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Leadership styles of selected successful choral conductors in the United States

Allen, Suzanne Gail, Ed.D.

The University of North Carolina at Greensboro, 1988

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LEADERSHIP STYLES OF SELECTED SUCCESSFUL CHORAL CONDUCTORS IN THE UNITED STATES

by

Suzanne Gail Allen

A Dissertation Submitted to
The Faculty of the Graduate School at
The University of North Carolina at Greensboro
in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Education

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1988

Approved by

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APPROVAL PAGE

This dissertation has been approved by the following committee of the Faculty of the Graduate School at The University of North Carolina at Greensboro.

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ALLEN, SUZANNE GAIL, Ed.D. Leadership Styles of Selected Successful Choral Conductors in the United States. (1988)
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The focus of this study was on the leadership styles of selected successful choral conductors in the United States. A primary purpose was to determine if there was a predominant style of leadership among choral conductors identified as successful. Of secondary interest was demographic information used to describe further the population of successful conductors and the situations in which they worked at the time they completed the survey material.

Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory provided the model for assessing leadership styles. In this model, leadership style is dependent on the situation in which leadership occurs and the needs of the followers within those situations. Hersey and Blanchard's Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description Self-Test (LEAD-Self) identified four styles of leadership: Style 1 (high task/low relationship behaviors), Style 2 (high task/high relationship behaviors), Style 3 (high relationship/low task behaviors), and Style 4 (low relationship/low task behaviors).

Subjects for the study were 122 high school and college choral conductors who had choirs perform at national or division conventions of the American Choral Directors Association between 1984-1987. Each subject completed the LEAD-Self test and an investigator-designed questionnaire. LEAD-Self was used to identify primary and secondary leadership styles and style adaptability. The questionnaire yielded specific information on the situations in which the conductors worked, their self-reported leadership orientation, and variables of

educational level, number of choirs conducted, years of experience, and age.

Statistical analysis included descriptive statistics, chi-square analysis, and Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients. Results from the primary research questions were the following: (a) the successful choral conductors had primary leadership styles that included Styles 1, 2, and 3; (b) the predominant style of leadership was Style 2; (c) predominant secondary leadership styles included Style 3 only and both Style 1 and Style 3; (d) the conductors scored in the low adaptability range; (e) there was no significant difference between the successful high school conductors and the successful college conductors in style of leadership; and (f) there was no significant difference between LEAD primary style of leadership and variables of education, number of choirs conducted, years of experience, and age.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page

CHAPTER

APPENDICES

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

It is apparent that the leadership style of choral conductors is an important factor influencing the musical development of choral ensembles. According to Kirk (1978), leadership responsibilities of the conductor include bringing people and music together in ways that are mutually beneficial and satisfying. Thurman (1979) and Heffernan (1982) state that knowledge of leadership qualities may contribute to the development of a more efficient and effective conductor whose ultimate responsibility is the development of a successful musical organization. Roe (1983) places skills in leadership first on his list of qualities a conductor should possess. He states that "a conductor must possess the somewhat intangible quality of leadership, the ability to inspire and control the group through a conducting personality" (p. 194).

Russell (1980) reports an abundance of research in the area of leadership, including educational research, but notes a dearth of applications to music, particularly conducting. Thurman (1979) indicates a serious lack of research in the area of leadership qualities of conductors, affirming that such research is needed to identify effective leader behaviors which will improve the quality of rehearsals and performances. The apparent lack of research in the area of leadership among conductors, coupled with substantial evidence that

leadership qualities of conductors contribute to the development of a successful musical organization, supports the need for research in the area of leadership among choral conductors.

Hersey and Blanchard (1982) define leadership as "the process of influencing the activities of an individual or a group in efforts toward goal achievement in a given situation" (p. 83). Leadership and leadership style have been the focus of extensive research since the early 1900s when Taylor (1911) initiated his "scientific management movement." He viewed leadership as task-oriented behaviors which established and enforced performance criteria to meet the particular needs of an organization. Taylor emphasized job demands rather than workers' personal fulfillment. In the 1920s and 1930s, Mayo (1945) reversed this trend by establishing the "human relations movement." Effective leader behaviors stressed concern for people, establishment of human relationships, and recognition of individual needs rather than the global needs of an organization.

The early work of Taylor and Mayo produced a dichotomous perception of leadership style. Leaders were thought to be either authoritarian (task-oriented) or democratic (relationship-oriented). This dichotomy has been supported in the work of Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1957), Lewin, Lippett, and White (1960), and in the early studies of the Survey Research Center at the University of Michigan (1950). Leader behavior was plotted on a continuum which had at its extremes authoritarian, or "boss-centered behavior," and democratic, or "subordinate-centered behavior" (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982, pp. 85-87).

Proponents of subsequent models have rejected the either/or notion of leadership. They plot leader behavior on two separate axes, which divide these behaviors into four quadrants, each reflecting some combination of task behavior and relationship behavior. This dual-axis model is the basis for the Ohio State Leadership Studies (1945) and the Managerial Grid (1964) of Blake and Mouton. The Situational Leadership Theory of Hersey and Blanchard (1977) resembles the Ohio State model and the Managerial Grid, but presupposes that the maturity level of subordinates is an essential factor in determining effective leadership (Stech, 1983, p. 100).

Blanchard and Hersey (1970) report early studies in educational administration and management that suggest the presence of a single ideal leadership style. Recent research, however, confirms that there is no single style of leadership that is best for all situations (Goodstein, 1984; Hersey, 1984; Hersey & Blanchard, 1982: Russell, 1980). Hersey (1984) states that "effective leaders know how to 'tailor' their styles to specific situations when attempting to influence the behaviors of others" (p. 56). Basing his study of leadership styles among successful band directors on the Situational Leadership Theory, Goodstein (1984) notes that successful group leadership is determined in part by the ability of leaders to change their leadership styles according to the demands of their followers and each unique situation.

The Situational Leadership Theory of Hersey and Blanchard suggests that effective leaders use any one of four leadership styles

when interacting with others. Each of the four leadership styles, telling, selling, participating, and delegating, reflects some combination of task-oriented behavior and relationship-oriented behavior. Task-oriented leaders are concerned with providing directions for people, telling them what to do, when to do it, where to do it, and how to do it. More concern is directed toward the establishment of goals and carefully delineating the roles of the followers. Relationship-oriented leaders engage in two-way communication with people, providing support, encouragement, and facilitating behavior. These behaviors result in greater concern being directed toward active listening and supporting the efforts of the followers (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982, pp. 149-153).

Figure 1 identifies the four leadership styles of Situational Leadership. Descriptions of the four leadership styles are listed below.

Telling (S1)--High task and low relationship behavior. This style is characterized by the leader's defining roles and telling people what, how, when, and where to do various tasks. It emphasizes directive behavior through one-way communication.

Selling (S2)--High task and high relationship behavior. This style is characterized by directive behavior through two-way communication and explanation. A feature of this style is the addition of supportive behavior to encourage people to strive for success.

Participating (S3)--High relationship and low task behavior. This style is characterized by two-way communication and active listening to support followers' efforts to use their existing abilities. The leader's main role is as facilitator.

