a special group among educators. Therefore, results can only be generalized to New England elementary school principals and teachers who are willing to volunteer for after-school workshops.

Another delimitation related to the instruments. The Maturity Scales, the Leadership Style and Performance form and the Leadership Style and Effectiveness form have not been tested for reliability. In addition, their

validity has only been established on the basis of piloting. In addition, the definition of effectiveness and the scales for measuring effectiveness may or may not yield the same results as other definitions or other scales.

Significance

This study is significant to the field of leadership since it generated new information about the situational variable task-relevant maturity and its use for diagnosing effective leader behavior.

The study is also significant to school practitioners since it indicated which leadership styles tend to be most effective with elementary school teachers.

The study is also significant methodologically since it established a means of conducting research in relation to specific situations. It also produced new information about conducting such research.

Organization of the Remainder of the Dissertation

This dissertation contains five chapters. Chapter I is the Introduction. It has already presented the problem, definitions of terms, the purpose, the methodology, the delimitations, and the significance of the study. Chapter II is the Review of Literature. It presents a selective review of the literature in two sections,

a history of leadership theories and a review of leadership studies in schools. Chapter III is the Methodology. It presents a description of the study, the population, the specific hypotheses, the instrumentation, the procedures for data collection, and the procedures for data analysis. Chapter IV is the Results and Discussion. It presents the results and a discussion of the results. Chapter V is the Summary and Conclusions. It presents a summary of the results, interpretations of the findings, suggestions for further research, and conclusions.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter is presented in two sections. The first is an historical review of leadership theories. The second considers research with leadership theories in schools.

Historical Review

Leadership theories can be grouped into three categories: trait theories, leadership style theories, and situational theories. Each category is discussed in this section.

Trait Theories

Reviews of research with trait theories are found in Stogdill (1948) and Gibb (1954). Filley, House, and Kerr (1976, p. 213) provide a good description of this phase of leadership studies:

> Many studies were designed to determine the leader's intellectual, social, emotional, physical, and personal make-up in order to discover if there existed any universal traits in effective leaders that would distinguish them from less effective leaders.

Finch, Jones, and Litterer (1976, p. 92) summarize trait research:

> This line of research died out in the 1940's when reviews of the literature

> failed to uncover any consistent traits which characterize leaders. The characteristic which is most consistently found to be associated is intelligence. In general, leaders tend to be more intelligent than followers.

They continue, concluding:

> In essence, the research indicates that there is no clear, consistent pattern of traits associated with leadership. The failure of this approach turned researchers in other directions.

Some renewed interest in trait theory was generated by Ghiselli (1963). Even though he found several traits positively related to hierarchical levels, his findings were not strong enough to inspire other researchers to renew interest in traits. Most texts refer to trait theories as a phenomenon of the past and discuss them primarily as background to subsequent research.

Leadership Style Theories

The second phase of leadership studies focused on leadership styles. These theories have their history in two schools of managerial thought, the scientific management movement and the human relations movement. Scientific management, associated with Frederick Taylor (1911), is concerned with determining how to organize a work environment so efficiently that anyone could do a good job. Human relations, associated with Elton Mayo (1945), is concerned with improving the interpersonal relationships involved in work. Hersey and Blanchard (1976, p. 91) write:

> In essence, the scientific management movement emphasized a concern for task (output) while the human relations movement stressed a concern for relationships (people). The recognition of these two concerns has characterized the writings on leadership ever since the conflict between the scientific management and the human relations schools of thought became apparent.

Three leadership style theories which are concerned with task-oriented and people-oriented behaviors were developed by Likert (1961), Cartwright and Zander (1960), and Bales (1958). Likert's work is based on managerial behavior. The other two theories are based on behavior in small groups. Each of these theories can be visually conceptualized as a one dimensional continuum anchored at the poles by different terms. These terms, regardless of their source, are historically relevant to the current study.

Likert and the staff of the University of Michigan Survey Research Center developed a model which uses the terms *production-orientation* and *employee-orientation*. In the Michigan studies, leaders of best and worst producing departments were described in terms of this continuum. The research indicates that "employee-centered supervision results in superior outcomes, both in terms of material productivity and employee satisfaction" (Finch et al., 1976, p. 95).

Cartwright and Zander's work with small groups suggests that group objectives are either directed toward the achievement of specific goals or toward the maintenance of the group itself. Leadership is, therefore, either *goal-oriented* or *maintenance-oriented*.

Along these same lines, Bales identifies two distinct leadership functions: *task roles* and *maintenance roles*. His research with leaderless groups indicates that two types of leaders tend to emerge, a task specialist and a maintenance specialist. The implication is that leadership is concerned with both functions, but individual leaders behave in the one style or the other.

One problem with these theories is that they are too simplistic. In addition, leaders are most often described in terms of the poles and not thought of as being in bebetween. The next three theories are somewhat more complex.

Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1957) define another one-dimensional model anchored by the terms *authoritarian* and *democratic*. However, in addition to labelling the poles, they identify a range of leader behaviors along the continuum suggesting that leadership may be described at any point on the scale.

White and Lippitt (1943) also use the *authoritarian-democratic* continuum. In addition, they studied a *laissez-faire* style. In their research with Boys Clubs, authoritarian leadership resulted in somewhat higher production

at the expense of interpersonal relations. When authoritarian leaders withdrew, conflicts surfaced. In contrast, when democratic leaders withdrew, members were able to solve their problems and productivity continued. Laissez-faire leadership resulted in poor production and interpersonal relations.

Getzels and Guba (1957) also define three leadership styles. They use the terms *nomethetic* and *idiographic* to anchor their model. The nomothetic style "places emphasis on the requirements of the institution, the role, and the expectations." The idographic style "places emphasis on the requirements of the individual, the personality, and the need-disposition." Getzels and Guba's third style is called *transactional*. It is intermediate between the other two and is typified by explicit roles and expectations plus adaptation to individuals.

The next two leadership style theories are the most widely known. Each defines four styles which encompass the earlier, simpler models just discussed.

The most researched and widely used leadership theory is the Ohio State Model developed by the staff of the Bureau of Business Research at Ohio State University (Stogdill and Coons, 1957). The model is based on two dimensions, *initiating structure* and *consideration*, which refer to task behavior and relationship behavior respectively. Initiating structure is defined as "the extent

to which an individaul is likely to define and structure his/her role and those of subordinates toward goal attainment" (Fleishman and Peters, 1962). It refers to "the leader's behavior in delineating the relationship between him/herself and members of the work group and in endeavoring to establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and methods of procedure" (Halpin, 1959). Consideration is defined as "the extent to which an individual is likely to have job relationships with subordinates characterized by mutual trust, respect for their ideas, consideration of their feelings, and a certain warmth between him/herself and them" (Fleishman and Peters, 1962). It refers to "behavior indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth in the relationship between the leader and the members of his staff" (Halpin, 1959). These two dimensions are scaled from low to high and plotted on horizontal and vertical axes to define four leadership styles as depicted by the quadrants in Figure 2.

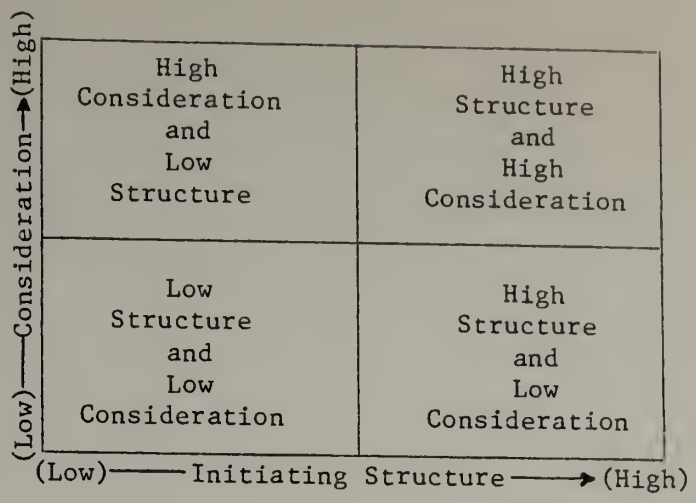

Figure 2. Leadership styles according to the Ohio State Model (Stogdill and Coons, 1957).

The Ohio State Model and several instruments which are derived from it (Leader Opinion Questionnaire, Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire, Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire) have been used in the bulk of the research done with leadership. Much of the research has indicated that high consideration behavior is positively correlated with workers' satisfaction with leaders; however, no single style has been found to be the best. Porter, Lawler, and Hackman (1975, p. 424) summarize the Ohio State studies:

> ...reviews (e.g., Korman, 1966; Sales, 1966) fail to reveal any substantial *consistent* effects associated with given behavioral styles of leaders nor any consistent trend for one or another style to be particularly effective in terms of individual or group performance—although there do seem to be some tendencies for employee morale to be positively associated with a considerate, employee-oriented style.

The last leadership style model to be discussed was developed by Blake and Mouton (1964) for their Managerial Grid training programs. The grid is similar to the Ohio State model. Instead of the behavioral dimensions initiating structure and consideration, Blake and Mouton use the attitudinal dimensions *concern for production* and *concern for people*. These dimensions are plotted from one to nine and the resulting space is divided into four quadrants as depicted in Figure 3.

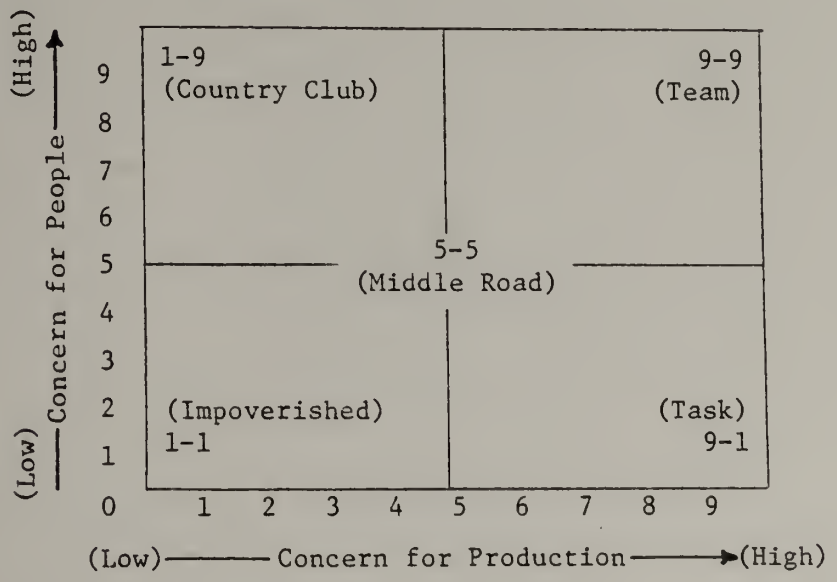

Figure 3. Leadership styles according to the Managerial Grid (Blake and Mouton, 1964).

As shown, this model names the four quadrants and the midpoint to define five leadership styles. In addition, by scaling the dimensions, it is implied that leadership behavior can be plotted at any point within the grid.

Grid training is designed to train managers to be *team* or high/high leaders. Blake and Mouton are explicit that this is the most effective style for leaders to use. Thus, even though the model defines more styles than previous theories, it still is concerned with one style as the best way to lead.

The problem with identifying the best style is that too many situations deviate from the norm. For example, despite his general conclusion, Likert (1961) found some production-oriented leaders who had high producing departments. And the Ohio State studies verify that no one style is best.

Situational Theories

In response to the limitations of style theories, a third phase of leadership studies has developed situational theories. These theories identify variables in the work environment which indicate where and when the various leadership styles should be used. Four situational theories are recognized in current literature and are discussed in the following pages. They are Fiedler's Contingency Theory (1967), House's Path-Goal Theory (1971), Vroom's Decision-making Theory (1973), and Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory (1977).

Contingency theory. This theory is based on three situational variables: leader-member relations (group

acceptance), task structure, and leader position power. It only considers two leadership styles, high LPC and low LPC, which are determined by a leader's completing the Least Preferred Coworker (LPC) instrument. The LPC instrument measures a single trait, esteem for one's least preferred coworker. On the basis of this trait, a style is generalized. The low LPC leader tends to be task-oriented or directive. The high LPC leader is not task-oriented or permissive. In either case, the leader may or may not be relationship-oriented.

Research with Contingency Theory has focused on defining the two styles and examining the interaction between the styles and the three situational variables. The theory predicts which style is most favorable in each situation according to the chart shown in Table 1.

In general, the theory predicts that when the situation is highly favorable or unfavorable to the leader, low LPC is the better style. When the situation is moderate, high LPC is better. Research reported by Fiedler (1967) supports these contentions. Filley, House, and Kerr (1976) report that Graen (1970) and Ashour (1972) have criticized Fiedler's findings on methodological grounds. However, they also report a tightly-controlled study of Chemers and Skrzypek (1972) which supports the Contingency Theory.

TABLE 1

Favorable Leadership Styles According to Contingency Theory

Octant	Leader/Member Relations	Task Structure	Position Power	Leadership Style
I	Good	Structured	Strong	Directive
II	Good	Structured	Weak	Directive
III	Good	Unstructured	Strong	Directive
IV	Good	Unstructured	Weak	Permissive
V	Poor	Structured	Strong	Permissive
VI	Poor	Structured	Weak	Permissive
VII	Poor	Unstructured	Strong	Both
VIII	Poor	Unstructured	Weak	Directive

Taken from Fiedler, 1967.

The value of the theory is that it identifies situational variables which are worth consideration. It also adds support to the contention that different styles of leadership are appropriate under varying conditions. However, it does not help a manager know how to adjust his/her behavior according to the situation.

There are three problems with Contingency Theory. One is that it only considers two leadership styles. A second is that it is not clear exactly what the LPC instrument measures or what the high and low scores mean. The third is stated by Filley, House, and Kerr (1976, p. 246):

> . . .the theory is in actuality an empirical generalization and not an explanation of relationships between leader behavior, situational factors, and group factors.

Path-goal Theory. This situational theory has generated much research in recent years. It is based on the assumption "that the major impact of a leader on the performance of subordinates is clarifying the path to desired rewards and making such rewards contingent on effective performance" (House and Mitchell, 1974). Path-goal Theory considers the interaction between four leadership styles and several situational variables including personal characteristics and environmental factors. Research with the theory has attempted to determine which styles are most effective with various types of followers under varying work conditions. The intended outcome of such studies is

to help a manager know how to establish goals and determine paths to goal-accomplishment for a range of subordinates.

The four leadership styles defined by Path-goal Theory are as follows (Filley, House, and Kerr, 1976, p. 253):

> Instrumental leadership features the planning, organizing, controlling, and coordinating of subordinate activities.
>
> Participative leadership is characterized by the sharing of information, power, and influence between supervisors and subordinates. Participative leaders treat subordinates pretty much as their equals, and allow them to influence their actions and decisions.
>
> Supportive leadership refers to behavior which includes giving consideration to the needs of subordinates, displaying concern for their well-being, status, and comfort, and creating a friendly and pleasant climate.
>
> Achievement-oriented leadership is characterized by leaders who set challenging goals, expect subordinates to perform at their highest level, continuously seek improvement in performance and show a high degree of confidence that the subordinates will assume responsibility, put forth effort, and accomplish challenging goals.

Path-goal Theory examines two sets of situational variables. Personal characteristics which are considered are authoritarianism, locus of control, ability, and achievement motivation. Environmental factors are size of group, task complexity, task repetitiveness, task ambiguity, and the formal authority system.

Research with Path-goal Theory has been extensive (Filley, House, and Kerr, 1976). The findings indicate several conclusions about each leadership style. Instrumental leadership is positively correlated with satisfaction and productivity when tasks are ambiguous. However, when tasks are clear, this directive style is only effective with subordinates who prefer to be directed (high authoritarian). Participative leadership is related to satisfaction and productivity when tasks are non-repetitive and ego-involving. When tasks are not, only low authoritarian followers are influenced by participation. Supportive leadership is needed when work is stressful, frustrating, or dissatisfying. Achievement-oriented leadership is useful only with non-repetitive, ambiguous tasks. In such situations, the higher a leader's achievement motivation, the more confident followers are that they will perform well.

The results of Path-goal studies are interesting but not illuminating. Three of the four styles are useful with ambiguous tasks. With clear tasks, some subordinates like to be directed and some do not. And when problems are pressing, people need support. This information does not give a manager a means of determining how to adapt his/her behavior to various situations. The major value of the theory is that it provides a mechanism for testing many situational variables in

relation to the main leadership styles discussed in the literature. In addition, the results of research confirm the hypothesis that no one style is the best.

Decision-making Theory. This third situational model is based on "types of decision methods" rather than leadership styles. The four types are *autocratic* (A), *consultative* (C), *group* (G) and *delegated* (D). The specific decision methods are depicted in Table 2.