Delegating (S4)--Low relationship and low task behavior. This style is characterized by little direction or support. It assumes independence on the part of the followers. The leader may identify problems, but the followers decide how, when, and where to act. (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982, pp. 153-154)

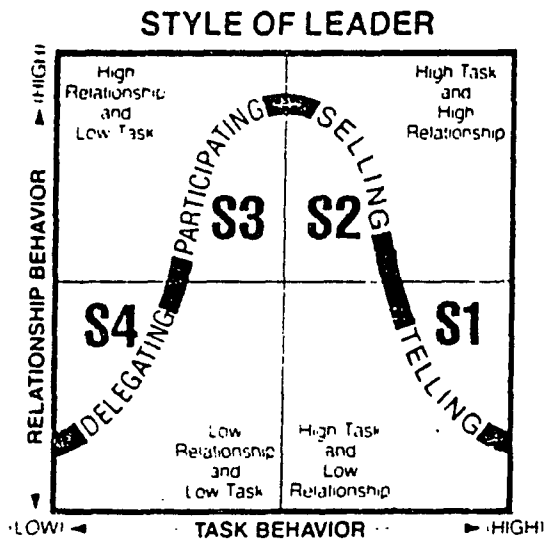


Figure 1. Situational Leadership Model

Note. From Hersey, P., & Blanchard, K. (1982). Management of organizational behavior: Utilizing human resources (4th ed.). Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall. (p. 152) Reprinted by permission.

According to Hersey and Blanchard (1982), a crucial factor in determining effective leadership style is the maturity level of those persons being influenced. In Situational Leadership, maturity is defined as "the ability and willingness of people to take responsibility for directing their own behavior" (p. 151). Individuals and groups are not considered categorically mature or immature. Rather, maturity refers to readiness levels, that is, some combination of ability and willingness to perform specific tasks. To clarify the intention of the term "maturity level," Hersey (1984) renamed this factor of Situational Leadership as the "readiness level" of the followers.

Ability refers to the knowledge, experience, and skill that followers bring to a particular task or activity. Willingness encompasses the confidence, commitment and motivation of followers when accomplishing tasks or activities. The interaction of these two factors determines readiness level. Confidence, commitment, and motivation affect the use and expansion of present ability. Conversely, the amount of knowledge, experience, and skill brought to a task or activity affects willingness (Hersey, 1984, pp. 43-45).

In the Situational Leadership model, readiness ranges on a continuum from low to high. Figure 2 illustrates each of the four levels of readiness in the model.

Readiness Level 1--Reflects inability and unwillingness to accomplish tasks.

Readiness Level 2--Reflects inability but willingness to accomplish tasks.

Readiness Level 3--Reflects ability but unwillingness to accomplish tasks.

Readiness Level 4--Reflects ability and willingness to accomplish tasks.

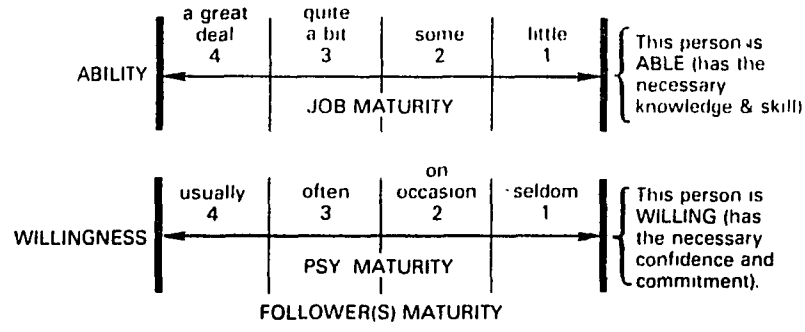


Figure 2. Four Levels of Readiness

Note. From Hersey, P., & Blanchard, K. (1982). Management of organizational behavior: Utilizing human resources (4th ed.). Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall. (p. 161) Adapted by permission.

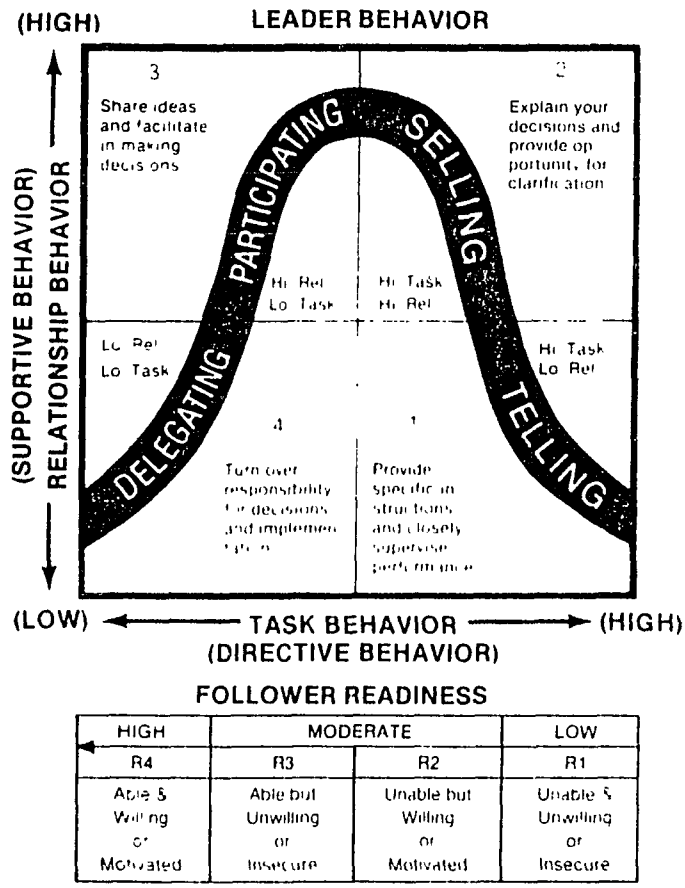
Hersey (1984) states that leader effectiveness is determined by providing the appropriate leadership style for the readiness level of those being influenced. Figure 3 shows an integration of readiness level and the four basic leadership styles.

Telling (S1)--High task and low relationship behavior. Appropriate for a low readiness level.

Selling (S2)--High task and high relationship behavior. Appropriate for low to moderate readiness levels.

Participating (S3)--High relationship and low task behavior. Appropriate for moderate to high readiness levels.

Delegating (S4)--Low relationship and low task behavior. Appropriate for a high readiness level.



FOLLOWER READINESS

HIGH	MODERATE		LOW
R4	R3	R2	R1
Able & Willing or Motivated	Able but Unwilling or Insecure	Unable but Willing or Motivated	Unable & Unwilling or Insecure

Figure 3. Integration of the Four Basic Leadership Styles and Readiness Level

Note. From Hersey, P. (1984). The situational leader. Escondido, CA: Center for Leadership Studies. (p. 61) Reprinted by permission.

Principles of leadership derived from Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory may have important implications for leaders of music performance organizations. Using this theoretical model, Goodstein (1984) concludes that the primary leadership style of successful band conductors is characterized by high relationship and high task leadership behaviors. At the present time, there is no published comparable research concerning leadership styles of choral conductors. The choral conductor, as a musical leader, assumes responsibility for a group and works with and through that group to accomplish a set of goals. The ultimate goal is a refined, polished musical product that embodies such elements as correct pitches, correct rhythms, impeccable diction, flawless intonation, and artistic phrasing. The extent to which a musical group is able and willing to accomplish musical goals may determine the most effective leadership style a conductor might use to accomplish an artistic performance.