Decision-making Theory also defines seven "problem attributes" which identify situational variables influencing decision situations. The variables used are the *importance of quality*, the *leader's information/expertise*, the *structure* of the problem, the need for subordinate *acceptance*, *acceptance of the leader*, subordinates' *commitment to organizational goals*, and the likelihood of *conflict*. The theory is normative in the sense that research has found that these attributes do, in fact, distinguish problem situations. The theory is prescriptive in the sense that it is used to determine which method is the best for any given situation. To accomplish this, the decision methods and problem attributes are organized into a "tree" which guides a manager to examine any situation in terms of each attribute. By following the branches of the tree, the theoretically best method is determined.

Research with this theory has been limited because the authors have placed control of all studies in the

TABLE 2

Decision-making Methods According to Decision-making Theory

Group Problems	Individual Problems
AI. You solve the problem or make the decision yourself, using information available to you at the time.	AI. You solve the problem or make the decision by yourself, using information available to you at the time.
AII. You obtain the necessary information from your subordinates, then decide the solution to the problem yourself. You may or may not tell your subordinates what the problem is in getting the information from them. The role played by your subordinates in making the decision is clearly one of providing the necessary information to you, rather than generating or evaluating alternative solutions.	AII. You obtain the necessary information from your subordinate, then decide on the solution to the problem yourself. You may or may not tell the subordinate what the problem is in getting the information from him. His role in making the decision is clearly one of providing the necessary information to you, rather than generating or evaluating alternative solutions.
CI. You share the problem with the relevant subordinates individually, getting their ideas and suggestions without bringing them together as a group. Then you make the decision, which may or may not reflect your subordinates' influence.	CI. You share the problem with your subordinate, getting his ideas and suggestions. Then you make a decision, which may or may not reflect his solutions.
CII. You share the problem with your subordinates as a group, obtaining their collective ideas and suggestions. Then you make the decision, which may or may not reflect your subordinates' influence.	GI. You share the problem with your subordinate, and together you analyze the problem and arrive at a mutually agreeable solution.
GII. You share the problem with your subordinates as a group. Together you generate and evaluate alternatives and attempt to reach agreement (consensus) on a solution. Your role is much like that of chairman. You do not try to influence the group to adopt "your" solution, and you are willing to accept and implement any solution which has the support of the entire group.	DI. You delegate the problem to your subordinate, providing him with any relevant information that you possess, but giving him responsibility for solving the problem by himself. You may or may not request him to tell you what solution he has reached.

hands of the Kepner-Tregoe Company. Vroom's research indicates that most managers use all of the decision methods (Vroom, 1976). This finding indicates that leaders do not use one style or another. Rather, they typically use a range of styles. The theory contends that leaders who use the right style at the right time are more effective than those who do not. It has been determined that training improves managers' ability to diagnose situations in a laboratory setting (Vroom, 1976). However, the accuracy of this theory has not been tested in the field.

Situational Leadership Theory. This last situational theory is the focus of the current study. It has been developed by Paul Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard and was first introduced as Life Cycle Theory (Hersey and Blanchard, 1969). SLT defines four leadership styles using a two-dimensional grid. Its horizontal axis is *task behavior* and its vertical axis is *relationship behavior*. These two dimensions are defined to refer to behaviors similar to those of the Ohio State dimensions initiating structure and consideration. The dimensions are scaled from low to high, the resulting space is divided into four quadrants, and each quadrant is numbered, as depicted in Figure 4.

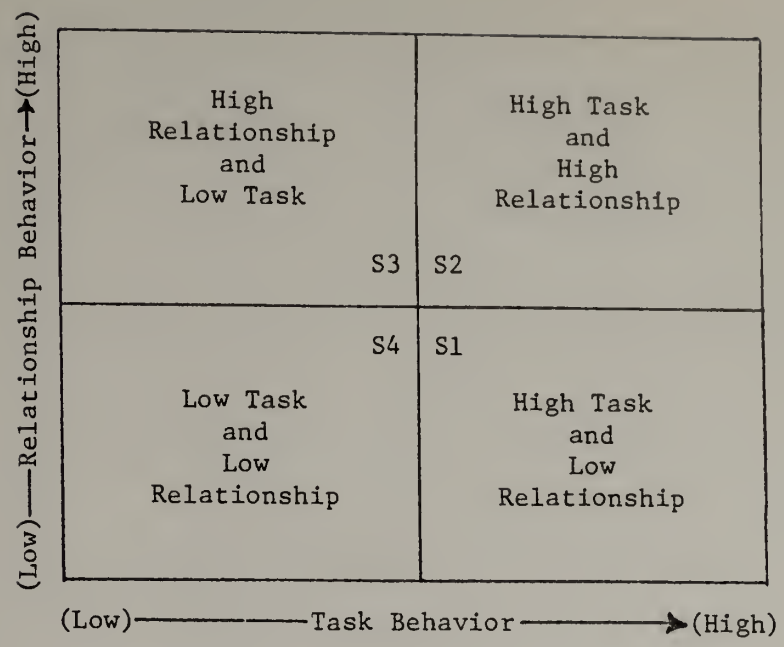

Figure 4. Leadership styles according to SLT (Hersey and Blanchard, 1977)

The development of SLT was aided by the work of William Reddin (1967, 1970) who added a third dimension, effectiveness, to the earlier two-dimensional models. Reddin thus introduced the idea that any of the four styles could be effective or ineffective depending on the situation. SLT incorporates this concept by defining Styles 1-4 as the effective use of the behavior described by each quadrant of the above grid.

SLT takes Reddin's work one step further by adding a situational variable which can be used to determine appropriate leadership style. The variable is "task-relevant maturity" which is defined in terms of "job

maturity—ability and technical knowledge to do the task" and "psychological maturity—feeling of self-confidence and self-respect about oneself as the individual" (Hersey and Blanchard, 1977, p. 263). These terms are referred to as "ability" and "willingness" and they are both determined by observable performance. Like the other dimensions of the model, task-relevant maturity is scaled from low to high, and four levels are defined as follows:

M1 is low on both ability and willingness,

M2 is low on ability but willing,

M3 is able but low on willingness,

M4 is able and willing.

These four levels are then correlated with the four leadership styles as depicted in Figure 5:

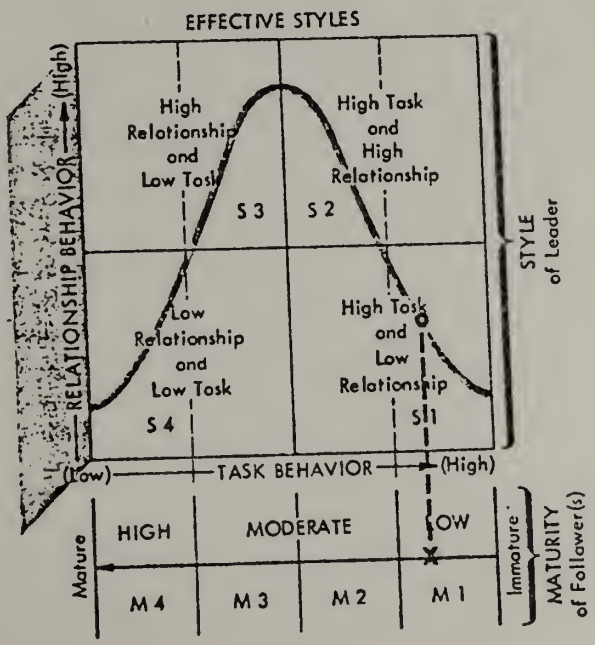

Figure 5. Diagnosing effective leader behavior (Hersey and Blanchard, 1977)

In essence, SLT postulates that effective leaders use a range of leadership styles and adapt their behavior to the task-relevant maturity of followers. The model is prescriptive since it indicates how a leader should act in various situations. In addition, the model is developmental since the theory claims that as task-relevant maturity increases, leadership style should progress accordingly. Thus, in path-goal terms, when a task is new and therefore ambiguous, a leader should be directive (Style 1); but, as the subordinate becomes familiar with the task, the leader should be participative (Style 2), and so on until the follower is working independently.

Research with SLT has been limited. Raynor (1976) found that training results in increased ability to accurately diagnose hypothetical management situations. Smith (1974) partially validated the postulate that effective leader behavior is adapted to follow maturity. However, her measure of maturity was a global measure, therefore her test did not examine task-relevant maturity. These studies do not provide sufficient evidence supporting SLT. Therefore, even though the theory has strong face validity and has been used by leaders in many fields including education, its validity has not been established through research. The current study was designed to provide such validation.

Leadership in Schools

This second section reviews several general studies, several studies which indicated a preference for task-oriented or relationships oriented leadership, and then examines research with the Ohio State Model, Contingency Theory, Path-goal Theory, and SLT.

General Studies

Several pieces of general information have been generated by leadership studies in schools. Chase (1953), Moyer (1955), and Gross and Herriott (1965) demonstrate that the behavior of principals has a strong impact on the functioning of a school.

Chase (April, 1953) found that there is a positive relationship between a principal's leadership style and teacher satisfaction, that satisfaction is a result of a principal's meeting teacher expectations, and that effective principals "need to understand the expectations of teachers." He writes (March, 1953):

> When teachers' expectations with regard to the leadership of the principal are met, there are seventy chances in a hundred that they will be enthusiastic about teaching in the school, and less than one chance in a hundred of active dissatisfaction.

Moyer (1955) came to a similar conclusion, finding that teachers are most satisfied when a principal's real behavior is consistent with a teacher's conception of ideal

behavior. He also found that the more a principal "encourages teachers to be less dependent upon him and more interdependent on each other, the higher teacher satisfaction in the group."

Gross and Herriott (1965) found that principals who stress improving the quality of staff performance have teachers who are higher on morale and performance, and they have students who are higher on learning than principals who do not stress professional development.

Ignatovich (1974), Brown (1964), and Eidell (1969) did studies which indicate that perceptions of principals and teachers vary and that type of school and culture may affect behavior.

Ignatovich (1974) found that Iowa principals and teachers have similar perceptions of principals' real behavior and ideal behavior. Both groups see principals as person-oriented and living up to ideal standards. In a parallel study in Turkey, he found principals and teachers agreeing that principals are system-oriented. However, principals saw themselves living up to ideals on all dimensions while teachers saw principals as living up to none.

Brown (1964) found that principals generally tend to perceive their schools as being more open than teachers do.

Eidell (1969) found that principals in different types of schools behave differently. In multi-unit and

IPI (individually programmed instruction) schools, they use more participative styles of leadership than principals in control schools.

To summarize these general studies, a principal's leadership style has a strong impact on teachers, the effects of his/her behavior depend on teachers' expectations and environmental constraints, and different types of leader behavior have varying impacts on schools.

Relationship-oriented vs. Task-oriented Principals

Several studies have drawn conclusions about task-oriented principals or relationship-oriented principals. The conclusions have been mixed as indicated in the following six studies.

Getzels and Guba (1957) found that professionally-trained people, like teachers, generally prefer idiographic (high relationship) leadership.

Harrell (1972) found that idiographic principals tend to have more innovation occurring in their schools than do nomothetic (task-oriented) principals.

Grassie and Carss (1972) discovered that professionally-oriented teachers are satisfied by considerate, trustful leadership.

Chesler, Schmuck, and Lippitt (1963) found that teaching staffs with the greatest number of innovations

have principals who are "tuned to their feelings and values" (relationship-oriented).

Doyle and Ahlbrand (1974) found that relationship-oriented principals are supportive of teachers' ideas while task-oriented principals are critical.

On the other side of the argument, Congreve (1957) found that school staffs prefer a formal, impersonal approach to administration.

Similarly, Moeller (1964) found that bureaucratic organizations give teachers a greater sense of power to affect change in the system. In contrast with democratic organizations, there is less turnover in bureaucratic systems, and the longer teachers stay in the system, the more they feel powerful to change it.

To summarize the results of the last six studies, high relationship principals tend to support new ideas and innovations. High task principals tend to manage more stable schools. And the evidence indicates that, depending on the goal, teachers prefer both types of leadership.

Ohio State Studies

Much of the research about leadership in education has been generated by the Ohio State Model. Most studies have been done with the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ). In general, these studies support the contention that task behavior and relationship behavior

are both important for principals. Several examples follow.

Hemphill (1955) found that the best administered college departments have staffs above the mean on both initiating structure and consideration.

Halpin (1956) studied school superintendents and found that school boards wanted them to emphasize structure while staffs thought superintendents should emphasize consideration. Both groups thought that both dimensions should be high.

Evenson (1959) repeated Halpin's study with principals and found the same results. Superintendents and teachers found the most effective principals to be high on structure and consideration.

Peoples (1964) found that principals need to be high on both dimensions in order to have a successful system of upward communication.

Sergiovanni, Metzous, and Burden (1969) predicted that teachers would prefer a range of leadership styles depending on their needs orientation. However, their research discovered no such relationships. Instead, teachers preferred principals to be high on structure and high on consideration regardless of their needs orientation.

Stotts (1968), used the LBDQ XII with administrators of Adult Basic Education programs in Illinois. He found that both principals and teachers perceived leaders to be

high on most of the twelve dimensions. In addition, both groups' ideal ratings indicated that they would prefer more leader behavior in most areas. Since the twelve dimensions of this scale can be collapsed into initiating structure and consideration, another piece of evidence is added that Style 2 is the "best."

Fietler (1972), also using the LBDQ XII, studied elementary principals and found that the dimensions *tolerance of freedom, consideration, integration,* and *tolerance of uncertainty* correlated positively with high scores on Likert's School Profile instrument. This study suggests that high relationship behavior is the most important factor influencing school success.

Another instrument which is derived from the Ohio State Model is the Organization Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ). One study using the OCDQ was done by Feldvebel (1964). His work showed that greater student achievement correlated positively with high scores on *production emphasis* and *consideration.*

To summarize these Ohio State studies, principals should use task-oriented *and* relationship-oreinted styles of leadership. However, it is not clear if a principal should use Style 2 (high/high), Style 1 (high task) and Style 3 (high relationship), or all three. Also, there is no indication of when a principal should use each type of behavior.

A study of Moser (1957) clarifies the first point. Using Getzels and Guba's model, he found that the most effective principals are those who are perceived by superintendents and teachers to use the *transactional* style (Style 2). He also found that principals tend to emphasize *nomothetic* behavior (Style 1) with superintendents and *idiographic* behavior (Style 3) with teachers.

Ignatovich (1971), using the OCDQ with Iowa principals, shed some light on the second point. He defines three types of principals: the *intolerant-structuralist*, the *tolerant-integrator*, and the *tolerant-interloper*. These three types correspond to Style 1, Style 2, and Style 4 respectively. His study found that Style 1 and 2 leaders are equally potent (i.e., their real behavior lives up to ideal standards). Style 2 leaders are most engaged, least hindering, and generate the highest espirit among faculty. Style 4 generates the highest intimacy among staff. These findings suggest that different styles of leadership do, in fact, create varying results in schools. They also indicate that different styles are appropriate for the achievement of various goals.

Studies with Contingency Theory

Research with Fiedler's Contingency Theory also helps explain which styles are most effective in different situations. McNamara (1968) defined principals in terms

of low and high LPC scores. He found that low LPC principals are more task-oriented, focus on instructional matters in meetings, prescribe teaching methods more often, interrupt classes more often, make more attempts to involve teachers in discussing school problems and making decisions, and allow and insist on teachers' initiation in meetings and involvement in school decisions. This list includes Style 1 and Style 2 behaviors. At the other end of the scale, high LPC principals tend to use Style 3 and Style 4 behaviors.

McKague (1968) verified McNamara's findings. His research indicates that low LPC principals are perceived to be high on the OCDQ dimensions production emphasis, thrust, and consideration. These dimensions represent high task (Style 1) and high/high (Style 2) behaviors.

McKague (1970) also found that the three situational variables of Contingency Theory—task structure, leader-member relations, and leader's position power—are not all applicable to schools. He discovered that schools are work environments where teachers generally face unstructured tasks and principals have a high degree of position power. Therefore, only Octants III and VII apply to schools. In this context, McKague found that low LPC principals are seen as effective and their teachers are satisfied *if* group-member relations are good. In a

related study, Hawley (1969) found that in schools with poor leader-member relations, low LPC principals are seen as responding more to the needs of the system than to the needs of their staff. In summary, these studies indicate that when relationships are already good, high task behavior (Styles 1 or 2) is effective. But, when relationships are not good, more relationships behavior is needed. These results, though situational, are so obvious that they cannot be of much help to practitioners.

In addition, Watkins (1966) and Duncan (1975) report contradictory findings. They both found that high LPC principals tend to have groups of teachers who are higher on morale than low LPC principals. Thus, the research with Contingency Theory is not very useful.

Path-goal Studies

Research with House's Path-goal Theory has not focused much attention on schools. As reported in the *Historical Review* section, research findings with this theory have not been illuminating. In summary, two conclusions do apply to the current study. One is that all of the leadership styles can be effective depending upon the situation. The other is that it is important to vary the amounts of each type of leader behavior according to the demands of a given task, the capability of followers to do the task, and followers' predisposition toward being directed.

Studies with SLT

Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory presents a means of adapting leadership behavior to the demands of task and follower. They argue that "a variety of leadership styles may be appropriate at any given time, depending upon the subordinate maturity in relation to the specific task(s) involved" (1977, p. 220). They also report one successful application of the theory in an elementary school in eastern Massachusetts (p. 221). However, the only research designed to test SLT was done by Smith (1974). As reported in the *Historical Review*, that test was not an adequate study of the variable task-relevant maturity. Therefore, even though SLT has been demonstrated to help principals (and other managers) determine which leadership styles should be used with various teachers (and other subordinates) under diverse conditions, the correlation of effectiveness with matches between leadership style and task-relevant maturity has not been demonstrated by research.

Summary

Research in the field of leadership has led to the development of situational theories which indicate what style is most effective in various situations. Of the major theories, Contingency Theory is the only one that has been validated. Unfortunately, it is the theory

with the least applicability. Research with Path-goal Theory has helped determine variables which can be used to diagnose situations. However, application of its findings are limited and confusing. Decision-making Theory and SLT both define proceudres for diagnosing situations and prescribing leader behavior; however, neither of these theories has been validated. Comparing these two, Decision-making Theory defines leader behavior more specifically, but SLT uses the four basic styles which have emerged from years of research with the Ohio State Model. SLT is easier to apply than Decision-making Theory. It is developmental, therefore it can be used to facilitate organization development and personal growth within organizations. Also, SLT's variable task-relevant maturity is a flexible concept. For example, it's definition can be expanded to encorporate new findings from Path-goal research; or its definition can be adjusted to the needs of different work environments or to varying situations within a single work environment. Therefore, it is the opinion of the author, based on this review of literature, that SLT is the most comprehensive and readily applicable leadership theory. Its limitation is that it has not yet been subjected to research which could validate its contentions.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents descriptions of the study and the population, the specific hypotheses, the instrumentation, and the procedures for data collection and for data analysis.

Description of the Study

The study was designed to validate Situational Leadership Theory (SLT). It was a field test of SLT's basic premise that adapting leadership style to follower task-relevant maturity results in leader effectiveness. The research was done with elementary school principals and teachers. It involved measurements of task-relevant maturity, leadership style, and leader effectiveness in relation to specific teacher responsibilities.

Population

The population consisted of twenty-one elementary school principals and three to five teachers per principal. Principals were selected by the researcher solely on the basis of their willingness to participate in the study. Teachers were selected by their principals on the same basis. In exchange for their participation, each principal

and his/her teachers attended a free after-school workshop about SLT and its application to the school and classroom management.

Below is a list of the participating schools and their locations:

Donahy School	Agawam, Massachusetts
Crocker Farm	Amherst, Massachusetts
Cold Springs	Belchertown, Massachusetts
Deerfield Elementary	Deerfield, Massachusetts
Mountain View	East Longmeadow, Massachusetts
Erving Elementary	Erving, Massachusetts
Federal Street North	Greenfield, Massachusetts
Four Corners	Greenfield, Massachusetts
Holland Elementary	Holland, Massachusetts
Hazard School	Kingston, Rhode Island
South Road	Kingston, Rhode Island
West Kingston Elementary	Kingston, Rhode Island
Monson Elementary	Monson, Massachusetts
Butterfield	Orange, Massachusetts
Dexter Park	Orange, Massachusetts
Bondsville Elementary	Palmer, Massachusetts
Palmer Elementary	Palmer, Massachusetts
Three Rivers	Palmer, Massachusetts
Sunderland Elementary	Sunderland, Massachusetts
McDonough	West Springfield, Massachusetts

No questionnaire was used to collect demographic data about the sample. Even so, some information is known about the participants. Only one of the principals was a woman, the other twenty were men. Of the teachers, 73 were women and 12 were men. The schools were all located in rural and semi-urban New England towns.

Hypotheses

As stated in Chapter I, the general hypothesis of this study was:

> Principal effectiveness is positively correlated with the congruency between

principal leadership style and teacher task-relevant maturity.

To test this hypothesis, two sets of null hypotheses were stated. A rejection level of .05 was set for all of the null hypotheses.

The first set of null hypotheses was based on principals' perceptions of teachers' task-relevant maturity. They read as follows:

1a. In situations where teachers are perceived at maturity level 1, no significant difference in perceived effectiveness results from principals' use of the four leadership styles.

1b. In situations where teachers are perceived at maturity level 1.5, no significant difference in perceived effectiveness results from principals' use of the four leadership styles.

1c. In situations where teachers are perceived at maturity level 2, no significant difference in perceived effectiveness results from principals' use of the four leadership styles.

1d. In situations where teachers are perceived at maturity level 2.5, no significant difference in perceived effectiveness results from principals' use of the four leadership styles.

1e. In situations where teachers are perceived at maturity level 3, no significant difference in perceived effectiveness results from principals' use of the four leadership styles.

1f. In situations where teachers are perceived at maturity level 3.5, no significant difference in perceived effectiveness results from principals' use of the four leadership styles.

1g. In situations where teachers are perceived at maturity level 4, no significant difference in perceived effectiveness results from principals' use of the four leadership styles.

The second set of hypotheses was based on teachers' perceptions of their own task-relevant maturity. They read as follows:

2a. In situations where teachers perceive themselves at maturity level 1, no significant difference in perceived effectiveness results from principals' use of the four leadership styles.

2b. In situations where teachers perceive themselves at maturity level 1.5, no significant difference in perceived effectiveness results from principals' use of the four leadership styles.

2c. In situations where teachers perceive themselves at maturity level 2, no significant difference in perceived effectiveness results from principals' use of the four leadership styles.

2d. In situations where teachers perceive themselves at maturity level 2.5, no significant difference in perceived effectiveness results from principals' use of the four leadership styles.

2e. In situations where teachers perceive themselves at maturity level 3, no significant difference in perceived effectiveness results from principals' use of the four leadership styles.

2f. In situations where teachers perceive themselves at maturity level 3.5, no significant difference in perceived effectiveness results from principals' use of the four leadership styles.

2g. In situations where teachers perceive themselves at maturity level 4, no significant difference in perceived effectiveness results from principals use of the four leadership styles.

Instrumentation[1]

Instruments were developed to help teachers select job responsibilities and to measure teachers' task-relevant maturity, principals' leadership style, and principals' effectiveness. The following paragraphs describe the instruments used in this research.

Job Responsibilities Form

This form was developed by the researcher specifically for this study. It was designed to help teachers select job responsibilities, to establish standards for their selections, to encourage them to choose responsibilities with a range of maturity levels, and to guarantee that principals and teachers would use the same set of responsibilities for the other instruments.

The form lists 74 job responsibilities that are typical for elementary school teachers. It also includes several blank lines so that teachers can add other responsibilities. The form directs teachers to read through the list and make any additions they choose. It then asks them to select five responsibilities about which they are willing to consider their task-relevant maturity and their principal's leadership style. Teachers are asked

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[1]The researcher is indebted to Ronald K. Hambleton who developed similar instruments for a study he is doing with XEROX and who consented to the modification and use of his instruments.

to select at least one responsibility in which they need no improvement, one in which they are competent but have room for improvement, and one in which they need improvement. The last page of the form provides spaces for teachers to make two copies of their selections, one to keep and a duplicate to give to their principals.

Piloting of the instrument was done by the researcher by giving successive drafts to teachers and principals until no further modifications were suggested. (See Appendix A for a copy of the Job Responsibilities form.)

Maturity Scale

There are two versions of this instrument, one for employee self-assessment and another for manager assessment of employees. The forms were developed by Ronald K. Hambleton, Kenneth H. Blanchard, and Paul Hersey and are copyrighted (1977).

The instrument directs respondents to write their five job responsibilities across the top of the form. Along the left-hand side of the page is a list of 12 dimensions of job maturity and 12 dimensions of psychological maturity. Respondents are asked to choose five diemsnions of job maturity and five of psychological maturity for each responsibility, and to rate the employee on a one-to-eight scale for each dimension. Thus, for each responsibility, the respondent enters ten numbers between one and eight. These numbers are totalled,

producing a sum for job maturity and another for psychological maturity. The sums are checked against a scoring matrix which designates the level of task-relevant maturity and the appropriate leadership style to be used with that level. The matrix designates employees at maturity levels 1, 1.5, 2, 2.5, 3, 3.5, and 4. It also indicates that for maturity level 1, S1 is the appropriate style. For level 1.5, either S1 or S2 is appropriate. And so on for the other levels. (See Appendices B and C for copies of the two versions of the Maturity Scale.)

Leadership Style and Performance

This form was developed by the researcher specifically for this study. It was designed to collect data from principals. The instrument consists of one item regarding principal leadership style and one item regarding teacher performance. The form includes a page of directions and a rating form for each teacher. Principals are directed to write a teacher's job responsibilities across the top of the rating sheet. Along the left-hand side of the sheet are the two items. For leadership style, the four leadership styles are described and labelled as S1, S2, S3, and S4. Respondents are asked to place a check beside the leadership style they usually use with each teacher on each responsibility. For performance, five levels are described, ranging from *unsatisfactory performance* to *exceptional performance*. Respondents are asked to place a

check beside the rating that corresponds to their assessment of each teacher's work on each responsibility.

Piloting of this instrument was done in two stages. The first stage involved giving successive drafts to teachers and principals until no further modifications were suggested. The second stage involved principals' filling out the form and then being interviewed by the researcher to determine the consistency of scores with verbal accounts of situations. Results of the piloting suggest that the instrument is valid, but it has not been submitted to statistical validity tests. (See Appendix D for a copy of the Leadership Style and Performance Form.)

Leadership Style and Effectiveness

This form was developed by the researcher specifically for this study. It was designed to collect data from teachers. The instrument consists of one item regarding principal leadership style, one item regarding teacher performance, two items regarding teacher satisfaction, and five items regarding principal effectiveness. The form includes a page of directions, a page for rating leadership style and performance, and a page for rating satisfaction and effectiveness. Teachers are directed to write their job responsibilities across the top of the rating sheets. Along the left-hand side of the first

sheet are two items which parallel the items on the principal rating form. The item for leadership style asks teachers to place a check beside the style that their principal usually uses with them on each responsibility. The item for performance asks them to place a check beside the rating which corresponds to their assessment of their own work. Along the left hand side of the second page are two questions about satisfaction and five about effectiveness. Teachers are asked to use a scale from one to five, ranging from *very low* to *very high*, and to respond to each item for every responsibility by inserting the appropriate number in the boxes.

Piloting of this instrument was done in the same stages that were used for the Leadership Style and Performance Form. (See Appendix E for a copy of the Leadership Style and Effectiveness Form.)

Data Collection

The data were collected by the researcher in a workshop format. The workshops were held at participants' schools. Most of them were held for individual schools. When possible, more than one school met at one location. The workshops lasted approximately two hours. The first hour was spent introducing the concepts and terminology of SLT. The second hour was spent completing the instruments.

The introduction covered the following topics: task behavior, relationship behavior, the four leadership styles, a checkpoint to be sure that everyone could use the four styles to classify leader behavior, task-relevant maturity, and applications of SLT.

After participants were introduced to the theory, they were assured that no one but the researcher would see the raw data. The Job Responsibilities form was distributed to teachers. When each teacher's responsibilities were selected, teachers and principals were given the Maturity Scale. Principals were given the Leadership Style and Performance form and asked to insert a rating sheet in each Maturity Scale. Teachers were given the Leadership Style and Effectiveness form after they completed the Maturity Scale. Completed instruments were placed in an envelope to ensure confidentiality. Scoring was done by the researcher.

Analysis of Data

Even though data about principals' leadership style were collected from principals and teachers, only the ratings from teachers were used in the analysis of data. This was done because SLT defines leadership style in terms of others' perceptions. Therefore, all further references to leadership style refer only to teacher perceptions of principal behavior.

To test hypotheses 1a through 1g, the situations were sorted according to maturity level as perceived by the principal. An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was computed to determine if there were any significant differences in effectiveness when each leadership style was used with each level of task-relevant maturity. In cases where the F value was significant, the Scheffé method was used to determine the relative effectiveness of each leadership style with each maturity level.

In addition, for hypotheses 1a, 1c, 1e, and 1g matches between leadership style and maturity were possible. In these cases, t values were computed to compare the effectiveness of matches with the effectiveness of nonmatches.

To test hypotheses 2a through 2g, the situations were sorted according to maturity level as perceived by the teacher. Then the same statistical procedures were used. An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was done followed by computation of Scheffé ranges when F values were significant. For hypotheses 2a, 2c, 2e, and 2g t values were computed to compare the relative effectiveness of matches with nonmatches.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter presents the results of the study. The data are presented in statistical format with discussion following. The chapter is divided into three sections. The first section discusses hypotheses 1a through 1g, those based on principal perception of task-relevant maturity. The second section discusses hypotheses 2a through 2g, those based on teacher perception of task-relevant maturity. The beginning of each of the first two sections includes a table showing the frequency with which each leadership style was used with each maturity level. That table is followed by an analysis of the use of each style with each maturity level. The third section presents the results of an additional analysis of the data and a table showing the relative effectiveness of the four leadership styles.

Section One

This section discusses hypotheses 1a through 1g. All results and discussions are based on teachers' task-relevant maturity as perceived by principals.

Crosstabulations

Table 3 shows how often each leadership style was used with each level of maturity. Overall, teachers rated their principals at S1 in 4% of the 409 situations; S2, 21%; S3, 31%; and S4, 44%. Principals rated their teachers at maturity level 1 in 1% of the 409 situations; maturity level 1.5, 9%; maturity level 2, 3%; maturity level 2.5, 2%; maturity level 3, 12%; maturity level 3.5, 17%; and maturity level 4, 67%.

Teachers were perceived at maturity level 1 in 2 situations. Of those 2 situations, S2 was used once and S4 was used once.

There were no situations in which teachers were perceived at maturity level 1.5.

Teachers were perceived at maturity level 2 in 12 situations. Of those 12 situations, S1 was used 2 times, S2 was used once, S3 was used 3 times, and S4 was used 6 times.

Teachers were perceived at maturity level 2.5 in 7 situations. Of those 7 situations, S1 was used once, S3 was used 3 times, and S4 was also used 3 times.

Teachers were perceived at maturity level 3 in 47 situations. Of those 47 situations, S1 was used twice, S2 was used 9 times, S3 was used 15 times, and S4 was used 21 times.

TABLE 3

Crosstabulation
Leadership Style by Maturity Level,
Principal Perception

Task-Relevant Maturity, Principal Perception	Leadership Style S1	S2	S3	S4	Row Total
M1	0 0.0	1 50.0	0 0.0	1 50.0	2 .5
M1.5	0 0.0	0 0.0	0 0.0	0 0.0	0 0.0
M2	2 16.7	1 8.3	3 25.0	6 50.0	12 2.9
M2.5	1 14.3	0 0.0	3 42.9	3 42.9	7 1.7
M3	2 4.3	9 19.1	15 31.9	21 44.7	47 11.5
M3.5	7 10.1	11 15.9	18 26.1	33 47.8	69 16.9
M4	6 2.2	65 23.9	86 31.6	115 42.3	272 66.5
Column Total	18 4.4	87 21.3	125 30.6	179 43.8	409 100.0

In each cell, the top number is a simple count. The bottom number is a percentage representing each leadership style's use with each maturity level.

Teachers were perceived at maturity level 3.5 in 69 situations. Of those 69 situations, S1 was used 7 times, S2 was used 11 times, S3 was used 18 times, and S4 was used 33 times.

Teachers were perceived at maturity level 4 in 272 situations. Of those 272 situations, S1 was used 6 times, S2 was used 65 times, S3 was used 86 times, and S4 was used 115 times.

Hypothesis 1a

The hypothesis was stated as follows: In situations where teachers are perceived at maturity level 1, no significant difference in perceived effectiveness results from principals' use of the four leadership styles.

There were only two situations in which teachers were perceived at maturity level 1, therefore there were insufficient data to test this hypothesis.

Hypothesis 1b

The hypothesis was stated as follows: In situations where teachers are perceived at maturity level 1.5, no significant difference in perceived effectiveness results from principals' use of the four leadership styles.

There were no situations in which teachers were perceived at maturity level 1.5, therefore there were insufficient data to test this hypothesis.

Hypothesis 1c

The hypothesis was stated as follows: In situations where teachers are perceived at maturity level 2, no significant difference in perceived effectiveness results from principals' use of the four leadership styles.

There were 12 situations in which teachers were perceived at maturity level 2. Of those 12 situations, S1 was only used twice, S2 once, S3 three times and S4 six. Therefore, there were insufficient data to test this hypothesis.

Hypothesis 1d

The hypothesis was stated as follows: In situations where teachers are perceived at maturity level 2.5, no significant difference in perceived effectiveness results from principals' use of the four leadership styles.

There were only seven situations in which teachers were perceived at maturity level 2.5, therefore there were insufficient data to test this hypothesis.

Hypothesis 1e

The hypothesis was stated as follows: In situations where teachers are perceived at maturity level 3, no significant difference in perceived effectiveness results from principals' use of the four leadership styles.