The nature of the choral medium suggests that many individual voices and personalities assume a singular tone quality and personality that characterize the group as a whole. To that end, all conductors may engage in task-oriented behaviors, communicating both verbally and nonverbally what to do, how to do it, and when to do it. If the ability and motivational factors are at a high level, relationship-oriented behaviors may not be as important as task-oriented behaviors. Skilled choristers may find satisfaction solely in the music-making process, having little or no need for facilitating behaviors. If, however, ability and motivation are not equally strong among singers,

relationship-oriented behaviors in conductors may need to be as high or higher than task-oriented behaviors. Conductors who lead less adept singers, or who struggle with the dilemmas of enrollment and retention, may discover that their most effective leadership style shows consideration for people as well as for tasks. Singers, skilled or unskilled, may find satisfaction in the music-making process because of the encouragement, support, and facilitating behaviors of the conductor.

There is general agreement among conductors that musical excellence exhibited by a conductor is critical to the musical development of an organization (Brand, 1984; Green, 1961; Heffernan, 1982; Kirk, 1978; Mason, 1985; Sunderman, 1957). It seem implicit that the leadership style of conductors is also important: therefore, not only do musical skills have to be superior, but an ability to work effectively with people is also essential. If this premise is accepted as a logical assumption, success or failure as a leader may also be as important as musical skills. What, then, are the leadership behaviors which separate successful conductors from those who are less successful?

Need for the Study

The need for this study exists because of a serious lack of research in the area of leadership qualities of conductors (Russell, 1980; Thurman, 1979). If, as Heffernan (1982), Roe (1983), and Thurman (1979) suggest, leadership qualities may be the determining factor in successful choral conducting, further research in this area is warranted.

The nature of the art of choral conducting assumes the presence of fundamental musical skills. Musical excellence and skillful choral technique are expected attributes of successful choral conductors. It is, however, possible to identify conductors who possess outstanding musical skills and technique but whose choirs are less than successful. A plausible explanation for this lack of success may be inappropriate leadership behavior or a lack of leadership ability to influence the positive development of a choral organization.

Howard Swan, the eminent choral conductor, describes teacher-student relationships as "a pleasant collaboration rather than a clash of wills, or authority or dignity which is easily threatened" (Fowler, 1987, p. 139). He further states that although the realization of excellence is sometimes achieved only through drill, ideally it should develop from a combination of explanation, inspiration, illustration, demonstration, and comprehension (p. 157). The interpersonal relations between the conductor and the chorus are vital to successful leadership.

In his 1968 address to the Choral Conductors Guild, Swan states:

> It takes a very great person, a Very Great Person (and notice that I don't say a very great musician) it takes a very great person to be an inspiring conductor in these times, because the conductor has to be, he has to continue to be, the leader of his group. (Fowler, 1987, p. 41)

Swan's distinction between "a very great person" and "a very great musician" suggests that there is an aspect of successful choral

leadership that extends beyond skills in musicianship. Perhaps the most successful choral leaders are those who have the strongest personal skills in leadership. The apparent importance of leadership skills, and the lack of research concerning the leadership behaviors of successful choral conductors support the need for this study.

Purpose of the Study

The primary purpose of this study was to determine the leadership styles used by selected successful choral conductors in the United States. Data were also examined to determine if there was a predominant leadership style among selected successful choral conductors in the United States, and whether there was a relationship between the style of leadership used by choral conductors and the readiness level of the group or groups they conduct. The secondary purpose of this study was to describe the population of choral conductors and the situations in which they work.

Research Questions

Four research questions served as focal points in this study.

(1) What are the specific leadership styles of selected successful choral conductors in the United States?

(2) Is there a predominant leadership style among selected successful choral conductors in the United States?

(3) How effective are selected successful choral conductors in the United States at matching an appropriate style of leadership to meet the demands of various situations?

(4) Is there a relationship between the leadership style of selected successful choral conductors and the readiness level of the group or groups they conduct? Specifically, is there a difference between selected successful high school conductors and selected successful college conductors in leadership style?

Of secondary interest was demographic information describing successful choral conductors and the environments in which they work.

Definition of Terms

For clarification, terms used in this study are defined as follows:

Successful choral conductors are those high school and college conductors who have had choirs selected to perform at an American Choral Directors Association (ACDA) National or Divisional Convention between 1984-1987.

Leadership style is defined as leader behaviors which attempt to influence the actions of others. Specifically, the four classifications of leadership style of Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory will be used: telling, selling, participating, and delegating.

Readiness is defined as the ability and willingness of followers to do the work required by the group.

Parameters of the Study

The conductors who were examined in this study were all active members of ACDA. It is acknowledged that there are other "successful" choral conductors who do not hold membership in ACDA. Furthermore, the population included only those conductors who have had choirs selected to perform at ACDA conventions between 1984-1987. There may be successful choral conductors in ACDA whose choirs did not perform during these years. Economic reasons, travel considerations, or other priorities may have prevented some outstanding choral leaders from auditioning for performance at ACDA conventions. Although conclusions from this study may have implications for other choral conductors, the findings describe only those conductors in the present study.

Significance of the Study

Although the issue of leadership styles among successful choral conductors appears to be important, it has not been the focus of research studies. This study may provide significant information to conductors and conductor-educators. The study will determine the leadership styles used by selected successful choral conductors in the United States. When the attributes of successful choral leaders are identified, choral music education can be redirected to incorporate the development of personal qualities of leadership as well as musicianship.

CHAPTER II

RELATED LITERATURE

The concept of leadership in the fields of business management and education has been a major topic in books, articles, and research studies since the early twentieth century. Many theories of leadership have been posited, extensive research on effective leadership has been conducted, and numerous training programs have been developed to produce more effective leaders in various organizational settings. Less research has been done on leadership in music, however, and very few studies exist which address the specific concern for leadership qualities among conductors. Research studies specifically related to choral conducting are noticeably lacking in the literature.

Chapter II is organized into four main sections. Although the focus of this study was on the leadership styles of choral conductors in the United States, an assimilation of leadership thought in business and education was necessary to provide a framework for the understanding of leadership theory, specifically, the development of Situational Leadership Theory, upon which this study was based. Therefore, the first section contains general background information and definitions of leadership in nonmusical contexts. The second section includes an overview of the historical evolution of leadership theory and a description of Situational Leadership Theory and the research associated with it. The third section encompasses the writing and research

associated with leadership in music. Finally, there is a summary of the literature review.

General Background

Leadership researchers have long attempted to describe the characteristics of effective leaders which distinguish them from non-leaders. McCall and Lombardo (1978) suggest that a universal understanding of the leadership process continues to be challenging and elusive (p. 3). Stogdill (1974), in his extensive review and analysis of more than three thousand books and articles on leadership, reports a wide spectrum of definitions and approaches to leadership, concluding that researchers have not produced an "integrated understanding of leadership" (p. vii). Despite the lack of consensus among leadership researchers, some theorists have formulated approaches to the task of developing leader effectiveness with more convincing results than others.

Definitions of Leadership

Numerous definitions of leadership exist in the literature. Business and educational leaders agree that there are as many varied definitions of leadership as there are definers (Bennis & Nanus, 1984; Boles & Davenport, 1975; Cribbin, 1981; Heller, 1974; McCall & Lombardo, 1978; Stogdill, 1974). Perhaps the simplest definition of leadership is offered by Stech (1983) who states that leadership is "a relationship between two people" (p. 2). Jentz and Wofford (1979) extend this relationship factor, referring to leadership as an

interactive process by which information is communicated to, with, or through other people (p. 4). Tannenbaum, Weschler, and Massarik (1961) add that leadership involves interpersonal influence and communication, both directed toward the attainment of specific goals within a situational context (p. 24). Contemporary management theorists Hersey and Blanchard (1982) support Tannenbaum et al., defining leadership as "the process of influencing the activities of an individual or group in efforts toward goal achievement in a given situation" (p. 83).