The 47 situations were sorted into two groups, matches and nonmatches of leadership style with task-relevant maturity. A t-test was used to compute mean effectiveness scores for these two groups. Table 4 shows that the mean effective-

TABLE 4

Maturity Level 3, Principal Perception
Matches vs. Nonmatches

	n	Effectiveness Means	t Values	2-tailed Probability
Matches+	15	31.8667	.89	.377
Nonmatches	32	29.8750		

+ = highest effectiveness

ness score for matches was greater than the score for nonmatches, but the difference between the means was not significant.

The 47 situations were also sorted into four groups, one for each of the four leadership styles. Then an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to compute mean effectiveness scores for each group and an F value to compare the effectiveness scores. Table 5 shows the results of the ANOVA. The effectiveness means indicate a tendency for S2 to be perceived as the most effective style, followed by S3, S4, and S1. The F probability was greater than .05, therefore there were no significant relationships among the effectiveness scores of the four groups.

On the basis of the t value and the F value, hypothesis 1e was accepted in the null form. There were, in fact, no significant differences resulting from the use of the four styles.

The fact that there were no significant differences in perceived effectiveness when the four leadership styles were used represents a partial rejection of SLT. For SLT to have been validated, S3 would have had to be perceived as significantly more effective than the other styles followed by S2 and S4. Instead, there was a tendency, though not significant, for S2 to be perceived as the most effective style.

TABLE 5

Maturity Level 3, Principal Perception
Analysis of Variance by Leadership Style

	n	Effectiveness Means	F Value	F Probability
S1	2	27.0000	1.8704	.1489
S2+	9	34.1111		
S3	15	31.8667		
S4	21	28.3333		

+ = highest effectiveness

Hypothesis 1f

The hypothesis was stated as follows: In situations where teachers are perceived at maturity level 3.5, no significant difference in perceived effectiveness results from principals' use of the four leadership styles.

Since matches of leadership style and task-relevant maturity were not possible, no t-test was run.

The 69 situations were sorted into four groups, one for each of the four leadership styles. Then an ANOVA was used to compute mean effectiveness scores and an F value to compare the effectiveness scores. Table 6 shows the results of the ANOVA. The effectiveness means indicate a tendency for S2 to be perceived as the most effective style, followed by S3, S4, and S1. The F probability was greater than .05, therefore there were no significant relationships among the effectiveness scores of the four groups.

On the basis of the F value, hypothesis 1f was accepted in the null form. There were, in fact, no significant differences resulting from the use of the four leadership styles.

The fact that there were no significant differences in perceived effectiveness when the four leadership styles were used represents a partial rejection of SLT. For SLT to have been validated, S3 and S4 would have had to be perceived as significantly more effective than the other styles. Instead, there was a tendency for S2 to be perceived as the most effective style even though this result was not significant.

TABLE 6

Maturity Level 3.5, Principal Perception
Analysis of Variance by Leadership Style

	n	Effectiveness Means	F Value	F Probability
S1	7	29.2857	1.0256	.3871
S2+	11	32.9091		
S3	18	32.6111		
S4	33	30.3333		

+ = highest effectiveness

Hypothesis 1g

The hypothesis was stated as follows: In situations where teachers are perceived at maturity level 4, no significant difference in perceived effectiveness results from principals' use of the four leadership styles.

The 272 situations were sorted into two groups, matches and nonmatches of leadership style with task-relevant maturity. A t-test was used to compute mean effectiveness scores for these two groups. Table 7 shows that the mean effectiveness score for nonmatches was greater than the score for matches, and the difference was significant at the .0001 level.

The 272 situations were also sorted into four groups, one for each of the four leadership styles. Then an ANOVA was used to compute mean effectiveness scores for each group and an F value to compare the effectiveness means. Table 8 shows the results of the ANOVA. The effectiveness means indicate a tendency for S2 to be perceived as the most effective style, followed by S3, S4, and S1. The F probability was less than .05, therefore there was at least one significant relationship among the effectiveness scores of the four groups.

To determine which styles were significantly more effective than others, the Scheffé method was used. This method generates a range value which is then used to determine significant differences between any pair of

TABLE 7

Maturity Level 4, Principal Perception
Matches vs. Nonmatches

	n	Effectiveness Means	t Value	2-tailed Probability
Matches	115	31.6957	-4.68	.0001*
Nonmatches+	157	35.4522		

+ = highest effectiveness
* = significant at the .05 level

TABLE 8

Maturity Level 4, Principal Perception
Analysis of Variance by Leadership Style

	n	Effective Means	F Value	F Probability
S1	6	30.333	8.7120	.0000*
S2+	65	35.9692		
S3	86	35.4186		
S4	115	31.6957		

+ = highest effectiveness
* = significant at the .05 level

scores. Table 9 shows the results of the Scheffé method. S3 was perceived to be significantly more effective than S4. S2 was also perceived to be significantly more effective than S4.

Based on the t value and the F value, hypothesis 1g was rejected. A significant difference in effectiveness did, in fact, result from principals' use of different leadership styles.

The rejection of this hypothesis does not represent a validation of SLT. On the contrary, it represents a statistically significant rejection of the theory. For SLT to have been validated, S4 would have had to be perceived as significantly more effective than the other styles, followed by S3, S2, and S1. Instead, S2 was perceived to be the most effective style. In addition, S3 was also perceived to be significantly more effective than S4.

Section Two

This section discusses hypotheses 2a through 2g. All results and discussions are based on teachers' task-relevant maturity as perceived by teachres.

Crosstabulations

Table 10 shows how often each leadership style was used with each level of maturity. Overall, teachers rated their principals at S1 in 4% of the 409 situations;

TABLE 9

Maturity Level 4, Principal Perception
Scheffé Method

Styles	Difference Between Effectiveness Means	Scheffé Ranges	More Effective Style
S4 - S3	-3.7229	2.616	S3*
S4 - S2	-4.2735	2.848	S2*
S4 - S1	1.3624	7.685	S4
S3 - S2	.5506	3.0163	S3
S3 - S1	5.6359	7.749	S3
S2 - S1	5.6359	7.8304	S2

Differences between mean effectiveness scores are significant at the (*) .05 level when the absolute value of the difference is greater than the Scheffé range.

TABLE 10

Crosstabulation
Leadership Style by Maturity Level,
Teacher Perception

Task-Relevant Maturity, Teacher Perception		Leadership Style S1	S2	S3	S4	Row Total
	M1	1 11.1	0 0.0	0 0.0	8 88.9	9 2.2
	M1.5	0 0.0	2 28.6	0 0.0	5 71.4	7 1.7
	M2	2 6.7	3 10.0	5 16.7	20 66.7	30 7.3
	M2.5	3 6.0	9 18.0	11 22.0	27 54.0	50 12.2
	M3	4 7.8	14 27.5	16 31.4	17 33.3	51 12.5
	M3.5	5 8.0	14 28.0	34 30.0	32 34.0	85 20.8
	M4	3 5.9	45 16.5	59 40.0	70 37.6	177 43.3
Column Total		18 4.4	87 21.3	125 30.6	179 43.8	409 100.0

In each cell, the top number is n, the frequency. The bottom number is a percentage representing each leadership style's use with each maturity level.

S2, 21%; S3, 31%; and S4, 44%. Teachers rated themselves at maturity level 1 in 2% of the 409 situations; maturity level 1.5, 2%; maturity level 2, 7%; maturity level 2.5, 12%; maturity level 3, 13%; maturity level 3.5, 21%; and maturity level 4, 43%.

Teachers perceived themselves at maturity level 1 in 9 situations. Of those 9 situations, S1 was used once and S4 was used 8 times.

Teachers perceived themselves at maturity level 1.5 in 7 situations. Of those 7 situations, S2 was used twice and S4 was used 5 times.

Teachers perceived themselves at maturity level 2 in 30 situations. Of those 30 situations, S1 was used twice, S2 was used 3 times, S3 was used 5 times, and S4 was used 20 times.

Teachers perceived themselves at maturity level 2.5 in 50 situations. Of those 50 situations, S1 was used 3 times, S2 was used 9 times, S3 was used 11 times, and S4 was used 27 times.

Teachers perceived themselves at maturity level 3 in 51 situations. Of those 51 situations, S1 was used 4 times, S2 was used 14 times, S3 was used 16 times, and S4 was used 17 times.

Teachers perceived themselves at maturity level 3.5 in 85 situations. Of those 85 situations, S1 was used 5 times, S2 was used 14 times, S3 was used 34 times, and S4 was used 32 times.

Teachers perceived themselves at maturity level 4 in 177 situations. Of those 177 situations, S1 was used 3 times, S2 was used 45 times, S3 was used 59 times, and S4 was used 70 times.

Hypothesis 2a

The hypothesis was stated as follows: In situations where teachers perceive themselves to be at maturity level 1, no significant difference in perceived effectiveness results from the use of the four leadership styles.

There were only 9 situations in which teachers perceived themselves at maturity level 1. Of those 9 situations, S4 was used 8 times, S1 was used once and S2 and S3 were not used. Therefore, there were insufficient data to test this hypothesis.

Hypothesis 2b

The hypothesis was stated as follows: In situations where teachers perceive themselves to be a maturity level 1.5, no significant difference in perceived effectiveness results from the use of the four leadership styles.

There were only seven situations in which teachers perceived themselves at maturity level 1.5. Of those seven situations, S4 was used 5 times and S2 was used twice. Therefore, there were sufficient data to test this hypothesis.

Hypothesis 2c

The hypothesis was stated as follows: In situtations where teachers perceive themselves to be at maturity level 2, no significant difference in perceived effectiveness results from the use of the four leadership styles.

The 30 situations were sorted into two groups, matches and nonmatches of leadership style with task-relevant maturity. A t-test was used to compute mean effectiveness scores for these two groups. Table 11 shows that the mean effectiveness score for matches was greater than the score for nonmatches and that the difference was significant at the .05 level.

The 30 situations were also sorted into four groups, one for each of the four leadership styles. Then an ANOVA was used to compute mean effectiveness scores for each group and an F value to compare the effectiveness scores. Table 12 shows the results of the ANOVA. The effectiveness means indicate a tendency for S2 to be perceived as the most effective style, followed by S4, S3, and S1. The F probability was greater than .05, therefore there were no significant relationships among the effectiveness scores of the four groups.

On the basis of the t value alone, hypotheis 2c would be rejected since the two-tailed probability indicated that S2 was perceived to be significantly more

TABLE 11

Maturity Level 2, Teacher Perception
Matches vs. Nonmatches

	n	Effectiveness Means	t Value	2-tailed Probability
Matches+	3	33.3333	2.27	.031*
Nonmatches	27	24.7037		

+ = highest effectiveness
* = significant at the .05 level

TABLE 12

Maturity Level 2, Teacher Perception
Analysis of Variance by Leadership Style

	n	Effectiveness Means	F Value	F Probability
S1	2	20.0000	2.480	.083
S2+	3	33.3333		
S3	5	22.6000		
S4	20	25.7000		

+ = highest effectiveness

effective than the other three styles combined. However, the F value indicated that there were no significant differences among the effectiveness means of the four styles. Therefore, even though there was a tendency for S2 to be perceived as the most effective style with maturity level 2, hypothesis 2c was accepted in the null form.

The fact that there were no significant differences in perceived effectiveness when the four leadership styles were used represents a partial rejection of SLT. For SLT to have been validated, S2 would have had to be perceived as significantly more effective than the other styles followed by S1 and S3, then S4. Instead, S2 was perceived to be the most effective style but not significantly so, and it was followed by S4, not S1 or S3.

Hypothesis 2d

The hypothesis was stated as follows: In situations where teachers perceive themselves at maturity level 2.5, no significant difference in perceived effectiveness results from principals' use of the four leadership styles.

Since matches of leadership style and task-relevant maturity were not possible, no t-test was run.

The 50 situations were sorted into four groups, one for each of the four leadership styles. Then an ANOVA was used to compute mean effectiveness scores and

an F value to compare the effectiveness scores. Table 13 shows the results of the ANOVA. The effectiveness means indicate a tendency for S2 to be perceived as the most effective style, followed by S1, S3, and S4. The F probability was less than .05, therefore there was at least one significant relationship among the effectiveness scores of the four groups.

To determine which styles were significantly more effective than others, the Scheffé method was used. Table 14 shows the results of the Scheffé method. S2 was perceived to be significantly more effective than S3. S2 was also perceived to be significantly more effective than S4.

On the basis of the F value, hypothesis 2d was rejected. A significant difference did result from the use of different styles.

The rejection of this hypothesis represents a partial validation of SLT. For SLT to have been fully validated, S2 and S3 would have had to be perceived as significantly more effective than S1 and S4. Instead, there was a significant difference in perceived effectiveness between S2 and S3. In addition, S1 had a higher effectiveness score than S3. Therefore, the fact that S2 was perceived to be the most effective style does support the theory's contention that matches of leadership

TABLE 13

Maturity Level 2.5, Teacher Perception
Analysis of Variance by Leadership Style

	n	Effectiveness Means	F Value	F Probability
S1	3	29.0000		
S2+	9	32.4444	5.936	.002*
S3	11	25.0909		
S4	27	24.4444		

+ = highest effectiveness
* = significant at the .05 level

TABLE 14

Maturity Level 2.5, Teacher Perception
Scheffé Method

Styles	Difference Between Effectiveness Means	Scheffé Ranges	More Effective Style
S4 - S3	-.6465	5.33	S3
S4 - S2	-8.0000	5.7368	S2*
S4 - S1	-4.5556	9.0707	S1
S3 - S2	-7.5586	10.946	S2*
S3 - S1	3.9091	9.708	S3
S2 - S1	-3.4444	9.936	S2

Differences between mean effectiveness scores are significant at the (*) .05 level when the absolute value of the difference is greater than the Scheffé range.

style with task-relevant maturity do result in leader effectiveness. On the other hand, the fact that S1 and S2 were perceived to be more effective than S3, and that S2 was significantly so, represents a contradiction of SLT.

Hypothesis 2e

The hypothesis was stated as follows: In situations where teachers perceive themselves at maturity level 3, no significant difference in perceived effectiveness results from principals' use of the four leadership styles.

The 51 situations were sorted into two groups, matches and nonmatches of leadership style with task-relevant maturity. A t-test was used to compute mean effectiveness scores for these two groups. Table 15 shows that the mean effectiveness score for matches was greater than the score for nonmatches, but the difference was not significant.

The 51 situations were also sorted into four groups, one for each of the four leadership styles. Then an ANOVA was used to compute mean effectiveness scores for each group and an F value to compare the effectiveness scores. Table 16 shows the results of the ANOVA. The effectiveness means indicate that S2 tended to be perceived as the most effective style, followed by S3, S1, and S4. The F probability was greater than .05, therefore

TABLE 15

Maturity Level 3, Teacher Perception
Matches vs. Nonmatches

	n	Effectiveness Means	t Value	2-tailed Probability
Matches+	35	30.6250	.24	.814
Nonmatches	16	30.2571		

+ = highest effectiveness

TABLE 16

Maturity Level 3, Teacher Perception
Analysis of Variance by Leadership Style

	n	Effectiveness Means	F Value	F Probability
S1	4	28.7500	1.680	.184
S2+	14	32.5714		
S3	16	30.6250		
S4	17	28.7059		

+ = highest effectiveness

there were no significant relationships among the effectiveness scores of the four groups.

On the basis of the t value and the F value, hypothesis 2e was accepted in the null form. There were, in fact, no significant differences resulting from the use of the four styles.

The fact that there were no significant differences in perceived effectiveness when the four styles were used represents a partial rejection of SLT. For SLT to have been validated, S3 would have had to be perceived as significantly more effective than the other styles followed by S2 and S4, then S1. Instead, there was a tendency, though not significant, for S2 to be perceived as the most effective style.

Hypothesis 2f

The hypothesis was stated as follows: In situations where teachers perceive themselves at maturity level 3.5, no significant difference in perceived effectiveness results from principals' use of the four leadership styles.

Since matches of leadership style and task-relevant maturity were not possible, no t-test was run.

The 85 situations were sorted into four groups, one for each of the four leadership styles. An ANOVA was used to compute mean effectiveness scores and an F value

to compare the effectiveness scores. Table 17 shows the results of the ANOVA. The effectiveness means indicate that S3 tended to be perceived as the most effective style followed by S2, S4, and S1. The F probability was greater than .05, therefore there were no significant relationships among the effectiveness means of the four groups.

On the basis of the F value, hypothesis 2f was accepted in the null form. There were, in fact, no significant differences resulting from the use of the four leadership styles.

The fact that there were no significant differences in perceived effectiveness when the four styles were used represents a partial rejection of SLT. For SLT to have been validated, S3 and S4 would have had to be perceived as equally effective and those two styles would have had to be perceived as significantly more effective than S1 and S2. Instead, there were no significant differences in perceived effectiveness. The fact that S3 received the highest effectiveness score was in the predicted direction. However, the fact that S4 received the third highest ranking was contrary to the prediction. Therefore, even the tendencies do not represent a validation of SLT.

TABLE 17

Maturity Level 3.5, Teacher Perception
Analysis of Variance by Leadership Style

	n	Effectiveness Means	F Value	F Probability
S1	5	28.4	2.553	.061
S2	14	34.5714		
S3+	34	35.0588		
S4	32	32.7500		

+ = highest effectiveness

Hypothesis 2g

The hypothesis was stated as follows: In situations where teachers perceive themselves at maturity level 4, no significant difference in perceived effectiveness results from principals' use of the four leadership styles.

The 177 situations were sorted into two groups, matches and nonmatches of leadership style with task-relevant maturity. A t-test was used to compute mean effectiveness scores for these two groups. Table 18 shows that the mean effectiveness score for nonmatches was greater than the score for matches, and the difference was significant at the .05 level.

The 177 situations were also sorted into four groups, one for each of the four leadership styles. An ANOVA was used to compute effectiveness means for each group and an F value to compare the effectiveness scores. Table 19 shows the results of the ANOVA. The effectiveness means indicate that S2 tended to be perceived as the most effective style followed by S3, S4, and S1. The F probability was greater than .05, therefore there were no significant relationships among the effectiveness scores of the four groups.

On the basis of the t value and the F value, hypothesis 2g was accepted in the null form. The t value

TABLE 18

Maturity Level 4, Teacher Perception
Matches vs. Nonmatches

	n	Effectiveness Means	t Value	2-tailed Probability
Matches	107	35.4000	-2.10	.037*
Nonmatches+	70	37.0841		

+ = highest effectiveness
* = significant at the .05 level

TABLE 19

Maturity Level 4, Teacher Perception
Analysis of Variance by Leadership Style

	n	Effectiveness Means	F Value	F Probability
S1	3	32.3333	2.365	.073
S2+	45	37.4000		
S3	59	37.0847		
S4	70	35.4000		

+ = highest effectiveness

indicated that S4 was perceived to be less effective than the other styles combined and the F value indicated that there were no significant differences in perceived effectiveness resulting from the use of the four leadership styles.

The fact that there were no significant differences in perceived effectiveness when the four styles were used represents a partial rejection of SLT. For SLT to have been validated, S4 would have had to be perceived as significantly more effective than S3 followed by S2 and S1. Instead, there were no significant differences in perceived effectiveness. In addition, there was a tendency for S2 and S3 to be perceived as more effective than S4.

Section Three

This section presents the results of an additional statistical examination of the data based on the results reported in sections one and two. Examination of the results indicated a strong pattern for S2 and S3 to be the most effective leadership styles. To test the significance of this pattern, those situations which were rated at S2 and S3 were grouped together to form a high relationship group. Those situations which were rated at S1 and S4 were joined together to form a low relationship group. At every level of maturity where there were

sufficient data, a t-test was used to compute the relative effectiveness of these two groups. Table 20 shows the results of this analysis based on principals' perception of task-relevant maturity (M_p). Table 21 shows the results based on teachers' perceptions of task-relevant maturity (M_t).

Using principals' perception of maturity, there were insufficient data at maturity levels 1, 1.5, 2, and 2.5. At maturity level 3, the high relationship styles were perceived to be significantly more effective than the low relationship styles. At level 3.5, the results were in the predicted direction but were not significant at the .05 level. At level 4, the high relationship styles were perceived to be significantly more effective and the significance was at the .0001 level.

Using teachers' perception of maturity, there were insufficient data at maturity levels 1 and 1.5. At maturity level 2, the results were in the predicted direction but were not significant. At levels 2.5, 3, and 3.5, the high relationship styles were perceived to be significantly more effective than the low relationship styles at the .05 level. At maturity level 4, the high relationship styles were perceived to be significantly more effective at the .01 level.

TABLE 20

Relative Effectiveness of High and Low Relationship Leadership Styles

Group	n	Effectiveness Means	t Value	2-tailed Probability
		$M_p = 3$		
Low Relationship	23	28.2174	-2.26	.029*
High Relationship+	24	32.7083		
		$M_p = 3.5$		
Low Relationship	40	30.150	-1.73	.089
High Relationship+	29	32.7241		
		$M_p = 4$		
Low Relationship	121	31.6281	-5.08	.000*
High Relationship+	151	35.6556		

+ = highest effectiveness
* = significant at the .05 level

TABLE 21

Relative Effectiveness of High and Low Relationship Leadership Styles

Group	n	Effectiveness Means	t Value	2-tailed Probability
		$M_t = 2$		
Low Relationship	22	25.1818	-.52	.609
High Relationship+	8	26.6250		
		$M_t = 2.5$		
Low Relationship	30	24.9000	-2.14	.037*
High Relationship+	20	28.4000		
		$M_t = 3$		
Low Relationship	21	28.7143	-2.00	.052*
High Relationship+	30	31.5333		
		$M_t = 3.5$		
Low Relationship	37	32.1622	-2.23	.029*
High Relationship+	48	34.9167		
		$M_t = 4$		
Low Relationship	73	35.2740	-2.46	.015*
High Relationship+	104	37.2212		

+ = highest effectiveness
* = significant at the .05 level

In summary, eight tests were conducted. At all eight levels, the results were in the same direction. At two of those levels, the results were not significant. At four levels, they were significant at the .05 level. One was significant at the .01 level. And one was significant at the .0001 level.

These results indicated that there was a positive correlation between principals' use of high relationship styles and perceptions of principal effectiveness. This correlation existed regardless of teachers' task-relevant maturity, therefore the finding contradicted SLT's contention that leader effectiveness results from adapting leadership style to task-relevant maturity.

The above finding indicated that elementary school principals who used high relationship behavior tended to be perceived as more effective than those who did not. However, other data indicated that low relationship behavior was effective at times. Table 22 shows that S2, S3, and S4 were all used at the highest levels of effectiveness. Considering the top five effectiveness scores, S1 was not used, S2 was used 17 times; S3, 25 times; and S4, 17 times. Considering the top ten scores, S1 was used once; S2, 40 times; S3, 56 times; and S4, 46 times. These data indicated that S1 was not perceived to be effective, but the other three styles were all perceived to be effective in a considerable number of situations.

TABLE 22

Crosstabulation
Leadership Style by Effectiveness

		Leadership Style			
		S1	S2	S3	S4
Effectiveness Scores	13-15	0 0	0 0	1 .8	4 2.3
	16-20	3 16.8	0 0	3 2.4	17 9.5
	21-25	3 16.8	4 4.6	10 8.0	25 14.0
	26-30	6 33.5	11 12.5	21 16.8	36 20.0
	31-35	5 27.8	32 36.6	32 25.6	51 28.5
	36-40	1 5.6	23 26.4	31 24.8	29 16.2
	41-45	0 0	17 20.0	25 20.0	17 9.5

In each cell, the top number is n, the frequency. The bottom number indicates the percentage of time each leadership style was rated at the various levels of effectiveness.

Therefore, low relationship behavior can be effective with elementary school teachers despite the fact that the high relationship styles tended to be highly effective more often. In addition, it is clear that a range of leadership styles is effective in different situations.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This chapter presents a summary of the results, interpretations of the findings, suggestions for further research, and conclusions.

Summary

The purpose of this study was to test the basic premise of Situational Leadership Theory (SLT), that leader effectiveness results from the adaptation of leadership style to follower task-relevant maturity. The general hypothesis was:

> Principal effectiveness is positively correlated with the congruency between principal leadership style and teacher task-relevant maturity.

Fourteen specific null hypotheses were stated, seven for task relevant maturity from principals' perspective and seven for task-relevant maturity from teachers' perspective. It was hypothesized that, at each level of maturity, no significant difference in perceived effectiveness would result from principals' use of the four leadership styles. The rejection level for the null hypotheses was established at .05.

To test the null hypotheses, a field test was designed with 21 elementary school principals and 85 of their teachers. Each teacher used the Job Responsibilities Form to choose five responsibilities about which the data were collected. The Maturity Scale was used to obtain measures of teachers' task-relevant maturity from principals' perspective and from teachers' perspective. The Leadership Style and Effectiveness Form was used to measure principals' leadership style, teachers' performance and satisfaction, and principals' effectiveness from teachers' perspective. The Leadership Style and Performance Form was used to measure teachers' performance from principals' perspective (this form also measured principals' leadership style from principals' perspective, but those data were not used in this study).

Once the data were collected, they were sorted according to maturity level from principals' perspective and teachers' perspective. Within each maturity level, data were sorted into two groups, matches and nonmatches of leadership style with maturity. A t-test was used to determine the relative effectiveness of matches versus nonmatches. Within each maturity level, the data were also sorted into four groups, one for each of the four leadership styles. An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to determine the relative effectiveness of each style with each maturity level.

Seven null hypotheses were stated for principals' perception of teachers' task-relevant maturity. There were insufficient data to test the first four of these hypotheses. At maturity levels 3 and 3.5, the null hypotheses were accepted. At maturity level 4, the null hypothesis was rejected, but S4 was perceived to be significantly less effective than S2 and S3. At all three maturity levels, there was a tendency for S2 to be perceived as the most effective style followed by S3. These results contradicted SLT.

Seven null hypotheses were also stated for teachers' perception of their own task-relevant maturity. There were insufficient data to test the first two of these hypotheses. At maturity levels 2, 3, 3.5 and 4, the null hypotheses were accepted. At level 2.5, S2 was perceived to be significantly more effective than S3 and S4 representing a partial validation of SLT. However, this validation was offset by the fact that S3 was relatively ineffective and there was no significant difference between S1 and S2. At four of the five levels that were tested, there was a tendency for S2 to be perceived as the most effective style followed by S3 twice. At the fifth level, S3 tended to be perceived as most effective followed by S2. These results also contradicted SLT.

In summary, 14 null hypotheses were stated. Of those 14, six were not tested due to insufficient data, six were accepted in the null form and two were rejected. The accepted hypotheses and one of the rejected hypotheses represented contradictions of SLT. The other rejected hypothesis represented a partial validation of the theory. There was only one case when a match between leadership style and task-relevant maturity resulted in leader effectiveness. This finding suggests the need for modifications in SLT, the instrumentation that implements the theory, and/or the methodology for testing the theory.

While testing the null hypotheses, the researcher discovered a tendency for S2 and S3 to be perceived as the most effective styles. To test the significance of this pattern, the situations were sorted according to maturity level. Then they were sorted into two groups, high relationship leader behavior (S2 and S3) and low relationship leader behavior (S1 and S4). A t-test was used to compute the relative effectiveness of these two groups.

There were insufficient data at six of the 14 maturity levels. Eight tests were conducted and, in all eight cases, the results were in the predicted direction. At six levels, the results were significant. These results indicated that there was, in fact, a positive correlation between the use of high relationship leadership styles and perceptions of leader effectiveness. As with

the findings based on the null hypotheses, these results suggest the need for modifications in SLT and/or its instruments and/or the research methodology.

Another interesting fact emerged from the data. S2, S3, and S4 were all rated at the highest levels of effectiveness. This indicated that different styles were perceived to be effective in varying situations. These data confirm the importance of further research with SLT and further efforts to develop situational theories that do explain which style should be used at different times.

Interpretations of the Findings

The Review of Literature (Chapter II) presented the findings of several studies which supported the tendency for S2 to be perceived as the most effective leadership style. Hemphill (1955); Halpin (1956); Evenson (1959); Peoples (1964); Sergiovani, Metzous, and Burden (1969); Stotts (1968 and Feldvebel (1964) all found that educational administrators who used high task and high relationship behavior were considered to be the most effective leaders.

There were also findings which supported the result that high relationship behavior was significantly more effective than low relationship behavior. Getzels and Guba (1957); Harrell (1972); Grassie and Carss (1972); Chesler, Schmuck, and Lippitt (1963); and Doyle and

Ahlbrand (1974) all conducted studies which found that high relationship behavior by principals had a positive impact on teachers.

However, there were also contradictory findings. Congreve (1957); Moeller (1964); McKague (1970); Fiedler (1967); and Filley, House, and Kerr (1976) all reported positive effects of high task behavior. Research has indicated that there are situations in which each of the styles is more effective. Given this history, it would be unwise to conclude that there is one style or one type of behavior that is most effective. In fact, the data from this study indicate that S2, S3, and S4 were all rated at the highest levels of effectiveness. Furthermore, even the finding that the high relationship styles were perceived to be most effective still leaves a need for leaders to know which of those two styles should be used at different times. Therefore, the real value of this study was to begin examining alternative explanations of the findings with the intention of laying a foundation for future research or improved theories.

The findings of this study suggest three possible interpretations each of which is examined in the following sections. One is that SLT needs revisions. The second is that SLT needs to be operationalized in a different manner. And the third is that the research methodology used in this study did not generate accurate data.

Revisions of SLT

One confusing aspect of SLT is the variable *relationship behavior.* In their text, Hersey and Blanchard (1977, p. 104) define this dimension 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 socioemotional support, psychological strokes, and facilitating behaviors." However, in their instruments which diagnose leadership style, the LEAD-Self (See Appendix F) and the LEAD-Other (See Appendix G), they operationalize relationship behavior solely in terms of the extent to which subordinates are involved in decision-making. The definition refers to supportive leader behavior and the instruments refer to participative leader behavior. One solution to this problem would be to change the definition, another would be to change the instruments. However, it is the opinion of the researcher that the best solution would be to split the variable into two dimensions. The cost of this would be to make the model more complex and, therefore, more difficult to operationalize or apply. The benefit would be that the model would be more accurate in the sense that it would account for the situation in which a follower needs support but is not able to participate in decision-making or the converse in

which a follower participates in decision-making but does not require extrinsic support.

A second confusing aspect of SLT involves the variable *task-relevant maturity*. Even though the variable only refers to one's capacity to perform certain tasks and does not refer to a person's overall maturity, this distinction is often difficult for people to make. An alternative variable has been suggested by Frederic E. Finch (1976). He prefers the term *performance*, which is defined as a function of motivation and ability. He argues that this term is a less threatening, more matter-of-fact variable that can be used in the same way that SLT uses task-relevant maturity. Since motivation and ability are not appreciably different from willingness and ability, this suggestion would create no substantive change in the theory, just a semantic one. The term performance could be limiting since it implies that the only concern is output without considering intervening variables. The researcher suggests a third alternative, *performance quotient* (PQ), which refers to a person's capacity to perform in the same way that *intelligence quotient* (IQ) refers to a person's capacity to learn. This variable would be defined and operationalized in terms of a follower's ability, need for support, and predisposition toward participation.

Revisions in the Operationalization of SLT

As indicated in Chpater III in the section on instrumentation, the Maturity Scale has not been statistically validated. On the basis of this study, there was evidence that the scale skewed scores toward the higher maturity levels. Since teachers were instructed to select a range of responsibilities (at least one in which no improvement was needed, one in which some improvement was needed, and one in which considerable improvement was needed), the maturity ratings should have been distributed with some at the top, most in the middle, and some at the bottom. However, Table 1 shows that, based on principal percpetions, ninety-five per cent of the situations were rated at maturity levels 3, 3.5, and 4. Table 8 shows that, based on teacher perceptions, seventy-five per cent of the situations were rated at the top three levels. In contrast, Table 23, which shows teachers' and principals' ratings of teachers' performance, demonstrates that teachers did choose a range of responsibilities and presents the sort of distribution that was expected. These data suggest the need to modify the Maturity Scale. This could be accomplished by changing the scoring matrix, the instructions, and/or the rating scales. These data also suggest the possibility that the results of this study were due to inaccurate measurement of task-relevant maturity.

TABLE 23

Distribution of Performance Ratings

	Very Low 1	Low 2	Average 3	High 4	Very High 5
Principal Perception	7 1.7	37 9.0	97 23.7	182 44.5	86 21.0
Teacher Perception	22 5.4	66 16.1	148 36.2	115 28.1	58 14.2

In each cell, the top number is a simple count. The bottom number is a percentage representing the relative frequency of each rating.

Alternative Research Methodologies

As indicated in Chapter III, the instruments which were designed specifically for this study were validated only on the basis of piloting and they were not tested for reliability. Therefore, it is possible that these instruments did not yield accurate data. Some form of construct validation in which scores were compared to objective measures would improve the quality of future research. In addition, expanded definitions of performance, satisfaction, and effectiveness which include quantifiable outcome variables would also improve future studies.

Regarding the data collection procedure, there is a possibility that the sequence of events in the data collection workshops created a respondent bias. Since the first hour of each workshop was spent teaching participants about SLT and the second hour was spent completing the instruments, it is possible that teachers and principals concluded that high maturity levels and high relationship behavior were the "best" and then tended to use those ratings more often than the others. To correct for this bias, the sequence of events in such workshops should be altered. Teachers should be given the Job Responsibilities form at the beginning of the workshop. Then teachers and principals should complete the Maturity

Scales and the effectiveness instruments before they learn anything about SLT. At that point, they should be taught about the four leadership styles, trained to use the styles to describe leader behaviors, and reassured that no style is better than any other. Then, they should complete the ratings of leadership style. After all the instrumentation is completed, they should learn about the maturity levels, effectiveness, and applications of the model. Such a procedure should raise the probability that responses reflect situations as they are instead of the way people think they should be.