Tannenbaum et al. (1961) reject any implication that effective leadership results from exclusive personality attributes of the leader. Their view is supported by Denmark (1977) who describes leadership as an interactive process between individuals and their given situation. Hersey and Blanchard (1982) expand the importance of the situational variable in effective leadership, asserting that effective leadership results from an ability to adapt leadership behaviors to meet the demands of any given situation. No single style of leadership is best for all situations, and no single prescribed set of personality attributes will guarantee success as a leader.

Definitions of Educational Leadership

Louisiana State University Chancellor Bogue (1985) defines leadership as "an art form whose effectiveness is improved by the mastery of leadership and management research and by the display of personal integrity" (p. 4). Bogue's discussion of leadership in education suggests that the knowledge learned from leadership research is universally applicable to any group situation. This view is supported by

management leadership theorists Fiedler and Chemers (1974) and by business leader Prentice (1983). Fiedler and Chemers and Prentice use musical analogies to illustrate their suppositions about leader effectiveness, although their views are in opposition to each other. Fiedler and Chemers (1974) state that "an orchestra leader must be evaluated in terms of how well his orchestra plays . . . not for making musicians happy" (p. 7). Their premise is that leader effectiveness is determined only by the level of excellence that is achieved by his or her work group. On the other hand, Prentice (1983) stresses the importance of interpersonal relationships on the achievement of success by the leader. He, too, uses a musical analogy, stating that "unless they (musicians) individually achieve a sense of accomplishment or even fulfillment, the conductor's leadership has failed and great music will not be made" (p. 148). His assumption is that successful leaders are those persons who have established positive relationships with people regardless of the situation.

Heller (1974) defines educational leadership as both "an art form and a science, an art form because it must be felt and interpreted before it is applied, a science because there is a somewhat systematized body of knowledge to be mastered" (p. 7). Clark (1981) summarizes his research on educational leadership in the following statement.

> Excellent leadership is part science, part art, and perhaps felt by many to be a good deal mystical, but its existence should be clearly demonstrated by the performance of the followers in or by the output of the work group which the leader leads. (p. 87)

Anyone who attempts educational leadership can find a philosophical base, a theoretical framework, and an empirical validation for an effective style of leadership in the research leadership on management. Boles and Davenport (1975) recommend that educational leaders incorporate research from the behavioral and social sciences for answers to the question of what constitutes effective leadership (p. ix). Models from outside the field of music, then, may have important implications for defining leadership among music educators.

The Historical Evolution of Leadership Theory

Many leadership theories have been postulated in the twentieth century. The more prominent leadership theories have been identified and are described in the following section of this literature review. Two distinct categories of classification have been identified. The first category contains those theories which explain leadership according to personality traits and characteristics; trait theories prevail in the early research on leadership. The second category includes those theories which explain leadership according to behavioral tendencies and the ability of leaders to adapt their styles of leadership to accommodate the demands of a particular situation; behavioral theories dominate the more recent literature.

Trait Theories

Several authors describe the "Great Man" theory of leadership which represents the first attempt to identify successful leaders (Marriner, 1986; Sashkin & Lassey, 1983; Stogdill, 1974). This theory

focuses on the assumption that some people are born with inherent characteristics which make them great leaders. According to Carlyle (1841), leadership is a quality that cannot be developed. Rather, leaders rise to their positions of leadership because of birthright or inheritance, exemplified by the rise to power by the aristocrats and nobility. A fundamental principle of this theory is that the masses are always led by the superior few (Marriner, 1986, pp. 69-70; Stogdill, 1974, p. 17).

Stogdill (1974) and Bennis and Nanus (1985) describe the "Big Bang" theory, an environmental premise which suggests that great leaders emerge as a result of time, place, and circumstance; ordinary people sometimes emerge as leaders in times of crisis and conflict when immediate action is needed to organize a group. Emergent leaders may or may not maintain their leadership characteristics over time.

Another trait theory described by several authors is the Charismatic theory (Boles & Davenport, 1975; Marriner, 1986; Sashkin & Lassey, 1983). Charismatic leaders appear to be endowed with some unique personal power which inspires support, personal allegiance, and deep emotional commitment and loyalty from their followers. Although charisma is acknowledged as a very powerful force in some leaders (Boles & Davenport, 1975), the unique and magnetic characteristics of charismatic leaders are so elusive they are almost impossible to identify and emulate (Marriner, 1986; Sashkin & Lassey, 1983).

Tead (1935) postulated a trait theory based upon the assumption that successful leaders are endowed with superior qualities which

differentiate them from nonleaders. His empirical research led to the identification of specific characteristics which are exhibited by leaders. According to Tead, the ten most desirable qualities of a leader include physical and nervous energy, a sense of purpose and direction, enthusiasm, friendliness and affection, integrity, technical mastery, decisiveness, intelligence, teaching skill, and faith (p. 82). Other trait theorists have examined a wide array of characteristics that distinguish leaders from their followers. Superior traits included greater intelligence, more creativity, deeper curiosity, and wider insight (Sashkin & Lassey, 1983, p. 92).

All of these trait theories represent some of the earliest attempts to explain leadership skills. Authors of more contemporary research literature, however, consider them to be inadequate explanations for the understanding of leadership (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Fiedler & Chemers, 1974; Sashkin & Lassey, 1983; Stogdill, 1974).

Fiedler and Chemers (1974) reject the suppositions of the "Great Man" and the "Big Bang" theories. Based on their research, Fiedler and Chemers conclude that what leaders actually do in a situation is a more realistic explanation of successful leadership than the personality traits which allowed them to rise to those positions of leadership.

Stogdill (1974) reports studies in which researchers indicated that little success has been attained in attempts to select leaders in terms of traits, and that the trait approach ignores the interaction between leaders and their groups. Bennis and Nanus (1985) describe as myths of leadership any suggestion that leaders are born, not made;

that successful leaders are necessarily charismatic; and that leadership is a rare skill which cannot be acquired. Sashkin and Lassey (1983) attribute the new direction of leadership research which began in the 1930s to emerging theorists' "disillusionment with trait theories" (p. 92).

Behavioral Theories

Trait theories of leadership have been superseded by theories which attempt to explain effective leadership in terms of leader behaviors and the situations in which they occur. Leader behavior is classified as task-oriented or relationship-oriented, although the terminology varies throughout the literature. Task-oriented behavior consists of giving directives, defining work roles, and setting goals for the accomplishment of tasks. Task-oriented leaders maintain emotional and/or physical distance from their followers, and prefer to communicate in written form rather than face-to-face. Relationship-oriented behavior consists of facilitating, supporting, and encouraging the work of others. Relationship-oriented leaders engage in friendly exchange with followers and take an active interest in them as people. They prefer verbal communication with followers more than written communication (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982; Stech, 1983). Other synonyms for task-oriented and relationship-oriented behavior which appear in the various leadership models include autocratic and democratic, initiating structure and consideration, and production-centered and people-centered. While some behavioral theorists describe an either/or model of leadership behavior, others present convincing

evidence that effective leader behavior results from some combination of both task-oriented and relationship-oriented behavior.

The roots of behavioristic leadership theories can be traced to the early twentieth century. Taylor's (1911) scientific management movement represents one of the earliest attempts to prescribe a leadership process specifically designed to increase production among workers within an organization. The goal of scientific management was to meet the needs of an organization through the structuring of tasks with little or no consideration for the personal needs of the workers in that organization.

In the 1920s and early 1930s, Mayo (1945) initiated the human relations movement. In their classic Hawthorne studies, Mayo and his associates argued that more emphasis on interpersonal relations among workers would lead to increased performance. The two opposing views of the leadership process established by Taylor (1911) and Mayo (1945) provided the basis for a dichotomous relationship between task-orientation and relationship-orientation which pervades the subsequent leadership research.

Among the earliest studies in leadership theory is the work of Lewin, Lippett, and White (1939). In their classic leadership experiments at the Institute of Child Development at the University of Iowa, Lewin, Lippett, and White identified three prominent leadership styles: autocratic, democratic, and laissez-faire. Results of their study indicated that a democratic, relationship-oriented approach to leadership was the most productive and produced the least amount of hostility

and aggression within the work group. Subsequent similar experiments by Litwin and Stringer (1968) confirmed the findings of Lewin et al. (Knowles & Saxberg, 1971, pp. 148-149; Sashkin & Lassey, 1983, pp. 95-96).

Studies conducted at the University of Michigan's Survey Research Center in the late 1940s and early 1950s reflect a one-dimensional approach to leadership. Researchers defined leadership on a single continuum which had at its extremes production-centered behavior (task-oriented) and employee-centered behavior (relationship-oriented). Katz, Maccoby, and Morse (1950) and Katz, Maccóby, Gurin, and Floor (1951) concluded that employee-centered supervisors had more efficient work crews than production-centered supervisors (Sashkin & Lassey, 1983, p. 93).

Another one-dimensional model is exhibited in the research of Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958) whose Continuum of Leadership Behavior also identifies leader behavior on a single axis. Unlike the either/or definition of leadership style found in the Michigan State studies, however, the Continuum adds intermediate points along the axis which make possible more combinations of boss-centered leadership and subordinate-centered leadership (Tannenbaum & Schmidt, 1983, pp. 151-163).

One-dimensional models of leadership style were questioned by researchers at Ohio State University (Fleishman, Harris, & Burtt, 1955; Shartle, 1945; Stogdill & Coons, 1957) who believed that task-orientation and person-orientation were not extremes on a single

continuum, but rather, two independent dimensions of leader behavior. Stogdill (1974) reports that the Ohio State Leadership studies provided the first satisfactory attempt to explain a theory of leadership. Initiating structure (task) and consideration (relationship) were plotted on intersecting axes, resulting in four quadrants of leadership behavior: high structure/low consideration; high structure/high consideration; high consideration/low structure; and low consideration/low structure. Research at Ohio State (Halpin, 1957; Hemphill, 1950) led to the development of the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire and the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire, both standardized testing instruments used to measure leader behaviors.

A significant factor in the Ohio State model is the importance placed on the behavior of the followers as a result of one of the leadership styles. Stogdill (1974) summarizes the findings of the Ohio State studies in the following statement.

> The significance of consideration and structure is to be explained not in terms of leadership, but in terms of followership. The two patterns of behavior emerge as important, not because they are exhibited by the leader, but because they produce differential effects on the behavior and expectations of the followers. (p. 141)

Another two-dimensional model was proposed by McGregor (1960) in his Theory X-Theory Y approach to organizational leadership. This design suggests that leaders are predisposed to certain attitudes about their followers' maturity and self-motivation and behave accordingly to accomplish organizational goals. Argyris (1962) suggests that organizational effectiveness improves when the entire working environment is structured to emphasize a humanistic, democratic value system rather than a bureaucratic, pyramidal value system.

The Management Systems approach of Likert (1961, 1967) emphasizes the need to consider both human resources and capital resources as assets requiring effective leadership skills within an organization. Management style is depicted on a continuum ranging from System 1, reflecting a task-oriented approach, to System 4, reflecting a relationship-oriented approach. Results of Likert's studies indicate that successful organizations are those which are more closely aligned to the System 4 style of management (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982).

Blake and Mouton (1964) developed the Managerial Grid, a dual-axis leadership model which shows the extent of interaction between task-oriented behavior and relationship-oriented behavior. Five possible leadership styles result from this interaction. This model is similar to the Ohio State framework, but Blake and Mouton add a fifth style in the Grid which they term "middle road."

The Managerial Grid has been criticized by Hersey and Blanchard (1982) who contend that the Grid reflects attitudinal concerns rather than behavioral concepts. They purport that the Managerial Grid, unlike the Ohio State studies, measures the values and feelings of a leader rather than actual leader behaviors (p. 90). Similarly, the research of McGregor (1960), Argyris (1962), and Likert (1961, 1967) reveals an emphasis on leaders' predispositions toward the members of their work groups (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982, p. 101). In the more recent leadership models (Fiedler, 1967; Hersey & Blanchard, 1982; House, 1971; Reddin, 1967), appropriate or effective leadership is that which is adapted to accommodate the specific needs of a given

situation. Therefore, the conception of leadership style shifts from the idea of a universally best style of leadership to the idea of the most effective style of leadership for a particular situation.

Situational theories of leadership include the Contingency Model of Fiedler (1967), the 3-D Management Style Theory of Reddin (1967), the Path-Goal Theory of House (1971), and the Situational Leadership Theory of Hersey and Blanchard (1982). Fiedler (1967) suggests matching the job situation to the leader's natural style of leadership. He contends that three major situational variables determine whether a situation is favorable to the leader: (1) member relations, (2) task structure, and (3) position power. Fiedler (1967) and Fiedler and Chemers (1974) report extensive studies which led to the development of the Least Preferred Coworker scale. Scores from this scale are used to identify situations which are favorable to the exercise of leadership. Contingency theory, however, does not prescribe for leaders any method for adjusting their behaviors according to the situation (Beck, 1978: Hersey & Blanchard, 1982).

House (1971) proposed the idea that followers are motivated by the rewards they expect as a result of their performance. Leaders, therefore, clarify the path to such rewards utilizing an appropriate style of leadership to accomplish effective performance. Beck (1978) criticizes this leadership model because it provides no adaptive approach to leadership style.

Reddin (1967) was the first theorist to add an effectiveness dimension to the task and relationship concerns of earlier leadership

models. His 3-D Management Style theory focuses on the assumption that a variety of leadership styles may be effective or ineffective, dependent upon the situation. Effective leadership style is described as that which is appropriate to a given situation. Conversely, ineffective leadership style is that which is inappropriate to a given situation. Reddin's work influenced Hersey and Blanchard in the development of the Tri-Dimensional Leader Effectiveness Model which was their pioneer model of Situational Leadership Theory.

Situational Leadership Theory

Support for the situational approach to leadership is provided by other researchers (Beck, 1978; Clark, 1981; Denmark, 1977; Goodstein, 1984; Hersey & Blanchard, 1982; Hersey, Angelini, & Carakushansky, 1982; Pascarella, 1985) who maintain that the situational approach to leadership style can increase organizational effectiveness. Denmark (1977) asserts that "leadership should not be viewed simply as the qualities or position maintained by an individual, but rather as an interactive process between the individual and the characteristics of a given situation--each affecting the other" (p. 74).