Suggestions for Further Research

To answer the questions generated by this study, further research should focus on three areas: improved instruments, other populations, and more tightly controlled studies.

Regarding the instruments, tests need to be conducted to establish valid and reliable measures of task-relevant maturity, leadership style, and effectiveness. Until measures of these variables can accurately reflect leaders' and subordinates' behavior, valid research with SLT cannot be conducted. One way to begin this process would be to follow the format used in piloting the instruments designed for this study. That would involve getting leaders and subordinates to complete

the instrumentation package. This would be followed up by interviews with and/or observations of respondents. Scores on the instruments could then be correlated with information collected by the interviews and/or observations to establish validity.

Regarding the population, there are indications that the sample used in this study was not a typical group of leaders and subordinates. Since teachers are professionals and have the same training as most of their principals, the differences between these groups of people may be less than in other leader-subordinate relationships. Furthermore, some of the research with Path-goal Theory suggests that school situations may be particularly conducive to participative leadership behavior (high relationship styles). Filley, House, and Kerr (1976) report that when tasks are ego-involving, subordinates prefer to participate in decision-making. In addition, when tasks are not ego-involving, those followers who are predisposed to participate will still prefer leaders to use participative styles. Applying these findings to schools, most tasks are ego-involving and, since the respondents were selected on the basis of their willingness to participate, it is likely that this particular group may have had a tendency to participate more than the average teacher. This information may help to explain the perceived effectiveness of the high

relationship styles. It also underscores the need to replicate this study with other populations.

One recommendation regarding the population is to replicate the study with other elementary school principals and teachers. It should also be done with secondary school personnel, with higher education personnel, with educators from other parts of the country, from urban or suburban locales, and from other countries, and with managers from non-educational work environments. A second recommendation is to locate a population large enough to be able to randomly select participants. For example, if several large school systems would commit themselves to this type of study, then principals and teachers could be chosen on a random basis. This would permit results to be more widely generalized than those of this study.

In the section on delimitations (Chapter I), references were made to the problems with ex post facto research. One way to check the findings of field studies would be to design and conduct laboratory experiments with SLT. One example would be to have randomly selected students tested for math aptitude and interest, then sorted into groups based on task-relevant maturity. These groups could then be given standardized tasks by leaders trained to behave according to the four leadership styles. After a fixed amount of time, performance

could easily be measured and satisfaction could be determined. Such an experiment would eliminate many of the extraneous factors inherent in ex post facto research.

Conclusions

There were strong indications that the Maturity Scale did not discriminate levels of task-relevant maturity accurately. There were also questions raised about the instruments which measured leadership style and effectiveness, the data collection procedure, and the population. Based on these methodological considerations, it was not possible to make a definitive statement about the validity of SLT.

Nevertheless, some conclusions were possible. One was that Styles 2, 3, and 4 were all effective with some teachers in some situations. Another was that there was a tendency for S2 to be perceived as the most effective style regardless of maturity level. A third was that the high relationship styles (S2 and S3) were perceived to be significantly more effective than the low relationship styles (S1 and S4) regardless of teachers' task-relevant maturity.

The first conclusion affirms the need to continue conducting research with theories of situational leadership and to use research to develop improved theories. The second and third conclusions raise enough questions

about SLT to dramatize the need for future research to address methodological issues regarding the measurement of task-relevant maturity, leadership style, and effectiveness.

In addition to these conclusions, two recommendations for modifying SLT were suggested. One was to change the term task-relevant maturity to performance quotient. The other was to expand the dimension relationship behavior to two dimensions, supportive behavior and participative behavior.

As a final thought, the field of leadership still faces the problem of defining leader behavior in a form that helps people in managerial positions adapt their behavior to the needs of the work environment and of the people in that environment. In a world full of organizations, this is one of the keys to developing organizational effectiveness.

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APPENDIX A:

JOB RESPONSIBILITIES FORM

JOB RESPONSIBILITIES

Directions

1. On the next page is a list of job responsibilities that are typical for elementary school teachers. Read through the list. You will notice that blank lines have been included so that you can add any responsibilities you think are missing.

2. Select five (5) job responsibilities about which you are willing to consider your task-relevant maturity and your principal's leadership style. The five responsibilities you choose should include the following categories:
   - one in which you need no improvement
   - one in which you are competent but have room for some improvement
   - one in which you need improvement.

   The other two can be on any level.

3. Turn to the last page and write the five responsibilities on the lines provided. BE SURE THAT THE RESPONSIBILITIES ARE IN THE SAME ORDER ON BOTH HALVES. Also be sure that your name and your principal's are on both sections. Then tear off the bottom half and give it to your principal. Keep the top half for yourself.

INSTRUCTIONAL/content

teaching reading
teaching math
teaching spelling
teaching writing
teaching social studies
teaching science
teaching _____
_____

writing lesson plans
developing units
creating teaching materials
using existing materials
using A-V equipment
organizing classroom schedules
planning with other teachers
teaching one-on-one
teaching the whole class
teaching small groups
designing learning centers
setting up classroom environments
coordinating several groups simultaneously
contracting with students
managing peer teaching
keeping records
diagnosing skills
diagnosing academic levels
designing diagnostic tests
administering standardized tests

PROFESSIONAL

talking with other teachers about problems/issues
talking with the principal about problems/issues
having conferences with parents
counseling parents
responsing to suggestions from parents
responding to suggestions from the principal
responding to suggestions from other teachers
participating in professional organizations
reading professional literature
taking college courses
attending workshops
teaching college courses or workshops

INSTRUCTIONAL/interpersonal

listening to children
responding to non-verbal cues
helping children listen to each other
helping children assume responsibility
helping children solve problems
developing self-concepts
teaching social skills
providing positive reinforcement
establishing expectations/guidelines
asking good questions
leading discussions
incorporating children's ideas into plans
responding to children's emotional needs
maintaining classroom control
handling discipline problems
helping children engage in active learning
encouraging children to work together
supervising playground
supervising lunchroom
organizing games

ADMINISTRATIVE/clerical

completing required paperwork
maintaining cumulative records
keeping registers
reporting progress
referring students for special services
writing assessments for core evaluations
supervising student teachers and volunteers
turning in supply orders
informing principal about projects
informing principal about problems
requesting equipment, buses, etc.

GOVERNANCE

participating in faculty meetings
participating in PTA functions
assuming responsibility for schoolwide affairs
serving on building committees
serving on system-wide committees

APPENDIX B

MATURITY SCALE, MANAGER RATING FORM

MATURITY SCALE

— Manager Rating Form —

The purpose of this rating form is to help you determine the *Maturity* of a person who works for you. Maturity refers to the *willingness* and *ability* of a person to direct his or her behavior while working on a particular objective or responsibility. Willingness and ability are referred to as *psychological maturity* and *job maturity*, respectively.

Since a person's maturity level will depend upon the particular objective, your task will be to provide perceptions of the person's *Maturity* in performing each major objective.

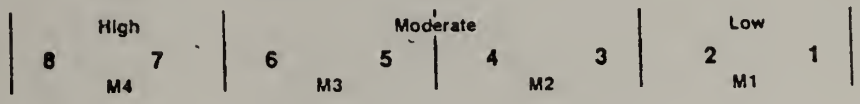
Before completing the rating form, it is essential for you to reflect on your past interactions with the person in reference to quality of work output and attitudes. Think of specific projects and times on those projects when you were extremely pleased or displeased with the person. Also, think how you typically perceive the person in terms of accomplishing each objective.

Directions

Please write the individual's name, and today's date at the top of the MATURITY SCALE *Response Sheet*. Then, do the following:

1. Select up to five of the individual's most important objectives and write them in the spaces provided at the top of the *Response Sheet*.

2. Considering the *first* objective only, select the five (5) *most important Job Maturity dimensions* (from the 12 provided) and the five (5) *most important Psychological Maturity dimensions* (from the 12 provided), and "rate" the employee on each, using the following scale:



—Your ratings, ranging from 1 to 8, should be placed on the Response Sheet.

To help you with the ratings, each area is defined with examples of "high" and "low" maturity.

—Be sure to base ratings on your observations of the person's *behavior*.

—Please remember to make each rating an *independent* judgment, and not based on other ratings of the person.

—Once you have completed the (*10*) ratings, sum your ratings of Job Maturity and Psychological Maturity, and enter the totals in the spaces provided.

3. Repeat the same rating task for each additional objective, one at a time.
   —Please remember that you may choose *different* maturity dimensions (5 Job and 5 Psychological) for each objective, if you feel it is appropriate to do so.

4. Once you have completed the ratings, turn to the *scoring interpretation* page, and follow the instructions for interpreting the scores on the response sheet.

✓**REMEMBER** *to rate only the 5 dimensions of job maturity and the 5 dimensions of Psychological Maturity that are most relevant for the individual in terms of each major objective.*

Response Sheet —

Manager Name _____

Employee Name _____

Today's Date _____

JOB MATURITY DIMENSIONS

	Major Objectives or Responsibilities				
	1	2	3	4	5
1. Past Performance					
2. Technical Knowledge					
3. Understanding of Job Requirements					
4. Problem-solving Ability					
5. Ability to Take Responsibility					
6. Meeting Job Deadlines					
7. Past Job Experience					
8. Planning Skills					
9. Decision-Making Skills					
10. Follow Through					
11. Judgment					
12. Problem identification					
Total Job Maturity Score					

PSYCHOLOGICAL MATURITY DIMENSIONS

1. Willingness to Take Responsibility					
2. Job Commitment					
3. Achievement Motivation					
4. Activity Level					
5. Job Interest					
6. Persistence					
7. Reinforcement					
8. Work Attitude					
9. Time Perspective					
10. Supportiveness					
11. Initiative					
12. Independence					
Total Psychological Maturity Score					

Score Interpretation–See Page 5

JOB MATURITY DIMENSIONS

This person ..... in performing this objective

Dimensions	High		Moderate				Low	
	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
	M4		M3		M2		M1	
1. Past Performance	Exceeds standards and expectations						Performs below standards and expectations	
2. Technical Knowledge	Possesses necessary technical knowledge						Does not have necessary technical knowledge	
3. Understanding of Job Requirements	Thoroughly understands what needs to be done						Has little understanding of what needs to be done	
4. Problem-solving Ability	Can solve problems independently						Unable to solve problems independently	
5. Ability to Take Responsibility	Can be left alone						Needs close supervision	
6. Meeting Job Deadlines	Always meets deadlines						Never finishes a job on schedule	
7. Past Job Experience	Has experience relevant to, and helpful in present job						Has experience neither related to nor helpful in present job	
8. Planning Skills	Structures and prioritizes tasks						Fails to structure and prioritize tasks	
9. Decision-making Skills	Makes accurate decisions in an appropriate time dimension						Is unable to make accurate decisions within an appropriate time dimension	
10. Follow Through	Checks to see that tasks were accomplished						Seldom bothers to follow-up	
11. Judgment	Evaluates alternatives and understands trade-offs						Fails to evaluate alternatives or to understand trade-offs	
12. Problem Identification	Is quick to spot potential problems						Rarely spots a potential problem	

PSYCHOLOGICAL MATURITY DIMENSIONS

This person ..... is performing this objective

Dimensions	High		Moderate				Low	
	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
	M4		M3		M2		M1	
1. Willingness to Take Responsibility	Is very eager							Is very reluctant
2. Job Commitment	Is very dedicated							Is uncaring
3. Achievement Motivation	Has a high desire to achieve							Has little desire to achieve
4. Activity Level	Has a high energy level							Has a low energy level
5. Job Interest	Has a high level of enthusiasm							Has a low level of enthusiasm
6. Persistence	Won't quit until the job is done							Gives up very easily
7. Reinforcement	Is autonomous (needs little external "stroking")							Is dependent (needs high amounts of "stroking" from others)
8. Work Attitude	Sees work as an enjoyable activity							Has a "thank goodness it's Friday" attitude
9. Time Perspective	Looks toward the future and thinks about ways to do a job better next time							Is oriented to the present, just wants to finish a job
10. Supportiveness	Tries to help others							Seldom helps anyone
11. Initiative	Looks for new and innovative approaches							Is content to maintain the "status quo"
12. Independence	Is willing to work on own, when appropriate							Is unwilling to work on own, even when appropriate

— Score Interpretation —

What Do the Scores Mean in Terms of Appropriate Leadership Styles?

In order to determine the most appropriate leadership style to use with the individual whose JOB MATURITY and PSYCHOLOGICAL MATURITY you have just rated, please complete Steps 1–4 outlined below.

1. In the spaces provided in the summary chart below, write in the person's major objectives (those which you rated).
2. Enter the TOTAL JOB MATURITY and PSYCHOLOGICAL MATURITY scores (from the *Response Sheet*) under each objective in the Data Matrix.
3. Use the data matrix to the right as follows:

   Locate the box which contains the combination of JOB MATURITY and PSYCHOLOGICAL MATURITY scores that you rated the individual on each objective or responsibility. In the lower left hand corner of that box is the individual's overall MATURITY designation for that objective/responsibility. In the upper right hand corner of the box is the high probability leadership style you should use for that MATURITY level. In some of the boxes the MATURITY level and appropriate leadership style are expressed as encompassing a portion of two specific designations.
4. Enter the overall MATURITY and appropriate LEADERSHIP STYLE designations in the Summary Chart at the bottom of the page.

DATA MATRIX

PSYCHOLOGICAL MATURITY	M1	M2	M3	M4
M4	S2 Job 5 to 12 Psy 33 to 40 M2	S2/3 Job 13 to 22 Psy 33 to 40 M2/3	S3/4 Job 23 to 32 Psy 33 to 40 M3/4	S4 Job 33 to 40 Psy 33 to 40 M4
M3	S2 Job 5 to 12 Psy 23 to 32 M2	S2/3 Job 13 to 22 Psy 23 to 32 M2/3	S3 Job 23 to 32 Psy 23 to 32 M3	S3/4 Job 33 to 40 Psy 23 to 32 M3/4
M2	S1/2 Job 5 to 12 Psy 13 to 22 M1/2	S2 Job 13 to 22 Psy 13 to 22 M2	S2/3 Job 23 to 32 Psy 13 to 22 M2/3	S2/3 Job 33 to 40 Psy 13 to 22 M2/3
M1	S1 Job 5 to 12 Psy 5 to 12 M1	S1/2 Job 13 to 22 Psy 5 to 12 M1/2	S2 Job 23 to 32 Psy 5 to 12 M2	S2 Job 33 to 40 Psy 5 to 12 M2
	M1	M2	M3	M4

JOB MATURITY

EXAMPLE

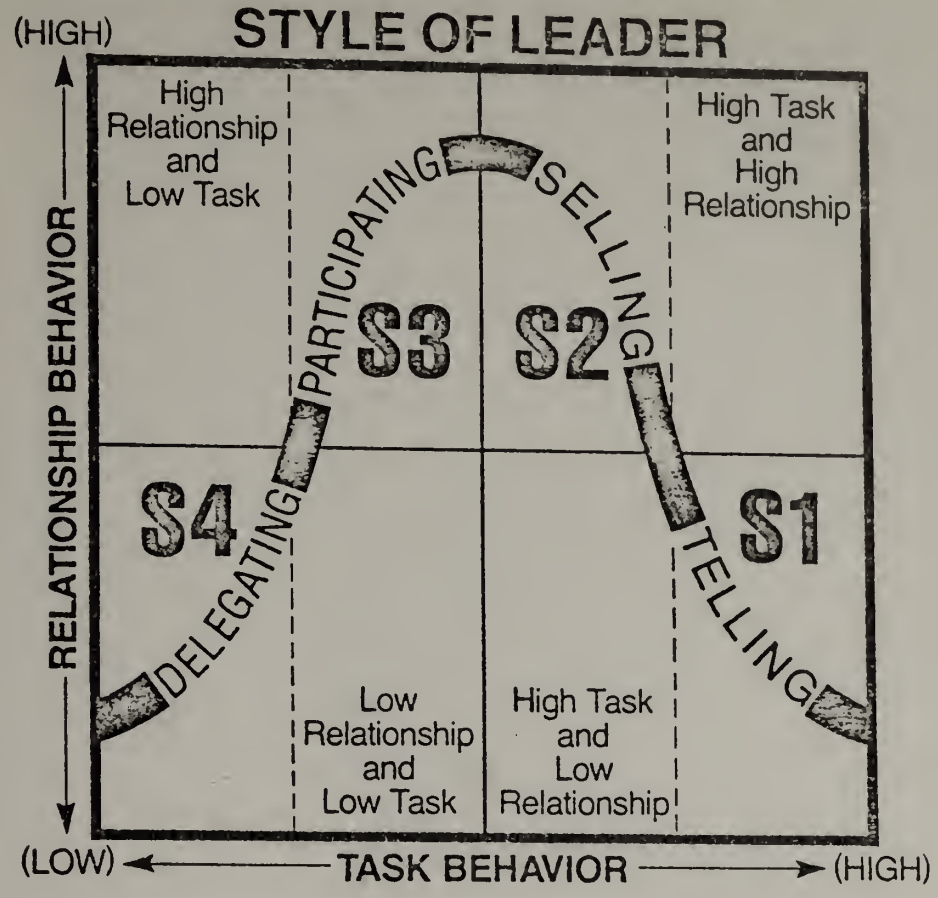
Suppose an individual received a score of 27 on JOB MATURITY, and a score of 24 on PSYCHOLOGICAL MATURITY for a particular objective. According to the data matrix, this individual's overall MATURITY would be M3 for that objective, and the most appropriate leadership style to be used with this person would be S3—participating (High Relationship behavior/Low Task behavior).