Originally published as the Life-Cycle Theory (1969), Situational Leadership Theory (SLT) has evolved into a potent approach to leadership style and organizational management. Contrary to the Contingency Model in which leaders are matched to situations in which their style is most effective, Situational Leadership provides leaders with the diagnostic skills to assess any given situation and to adjust their own leadership style to meet the demands of the situation.

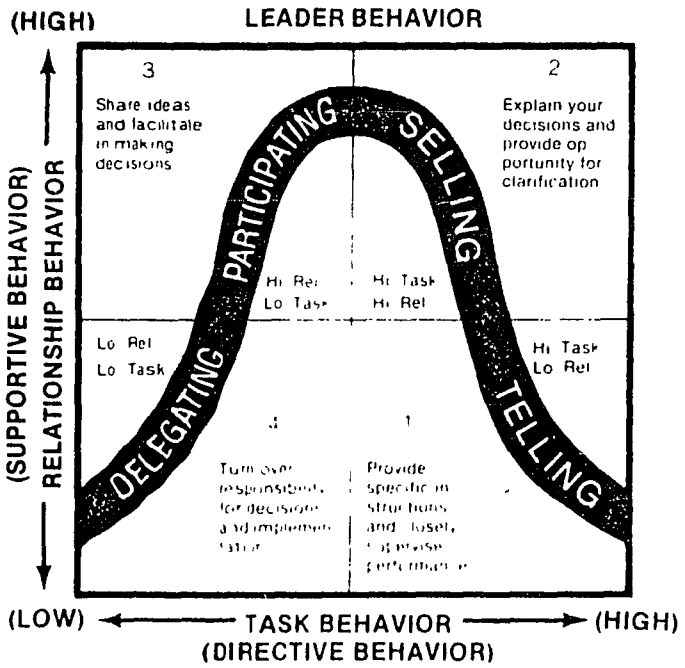
Situational Leadership Theory was founded on the principle that there is no single best style of leadership when attempting to influence the behavior of others. The unique factor of SLT is the consideration placed on the maturity level of the followers. Acknowledging the importance of task-relevant maturity, Hersey and Blanchard (1982) provide a prescriptive model for selecting a leadership style that will have the highest probability of success in goal accomplishment. Task-relevant maturity has two major components: the ability of the followers and the willingness of the followers to accomplish a task. Ability is defined as "the knowledge, experience and skill that an individual or group brings to a particular task or activity." Willingness refers to the followers' "confidence, commitment, and motivation to accomplish a specific task or activity" (Hersey, 1984, p. 44). Hersey (1984) subsequently modified the terminology, and in the most recent writings, readiness level has replaced the term task-relevant maturity.

Four leadership styles are delineated in the SLT model, each reflecting some combination of task-oriented behavior and relationship-oriented behavior. The two dimensions, task and relationship, appear on separate axes similar to the Ohio State model. Task behavior is defined as the extent to which leaders provide directions, set goals, and define the roles of followers. Relationship behavior is defined as the extent to which leaders engage in two-way communication, facilitating behaviors, and socioemotional support behaviors.

Four quadrants of leader behavior are identified: high task/low relationship, high task/high relationship, high relationship/low task, low relationship/low task. Superimposed on the quadrants is a prescriptive bell-shaped curve which identifies the four leadership styles: telling, selling, participating, and delegating. Readiness level, ranging from very low to very high, appears on a single continuum below the prescriptive curve. The appropriate leadership style for a given situation is determined by matching the readiness level of the individual or group on the continuum with the leadership style which appears on the prescriptive curve above the continuum (see Figure 4).

The four leadership styles are described as follows. Telling (S1) is for low readiness (R1). This high task/low relationship style is appropriate for followers who are both unable and unwilling to perform specific tasks. Leaders using Style 1 are required to give clear directions, to define roles clearly, and to tell people what, where, when, and how to perform tasks. Supportive behavior is minimized so poor performance is not rewarded.

Selling (S2) is for low to moderate readiness (R2). This high task/high relationship style is best for followers who are willing but unable to take responsibility for specific tasks. Leader behavior includes giving specific directions and providing strong socioemotional support. Two-way communication is necessary to explain decisions, reinforce followers' willingness and enthusiasm, and to gain follower support.



FOLLOWER READINESS

HIGH	MODERATE		LOW
R4	R3	R2	R1
Able & Willing or Motivated	Able but Unwilling or Insecure	Unable but Willing or Motivated	Unable & Unwilling or Insecure

Figure 4. Integration of the Four Basic Leadership Styles and Readiness Level

Note. From Hersey, P. (1984). The situational leader. Escondido, CA: Center for Leadership Studies. (p. 61) Reprinted by permission.

Participating (S3) is for moderate to high readiness (R3). This high relationship/low task style is appropriate for followers who have the ability to perform specific tasks but lack confidence. High levels of supportive behavior, two-way communication, and active listening take precedence over directive behavior. The primary role of the leader is as a facilitator.

Delegating (S4) is for high levels of readiness (R4). This low relationship/low task behavior is appropriate for followers who are both able and willing to perform specific tasks. Little directive or supportive behavior is required from the leader because the followers are self-motivated and self-directed.

The Situational Leadership model has direct applications to the performance of specific tasks. Additionally, as leaders adjust their behaviors through each of the four leadership styles, they can effectively increase follower readiness. In the early stages of skill development, directive behavior is required. As performance improves, more supportive behavior is added as positive reinforcement. As follower readiness increases, directive behaviors are reduced and supportive behaviors are increased to develop confidence and commitment in the followers. Finally, when followers reach higher levels of readiness (R3 and R4), both task behavior and relationship behavior are decreased to provide task-mature people with autonomy rather than socioemotional support.

The diagnostic nature of the Situational Leadership model allows leaders to reverse any tendencies toward declining performance from their followers. Follower readiness can be reassessed and leaders can move backwards through the prescriptive curve to provide the necessary amounts of task and relationship behavior to accomplish established goals.

Thus, the logical premise of SLT is that leadership style should be varied according to the demands of a particular situation.

Performance levels are maximized by providing the correct amount of task-oriented behavior and relationship-oriented behavior in accordance with the ability and willingness of the followers. The uniqueness of the readiness factor permits leaders to move forward or backward along the curve as the situation demands, but the ultimate goal is to empower followers to function autonomously and effectively. Hersey and Blanchard (1982) synthesize the salient points of Situational Leadership, describing SLT as "a vehicle to help people understand and share expectations in their environment so that they can gradually learn to supervise their own behavior and become responsible, self-motivated individuals" (p. 312).

To identify leadership styles, Hersey and Blanchard developed the Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description (LEAD) instrumentation. LEAD-Self measures leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership styles. LEAD-Other measures leaders' styles as they are perceived by members of their work groups. LEAD-Self, the testing instrument used in the present study, is discussed in Chapter III.

Educational Research Using Situational Leadership Theory

A review of recent educational research on Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory reveals a wide acceptance of the theory and suggests its strong potential for usefulness in educational environments (Beck, 1978; Clark, 1981; Hersey, Angelini, & Carakushansky, 1982; Pascarella, 1985). Based on his review of

literature, Beck (1978) concluded that Situational Leadership Theory is the most comprehensive and readily applicable theory of leadership (p. 42). Clark's (1981) review of literature led him to support Beck's conclusion and to affirm the usefulness of Situational Leadership Theory applications with educators (p. 35). As a result of his three-year longitudinal study, Pascarella (1985) strongly supports the appropriateness of Situational Leadership Theory to the field of education. He concludes that the constructs of this theory are particularly relevant to contemporary leadership needs and, as such, should be incorporated into leadership education programs (p. 141).

Three researchers conducted field tests of Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory in school settings (Beck, 1978; Clark, 1981; Pascarella, 1985). Beck (1978) tested the theory on 21 elementary school principals and 85 of their teachers. Clark (1981) sought to validate the theory using K-12 principals, supervisors, teachers, and central office personnel. Over a three-year period, Pascarella (1985) examined the effects of Situational Leadership training on elementary school principals and some of their teachers from two school districts in Illinois.

In all three studies, researchers reported that the most effective leadership styles are those emphasizing high relationship behavior. Style 2 (high task/high relationship) and Style 3 (high relationship/low task) were perceived by subjects in all studies as the most prevalent and the most effective styles used by leaders. Although Style 4 (low relationship/low task) was reported by Beck (1978) as

being effective with some teachers in some situations, Clark (1981) and Pascarella (1985) found that subjects in their studies perceived this style to be the least effective and the least practical. An interesting finding from Clark's (1981) study reveals that leaders' superiors rate their leaders more effective if they use Style 1 (high task/low relationship) or Style 4, whereas the followers rate their leaders most effective if they use Style 2 or Style 3, the high relationship styles. He further concludes that high relationship behavior from leaders appears to be needed by followers independent of their maturity level. Low relationship behavior appears not to be desired by followers at any maturity level.

Hersey, Angelini, and Carakushansky (1982) tested the applicability of SLT in an actual learning environment. Two separate experiments were conducted on 60 executives who attended a management training course on transactional analysis at Centro de Produtividade do Brasil (Sao Paulo). Experimental and control groups were provided with identical course material to be learned. The control groups were instructed using a conventional student-teacher format. The experimental groups were instructed using a Situational Leadership approach. As a result of their study Hersey et al. concluded that "in terms of both quantitative and qualitative student performance measures, proper applications of SLT resulted in better student performance outcomes, as compared to identical learning situations in which no attempts were made to apply the theory" (p. 232).

Educational researchers, therefore, have found the Situational Leadership Theory to be useful, appropriate, and valid for educational environments (Beck, 1978; Clark, 1981; Pascarella, 1985). Furthermore, increased student performance has resulted from direct applications of the theory (Hersey, Angelini, & Carakushansky, 1982). Existing evidence supports the applicability of principles of leadership derived from Situational Leadership Theory to the field of music education.

Leadership in Music

Literature on leadership in choral conducting is limited to books and articles which acknowledge the importance of effective skills in leadership. Empirical research on leadership and leadership style among choral conductors has not been reported in the literature.

General Background

Choral conductors work almost exclusively in group situations, leading singers toward the accomplishment of specific goals. The nature of choral music education is similar to any group endeavor in which unified outcomes are desired. The similarities involved in group leadership make possible business applications of effective leadership. Conductor-educators may find benefit in the principles of leadership derived from management theory.

Authors of conducting texts agree that superior musical skills and techniques are important attributes of successful conductors (Busch, 1984; Decker & Herford, 1973; Green, 1961; Green & Malko, 1985;

Heffernan, 1982; Moe, 1972; Rudolf, 1980). Leadership skills, which include an ability to inspire followers and a knowledge of group dynamics, are also mentioned as desirable attributes of successful conductors.

Green and Malko (1985) describe the importance of leadership skills in the following statement.

> On one hand, there are conductors who may be basically wonderful people who have thoroughly mastered their score, but they cannot establish the necessary contact with their players; they do not know how to work with an orchestra or chorus, and their results are therefore inferior to their innate abilities as artist performers. There are, on the other hand, conductors who are not nice human beings but who do know how to get along with an ensemble and how to obtain its cooperation, and they do it without special effort or immoral means . . . . The responsibility for everything rests on the shoulders of the conductor. His role begins here, where, in addition to his purely musical talent, his characteristics as a pedagogue and administrator, together with his whole personality, play a tremendous part. (pp. 10-11)

Rudolf (1980) also stresses the importance of leadership skills as well as strong musical skills to the conductor.

> Musicianship and thorough study of scores will help him little unless he knows how to talk to people, work with them, and get results in a quick and direct manner . . . . Knowledge of a few simple principles of group psychology is of great assistance in rehearsing efficiently and in stimulating the players to a good performance. (p. xv)

The interaction between conductors and their groups appears to be an important issue. Busch (1984) states that "the quality of an ensemble depends on the conductor's capacity to . . . inspire and lead the performers to seek and express the aesthetic essence of the music" (p. 110). Pfautsch (1973) synthesizes the importance of leadership

qualities in a choral conductor thus:

> The importance of group dynamics must not be underestimated. The success of any rehearsal depends much on the role the conductor assumes, his self-image as a person, as a musician, and as a conductor, his attitude toward the group and its purpose, his personal relationship with the individual singers, and his approach to the rehearsal . . . . Many choral conductors have difficulty understanding what leadership involves and are insensitive to a balance between reproach and commendation. (pp. 70-71)

Moe (1972) attributes the overall success of an ensemble to its conductor, whom he describes as:

> the agent, the enabler, the catalyst, who motivates the ensemble to make supreme effort of mind and spirit that is required if the expression of the composer's imagination is to be given full realization. (p. 5)

Despite their acknowledgment of the the importance of effective leadership skills, most authors have designed their conducting texts to develop the musical skills and conducting techniques rather than the leadership skills of potential choral music educators. Virtually no attempt has been made to systematize the leadership research literature from other disciplines which may provide more substantial information about effective leadership. Only one author (Simons, 1983) proposes a leadership teaching approach to choral music education. Although her writing is not research-based, Simons does incorporate the transactional analysis premises of Maslow to support her rationale for emphasizing communication and group leadership skills even before gestural concerns when teaching prospective conductors. Simons further stresses the need for a supportive, relationship-oriented environment in choral music education classes.

Research Associated with Music Administrators

Chang (1984) conducted a study to analyze the backgrounds and leadership styles of music administrators in higher education. The subjects of this study were 100 music administrators whose schools hold membership in the National Association of Schools of Music. Leadership style was classified into two categories: democratic or autocratic style and initiating structure (task behavior) or consideration (relationship behavior). To assess democratic or autocratic style of leadership, Chang adapted a questionnaire designed by Fadely and Fadely (1972). To assess initiating structure or consideration, Chang used the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire - Form XII developed by the research staff of The Ohio State Leadership Studies and revised by the Bureau of Business Research. Chang's findings on leadership style indicate that music administrators prefer a democratic style of leadership rather than an autocratic style. In addition, music administrators rate high on their ability to combine effectively both initiating structure and consideration.

Research Associated with Orchestral Conductor-Educators

The first attempt to apply a business-oriented conceptualization of leadership to a music education situation is found in a study by Russell (1980) in which he investigated the leadership styles of high school orchestra conductor-educators. The purpose of his study was twofold. First, he attempted to design and validate the Inventory of

Music Education Behaviors (IMEB). IMEB is an operationalized version of Blake and Mouton's Style of Management Inventory (1970) which is an instrument used to determine predominant styles of leadership. Second, he attempted to collect data to determine the predominant styles of leadership and the hierarchy and strength of their occurrence in high school orchestra conductor-educators.