SUMMARY CHART

	Major Objectives or Responsibilities 1	2	3	4	5
Job Maturity Score					
Psychological Maturity Score					
Overall Maturity Designation M1, M2, M3 or M4					
Appropriate Leadership Style* S1, S2, S3 or S4					

*See page six for Situational Leadership Model

SITUATIONAL LEADERSHIP*



*For a discussion of the Hersey/Blanchard Situational Leadership Model see Paul Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard, Management of Organizational Behavior: Utilizing Human Resources, 3rd Edition (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall Inc., 1977).

APPENDIX C

MATURITY SCALE, SELF-RATING FORM

MATURITY SCALE

—Self Rating Form—

The purpose of this rating form is to help you determine your own *Maturity*. Maturity refers to the *willingness* and *ability* of a person to direct his or her behavior while working on a particular objective or responsibility. Willingness and ability are referred to as *psychological maturity* and *job maturity*, respectively.

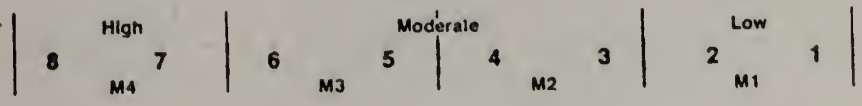
Since your maturity level will depend upon the particular objective, your task will be to provide perceptions of your *Maturity* in performing each objective.

Before completing the rating form, it is essential for you to reflect on your past performance in reference to quality of work output and attitudes. Think of specific projects and times on those projects when you were extremely pleased or displeased with yourself. Also, think how you typically think about yourself in terms of accomplishing each objective.

Directions

Please write your name, and today's date at the top of the MATURITY SCALE *Response Sheet*. Then, do the following:

1. Select up to five of your most important objectives and write them in the spaces provided at the top of the *Response Sheet*.
2. Considering the *first* objective only, select the five (5) *most important Job Maturity dimensions* (from the 12 provided) and the five (5) *most important Psychological Maturity dimensions* (from the 12 provided), and "rate" yourself on each, using the following scale:



—Your ratings, ranging from 1 to 8, should be placed on the Response Sheet.

To help you with the ratings, each area is defined with examples of "high" and "low" maturity.

—Be sure to base ratings on your perceptions of your own *behavior*.

—Please remember to make each rating an *independent* judgment, and not based on other ratings.

—Once you have completed the ten (*10*) ratings, sum your ratings of Job Maturity and Psychological Maturity, and enter the totals in the spaces provided.

3. Repeat the same rating task for each additional objective, one at a time.
   —Please remember that you may choose *different* maturity dimensions (5 Job and 5 Psychological) for each objective, if you feel it appropriate to do so.
4. Once you have completed the ratings, turn to the *scoring interpretation* page, and follow the instructions for interpreting the scores on the response sheet.

✓**REMEMBER** *to rate only the 5 dimensions of job maturity and the 5 dimensions of Psychological Maturity that are most relevant for you in terms of each major objective.*

Response Sheet —

Your Name _____

Today's Date _____

JOB MATURITY DIMENSIONS

	Major Objectives or Responsibilities				
	1	2	3	4	5
1. Past Performance					
2. Technical Knowledge					
3. Understanding of Job Requirements					
4. Problem-solving Ability					
5. Ability to Take Responsibility					
6. Meeting Job Deadlines					
7. Past Job Experience					
8. Planning Skills					
9. Decision-Making Skills					
10. Follow Through					
11. Judgment					
12. Problem Identification					
Total Job Maturity Score					

PSYCHOLOGICAL MATURITY DIMENSIONS

1. Willingness to Take Responsibility					
2. Job Commitment					
3. Achievement Motivation					
4. Activity Level					
5. Job Interest					
6. Persistence					
7. Reinforcement					
8. Work Attitude					
9. Time Perspective					
10. Supportiveness					
11. Initiative					
12. Independence					
Total Psychological Maturity Score					

Score Interpretation–See Page 5

JOB MATURITY DIMENSIONS

I am a person who ..... in performing this objective

Dimensions	High		Moderate				Low	
	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
	M4		M3		M2		M1	
1. Past Performance	Exceeds standards and expectations						Performs below standards and expectations	
2. Technical Knowledge	Possesses necessary technical knowledge						Does not have necessary technical knowledge	
3. Understanding of Job Requirements	Thoroughly understands what needs to be done						Has little understanding of what needs to be done	
4. Problem-solving Ability	Can solve problems independently						Unable to solve problems independently	
5. Ability to Take Responsibility	Can be left alone						Needs close supervision	
6. Meeting Job Deadlines	Always meets deadlines						Never finishes a job on schedule	
7. Past Job Experience	Has experience relevant to, and helpful in present job						Has experience neither related to nor helpful in present job	
8. Planning Skills	Structures and prioritizes tasks						Fails to structure and prioritize tasks	
9. Decision-making Skills	Makes accurate decisions in an appropriate time dimension						Is unable to make accurate decisions within an appropriate time dimension	
10. Follow Through	Checks to see that tasks were accomplished						Seldom bothers to follow-up	
11. Judgment	Evaluates alternatives and understands trade-offs						Fails to evaluate alternatives or to understand trade-offs	
12. Problem Identification	Is quick to spot potential problems						Rarely spots a potential problem	

PSYCHOLOGICAL MATURITY DIMENSIONS

I am a person who ..... in performing this objective

Dimensions	High		Moderate				Low	
	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
	M4		M3		M2		M1	
1. Willingness to Take Responsibility	Is very eager						Is very reluctant	
2. Job Commitment	Is very dedicated						Is uncaring	
3. Achievement Motivation	Has a high desire to achieve						Has little desire to achieve	
4. Activity Level	Has a high energy level						Has a low energy level	
5. Job Interest	Has a high level of enthusiasm						Has a low level of enthusiasm	
6. Persistence	Won't quit until the job is done						Gives up very easily	
7. Reinforcement	Is autonomous (needs little external "stroking")						Is dependent (needs high amounts of "stroking" from others)	
8. Work Attitude	Sees work as an enjoyable activity						Has a "thank goodness it's Friday" attitude	
9. Time Perspective	Looks toward the future and thinks about ways to do a job better next time						Is oriented to the present, just wants to finish a job	
10. Supportiveness	Tries to help others						Seldom helps anyone	
11. Initiative	Looks for new and innovative approaches						Is content to maintain the "status quo"	
12. Independence	Is willing to work on own, when appropriate						Is unwilling to work on own, even when appropriate	

— Score Interpretation —

What Do the Scores Mean in Terms of Appropriate Leadership Styles?

In order to determine the most appropriate leadership style that someone supervising you should use based on your self-ratings, please complete Steps 1-4 outlined below.

1. In the spaces provided in the Summary Chart below, write in your major objectives (those which you rated).
2. Enter the TOTAL JOB MATURITY and PSYCHOLOGICAL MATURITY scores (from the *Response Sheet*) under each objective in the Summary Chart.
3. Use the data matrix to the right as follows:
   Locate the box which contains the combination of JOB MATURITY and PSYCHOLOGICAL MATURITY scores that you rated yourself on each objective or responsibility. In the lower left hand corner of that box is your overall MATURITY designation for that objective/responsibility. In the upper right hand corner of the box is the high probability leadership style for that MATURITY level. In some of the boxes the maturity level and appropriate leadership style are expressed as a range encompassing a portion of two specific designations.
4. Enter the overall MATURITY and appropriate LEADERSHIP STYLE designations in the Summary Chart at the bottom of the page.

DATA MATRIX

PSYCHOLOGICAL MATURITY

	M1	M2	M3	M4
M4	S2 Job 5 to 12 Psy 33 to 40 M2	S2/3 Job 13 to 22 Psy 33 to 40 M2/3	S3/4 Job 23 to 32 Psy 33 to 40 M3/4	S4 Job 33 to 40 Psy 33 to 40 M4
M3	S2 Job 5 to 12 Psy 23 to 32 M2	S2/3 Job 13 to 22 Psy 23 to 32 M2/3	S3 Job 23 to 32 Psy 23 to 32 M3	S3/4 Job 33 to 40 Psy 23 to 32 M3/4
M2	S1/2 Job 5 to 12 Psy 13 to 22 M1/2	S2 Job 13 to 22 Psy 13 to 22 M2	S2/3 Job 23 to 32 Psy 13 to 22 M2/3	S2/3 Job 33 to 40 Psy 13 to 22 M2/3
M1	S1 Job 5 to 12 Psy 5 to 12 M1	S1/2 Job 13 to 22 Psy 5 to 12 M1/2	S2 Job 23 to 32 Psy 5 to 12 M2	S2 Job 33 to 40 Psy 5 to 12 M2

JOB MATURITY

EXAMPLE

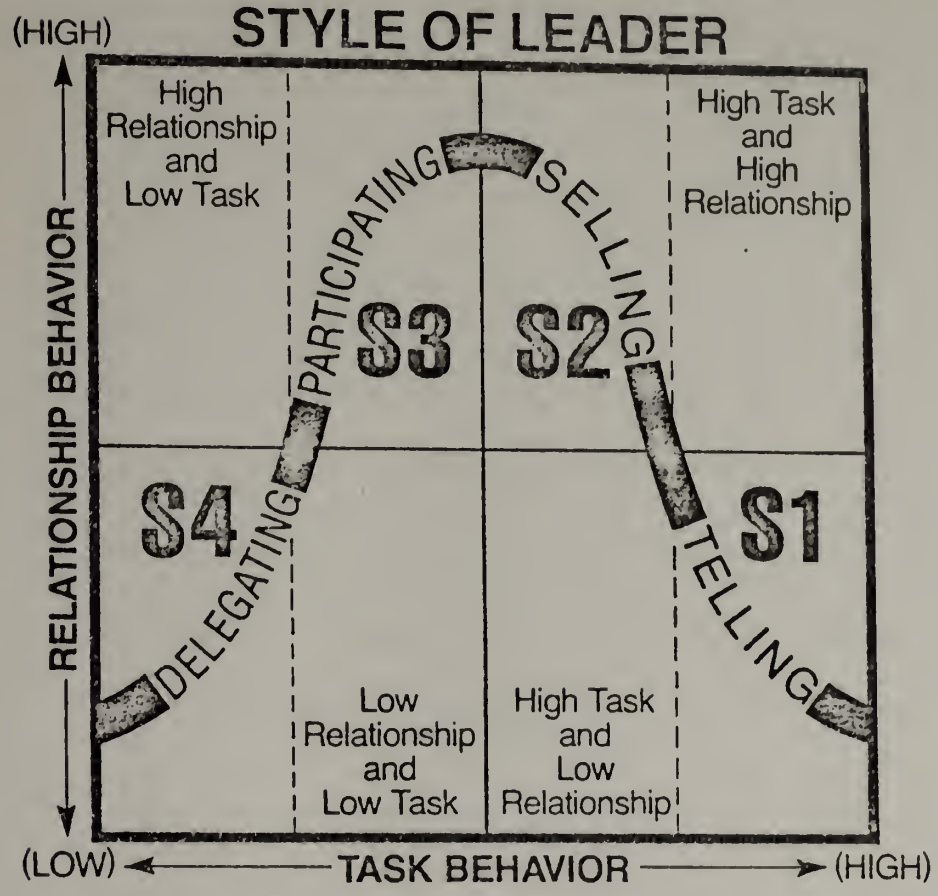
Suppose you rated yourself a score of 27 on JOB MATURITY and a score of 24 on PSYCHOLOGICAL MATURITY for a particular objective. According to the data matrix, your overall MATURITY for that objective would be M3, and the most appropriate leadership style to be used with you would be S3—participating (High Relationship/Low Task).

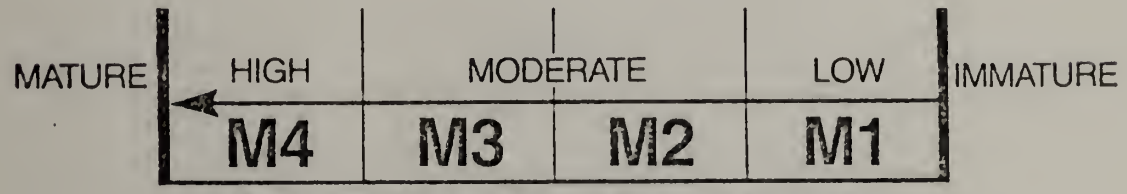
SUMMARY CHART

	Major Objectives or Responsibilities 1	2	3	4	5
Job Maturity Score					
Psychological Maturity Score					
Overall Maturity Designation M1, M2, M3 or M4					
Appropriate Leadership Style* S1, S2, S3 or S4					

*See page six for Situational Leadership Model

SITUATIONAL LEADERSHIP*





*For a discussion of the Hersey/Blanchard Situational Leadership Model see Paul Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard, Management of Organizational Behavior: Utilizing Human Resources, 3rd Edition (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall Inc., 1977).

APPENDIX D

LEADERSHIP STYLE AND PERFORMANCE FORM

LEADERSHIP STYLE and PERFORMANCE

PRINCIPAL RATING FORM

Directions

1. On the next four pages are rating sheets to be used with your teachers. At the top of each page print your name and the name of the teacher you are rating.

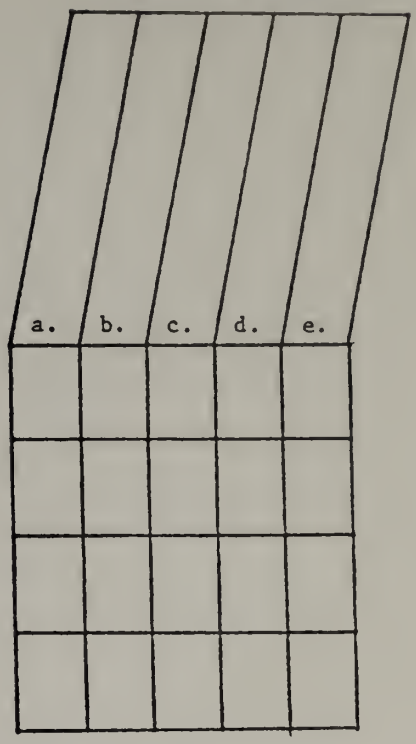
2. For each teacher, print her/his job responsibilities in the diagonal spaces above the answer grid. BE SURE TO KEEP THE JOB RESPONSIBILITIES IN ORDER.

3. Respond to the two items for each teacher by placing a check (✓) in the appropriate boxes. For each teacher, you should give five responses about your leadership style and five responses about the teacher's performance.

teacher _____

principal _____

JOB RESPONSIBILITIES



LEADERSHIP STYLE

For each job responsibility, place a check (✓) beside the leadership style that represents how you normally interact with this teacher. You should put one check for each job reponsibility.

(1) high level of structure and direction, low level of support and personal relations (tells what to do, how and when to do it)

(2) high level of structure and direction, high level of support and personal relations (works together to identify and solve problems)

(3) low level of structure and direction, high level of support and personal relations (listens, supports, does little problem-solving)

(4) low level of structure and direction, low level of support and personal relations (usually leaves alone)

JOB PERFORMANCE

For each job responsibility, place a check (✓) beside the rating that corresponds to your assessment of this teacher's work. You should put one check for each job responsibility.

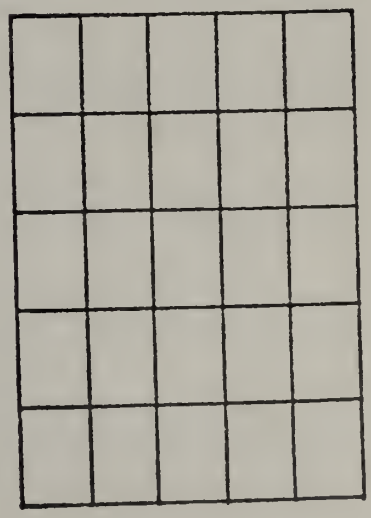
(5) exceptional performance

(4) consistently exceeds expected level of performance

(3) meets expected level of performance

(2) meets minimal requirements

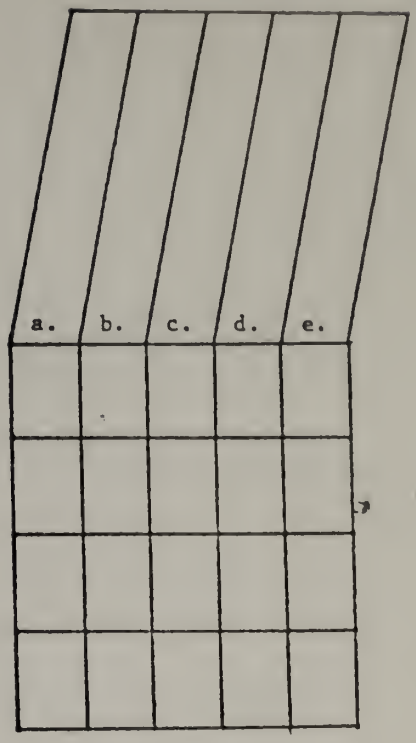
(1) unsatisfactory performance



teacher _____

principal _____

JOB RESPONSIBILITIES



LEADERSHIP STYLE

For each job responsibility, place a check (✓) beside the leadership style that represents how you normally interact with this teacher. You should put one check for each job reponsibility.

(1) high level of structure and direction, low level of support and personal relations (tells what to do, how and when to do it)

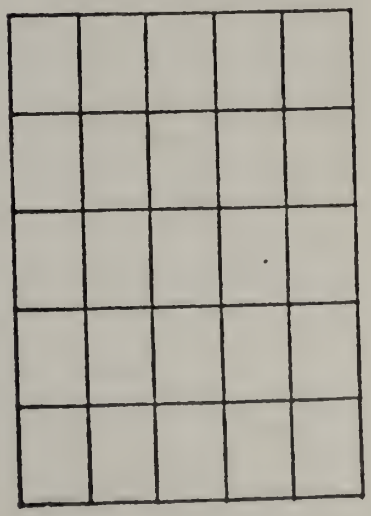
(2) high level of structure and direction, high level of support and personal relations (works together to identify and solve problems)

(3) low level of structure and direction, high level of support and personal relations (listens, supports, does little problem-solving)

(4) low level of structure and direction, low level of support and personal relations (usually leaves alone)

JOB PERFORMANCE

For each job responsibility, place a check (✓) beside the rating that corresponds to your assessment of this teacher's work. You should put one check for each job responsibility.



(5) exceptional performance

(4) consistently exceeds expected level of performance

(3) meets expected level of performance

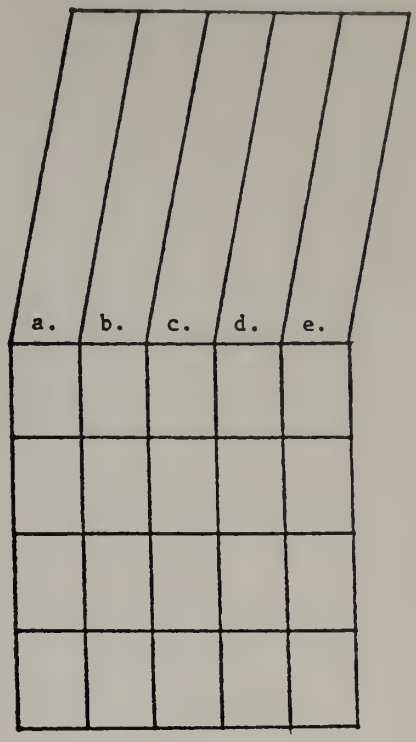
(2) meets minimal requirements

(1) unsatisfactory performance

teacher _____

principal _____

JOB RESPONSIBILITIES



LEADERSHIP STYLE

For each job responsibility, place a check (✓) beside the leadership style that represents how you normally interact with this teacher. You should put one check for each job reponsibility.

(1) high level of structure and direction,
low level of support and personal relations
(tells what to do, how and when to do it)

(2) high level of structure and direction,
high level of support and personal relations
(works together to identify and solve problems)

(3) low level of structure and direction,
high level of support and personal relations
(listens, supports, does little problem-solving)

(4) low level of structure and direction,
low level of support and personal relations
(usually leaves alone)

JOB PERFORMANCE

For each job responsibility, place a check (✓) beside the rating that corresponds to your assessment of this teacher's work. You should put one check for each job responsibility.

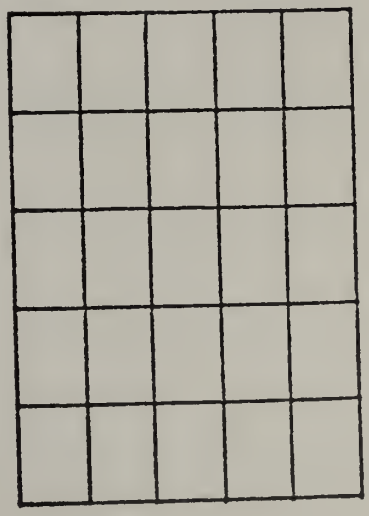
(5) exceptional performance

(4) consistently exceeds expected level of performance

(3) meets expected level of performance

(2) meets minimal requirements

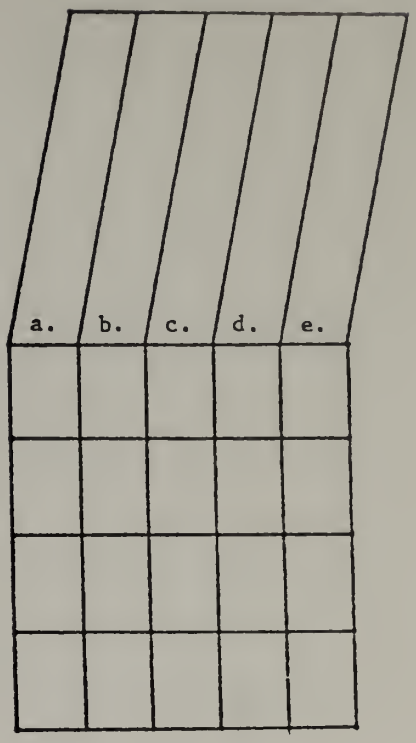
(1) unsatisfactory performance



teacher _____

principal _____

JOB RESPONSIBILITIES



LEADERSHIP STYLE

For each job responsibility, place a check (✓) beside the leadership style that represents how you normally interact with this teacher. You should put one check for each job reponsibility.

(1) high level of structure and direction,
low level of support and personal relations
(tells what to do, how and when to do it)

(2) high level of structure and direction,
high level of support and personal relations
(works together to identify and solve problems)

(3) low level of structure and direction,
high level of support and personal relations
(listens, supports, does little problem-solving)

(4) low level of structure and direction,
low level of support and personal relations
(usually leaves alone)

JOB PERFORMANCE

For each job responsibility, place a check (✓) beside the rating that corresponds to your assessment of this teacher's work. You should put one check for each job responsibility.

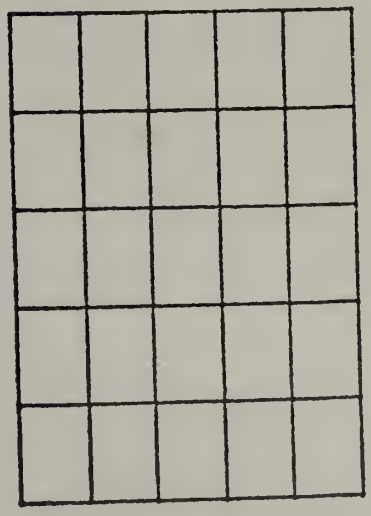
(5) exceptional performance

(4) consistently exceeds expected level of performance

(3) meets expected level of performance

(2) meets minimal requirements

(1) unsatisfactory performance



APPENDIX E

LEADERSHIP STYLE AND EFFECTIVENESS FORM

LEADERSHIP STYLE and EFFECTIVENESS

TEACHER RATING FORM

Directions

1. On the next two pages are rating sheets to be used with your principal. At the top of page one, print your name and your principal's name.

2. Print your five job responsibilities in the diagonal spaces above the answer grids on both pages. BE SURE TO KEEP THE JOB RESPONSIBILITIES IN ORDER.

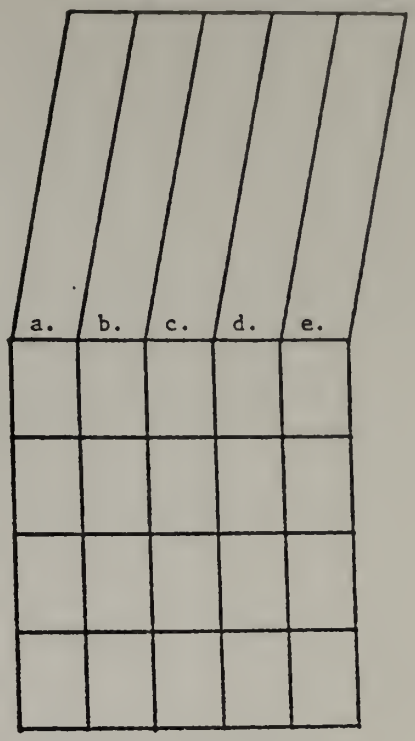
3. Respond to the two items on page 1 by placing a check (✓) in the appropriate boxes. You should give five responses about your principal's leadership style and five responses about your own performance.

4. Respond to the seven items on page 2 by writing the numbers 1,2,3,4, or 5 in the boxes. Each item gets a response for every job responsibility. Therefore, all the boxes should be filled with numbers.

teacher _____

principal _____

JOB RESPONSIBILITIES



LEADERSHIP STYLE

For each job responsibility, place a check (✓) beside the leadership style that represents how your principal normally interacts with you. You should put one check for each responsibility.

(1) high level of structure and direction, low level of support and personal relations (tells what to do, how and when to do it)

(2) high level of structure and direction, high level of support and personal relations (works together to identify and solve problems)

(3) low level of structure and direction, high level of support and personal relations (listens, supports, does little problem-solving)

(4) low level of structure and direction, low level of support and personal relations (usually leaves alone)

JOB PERFORMANCE

For each job responsibility, place a check (✓) beside the rating that corresponds to your assessment of your work. You should put one check for each responsibility.

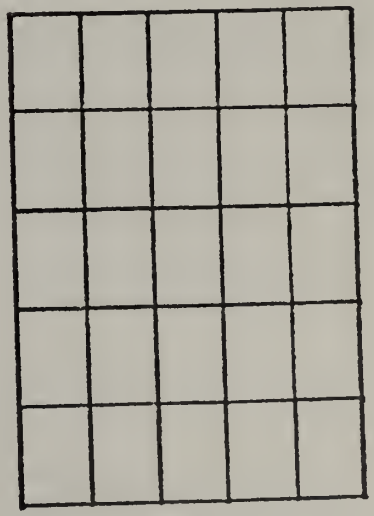
(5) exceptional performance

(4) consistently exceeds expected level of performance

(3) meets expected level of performance

(2) meets minimal requirements

(1) unsatisfactory performance



SATISFACTION AND EFFECTIVENESS

For each job responsibility, respond to each of the following items by writing the numbers 1, 2, 3, 4, or 5 in the boxes. You should put one number in every box. Use the following scale:

5 very high
4 high
3 average
2 low
1 very low

1. Rate the satisfaction you get from working on each job responsibility.

2. Rate your enthusiasm for working on each job responsibility.

3. Rate your satisfaction with your principal's behavior with you on each job responsibility.

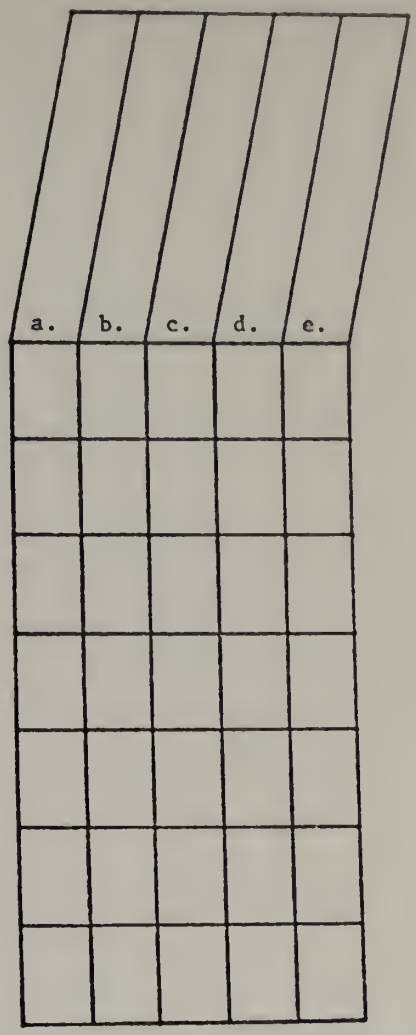
4. Rate the extent to which your principal motivates you to do well on each job responsibility.

5. Rate the extent to which your principal creates conditions which help you do your best work on each job responsibility.

6. Overall, rate your principal's effectiveness as a manager with you on each job responsibility.

7. Rate the appropriateness of the leadership style your principal uses with you on each job responsibility.

JOB RESPONSIBILITIES



APPENDIX F

LEAD SELF

LEAD Self

Directions:
Assume YOU are involved in each of the following twelve situations. Each situation has four alternative actions you might initiate. READ each item carefully. THINK about what YOU would do in each circumstance. Then CIRCLE the letter of the alternative action choice which you think would most closely describe YOUR behavior in the situation presented. Circle only *one choice*.

Leader Effectiveness & Adaptability Description

Published by
CENTER FOR LEADERSHIP STUDIES

Leader Effectiveness & Adaptability Description

1

SITUATION

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

ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS

A. Emphasize the use of uniform procedures and the necessity for task accomplishment.
B. Make yourself available for discussion but don't push your involvement.
C. Talk with subordinates and then set goals.
D. Intentionally do not intervene.

2

SITUATION

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.

ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS

A. Engage in friendly interaction, but continue to make sure that all members are aware of their responsibilities and expected standards of performance.
B. Take no definite action.
C. Do what you can to make the group feel important and involved.
D. Emphasize the importance of deadlines and tasks.

3

SITUATION

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.

ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS

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

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

ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS

A. Allow group involvement in developing the change, but don't 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 you direct the change.

5

SITUATION

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.

ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS

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 don't be too directive.

6

SITUATION

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.

ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS

A. Do what you can to make group feel important and involved.
B. Emphasize the importance of deadlines and tasks.
C. Intentionally do not intervene.
D. Get group involved in decision-making, but see that objectives are met.

7

SITUATION

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 flexibility in its operations.

ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS

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.

8

SITUATION

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

ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS

A. Leave the group alone.
B. Discuss the situation with the group and then you 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.

9

SITUATION

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 at sessions has been poor. Their meetings have turned into social gatherings. Potentially they have the talent necessary to help.

ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS

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 don't push.

10

SITUATION

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

ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS

A. Allow group involvement in redefining standards, but don't 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.

11

SITUATION

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 inter-relations are good.

ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS

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 you examine the need for new practices.
D. Continue to leave group alone.

12

SITUATION

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.

ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS

A. Try out your 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.

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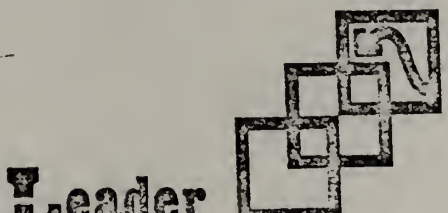
DIRECTIONS FOR SELF SCORING AND ANALYSIS



Leader Effectiveness & Adaptability Description

Published by
CENTER FOR LEADERSHIP STUDIES California American University

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 also 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 enter totals in the spaces provided below.

		COLUMN I (Style Range) Alternative Actions				COLUMN II (Style Adaptability) Alternative Actions			
		(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	B	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) −2	(b) −1	(c) +1	(d) +2
							+	+	+ = TOTAL

Processing Data from C

Sub-column totals from Column I (St styles, (the middle portion) of the T Model' below . The column numbers of the leadership model as follows.

Sub-column (1)—alternative action (High Task Low Relati

Sub-column (2)—alternative action (High Task High Relati

Sub-column (3)—alternative action (High Relationship Low

Sub-column (4)—alternative action (Low Relationship Low

Enter the totals associated with each o boxes provided on the leadership model l

THE TRI-DIMENSIONAL LEADER EFFECTIVENESS MODEL'

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APPENDIX G

LEAD OTHER

LEADER'S SUPERIOR ☐
ASSOCIATE ☐
SUBORDINATE ☐

LEAD Other

PERCEPTIONS BY OTHERS (LEADERSHIP STYLE)

Directions:

Assume _____
(name of leader)

is involved in each of the following twelve situations. Each situation has four alternative actions this leader might initiate. READ each item carefully. THINK about what this PERSON would do in each circumstance. Then CIRCLE the letter of the alternative action choice which you think would most closely describe the behavior of THIS LEADER in the situation presented, based upon your experience with him. Circle only *one choice*.

Leader Effectiveness & Adaptability Description

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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.

6

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 . . .

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SITUATION

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.

ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS

This leader would . . .

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.

8

SITUATION

Group performance and interpersonal relations are good. This leader feels somewhat unsure about his lack of direction of the group.

ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS

This leader would . . .

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.

9

SITUATION

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.

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SITUATION

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SITUATION

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