Several conclusions are noted as a result of this study. Significant among them, Russell (1980) found that (1) Blake and Mouton's Style of Management Inventory is an effective approach for the understanding of leadership among high school orchestra conductor-educators; (2) IMEB is an effective instrument for measuring leadership styles of high school orchestra-educators; and (3) that IMEB is valid, reliable, and usable as an instrument for measuring leadership styles of high school orchestra conductor-educators (pp. 188-189). Unfortunately, no definitive conclusions could be made concerning the perceived leadership styles of high school orchestra conductor-educators following only one exploratory study.

Russell (1986) investigated the leadership styles used by "outstanding" high school orchestra conductor-educators. He compared two groups of high school orchestra conductor-educators: a randomly selected sample and a sample identified as "outstanding." Using the identical methodology of his earlier study, Russell found "no statistically significant differences between predominant leadership style, hierarchy of style, or strength of their occurrence of 'outstanding' high school orchestra conductor-educators and a group of randomly

selected high school orchestra conductor-educators" (p. 55). A second major conclusion from this study reveals that the "outstanding" conductor-educators appear to be a more homogeneous group in their perceptions of leadership than their randomly selected counterparts. Additionally, members of the "outstanding" conductor-educators' performing groups tended to perceive their situations in a manner similar to their leaders' perceptions. Group members from the randomly selected orchestras were less consistent in their perceptions of a unified purpose.

Research Associated with Band Directors

Powell's (1976) study produced a typology of leadership styles for the administrators of university bands. His review of literature conforms to the idea that leadership behavior is applicable to any organizational setting. His study reflects a blend of leadership research and is not confined to any one leadership theory. He identified seven leadership styles for the purposes of his study: autocratic, democratic, charismatic, bureaucratic, nomothetic, idiographic, and transactional. His descriptions of effective band leaders include traits or characteristics such as being responsible, task-oriented, self-confident, vigorous and persistent in the pursuit of goals, and possessing a strong self-concept.

Among the conclusions generated from his study, Powell (1976) found that band directors are adequately trained in musical skills and methodology, but lack training in group dynamics skills. Furthermore, he concludes that music groups are affected by dynamic forces similar

to those which affect other kinds of groups, and that band directors should become more aware of these forces (p. 107).

Goodstein (1984) investigated the leadership behaviors and descriptive characteristics of band directors in the United States. Using the Situational Leadership Theory of Hersey and Blanchard (1976), Goodstein proposed "to determine which combinations of investigated leadership and descriptive/environmental variables were the most effective and/or best predictors of successful band directing" (p. 6). He compared á sample of successful band directors, determined through nominations made by state chairmen of the National Band Association, with an equal number of randomly selected band directors. Each subject in the two sample groups completed an investigator-designed demographic questionnaire and Hersey and Blanchard's Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description Self-Test. Based on his findings, Goodstein concluded that the demographic variables are more discriminate than leadership styles in separating successful band directors from randomly selected band directors. The most significant variables were found to be the size of the high school student population, the socioeconomic status of the high school, and the age and educational level of the band director. According to Goodstein, successful directors tend to work in schools with large student populations, to have large amounts of financial support, and to be older and hold more master's degrees than their randomly selected counterparts.

Goodstein further concluded that both the successful group and the randomly selected group had similar leadership styles. Both groups

had a primary leadership style that was characterized by high task/high relationship behaviors. Both groups indicated similar secondary leadership styles ranging from high task/low relationship behavior to high relationship/low task behavior. Neither group showed an ability to use low relationship/low task behavior. Finally, band directors were only moderately effective in their ability to change their leadership style according to the demands of their situations.

Although Goodstein found no significant differences in the leadership styles used by the successful sample and the random sample, he did make several observations based on his findings. He suggested that band directors may be able to benefit from further study of leadership and from increased knowledge of leadership behavior. Furthermore, their ability to use all four of Hersey and Blanchard's leadership styles may "improve their opportunities for success" (p. 131). Goodstein concluded that "the LEAD-Self can be used as an accurate measuring device from which band directors can begin to improve their understanding of leadership behavior" (p. 131).

Conclusions from Literature on Music Leadership

Several conclusions may be made from the literature on leadership in music. First, leadership in music appears to be an important concept. Authors of conducting texts agree that conductors should possess strong qualities of leadership (Busch, 1984; Decker & Herford, 1973; Green & Malko, 1985; Heffernan, 1982; Moe, 1972; Rudolf, 1980).

Second, researchers agree that far too little research has been done regarding leadership in music (Chang, 1984; Goodstein, 1984; Powell, 1976; Russell, 1980).

Third, a review of literature reveals studies on leadership styles of music administrators in higher education (Chang, 1984), orchestra conductor-educators (Russell, 1986, 1980), and band directors (Goodstein, 1984; Powell, 1976), but there is no published comparable research in the field of choral conducting. If, as Sanders (1987) states, "a choir can really only sing as well as they are led" (p. 2), then perhaps choral conductors could benefit from leadership research in their field.

Fourth, among studies of leadership styles of band and orchestra conductors and music administrators, there is an overwhelming tendency for these leaders to prefer a style of leadership that is characterized by high task/high relationship behavior. Secondary styles reflecting either high task/low relationship behavior, or high relationship/low task behavior are prevalent. Tests using either Hersey and Blanchard's LEAD-Self (Goodstein, 1984), the Ohio State Leadership studies' LBDQ Form XII (Chang, 1984), or Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid (Russell, 1986, 1980) all reveal an inability of leaders in music to utilize effectively a leadership style that is characterized by low task/low relationship behavior.

Fifth, most music researchers agree that leaders of performance organizations may benefit from study and increased knowledge of effective leadership behaviors (Goodstein, 1984; Powell, 1976; Russell, 1986, 1980).

Sixth, business applications of leadership theory have relevance to the field of music when defining and describing leadership styles of music administrators and conductors of performance organizations (Chang, 1984; Goodstein, 1984; Russell, 1986, 1980).

Summary

The literature on leadership yields a diversity of thought and a variety of leadership models, some more complex than others. Historically, early theorists explained leadership in terms of personality traits and characteristics which separated leaders from nonleaders. Trait theories were eventually superseded by behavioral theories which dominate twentieth century leadership research. Taylor (1911) and Mayo (1945) proposed opposing approaches to management effectiveness which established the dichotomous relationship between leader behaviors: task-orientation and relationship-orientation. Theoretical models evolved from simple one-dimensional either/or explanations of leadership (Michigan State studies) to more advanced two-dimensional models (Ohio State studies; Managerial Grid) in which leader behavior included some combination of both task-oriented behavior and relationship-oriented behavior and finally to more complex situational models (Contingency Theory; Situational Leadership Theory) in which appropriate leader behavior results from accurate analysis of the situation in which leadership occurs. One of the more illuminating contemporary theories is the Situational Leadership Theory of Hersey and Blanchard (1982) which is the only leadership theory that incorporates the

readiness level of followers as a significant factor in the determination of appropriate and effective leadership style. Educational researchers substantiate the usefulness and applicability of Situational Leadership Theory in teaching/learning environments (Beck, 1978; Clark, 1981; Hersey, Angelini, & Carakushansky, 1982; Pascarella, 1985).

Writers and researchers in the field of music confirm the need for leaders of performing organizations to possess superior skills in leadership (Busch, 1984; Goodstein, 1984; Green, 1961; Green & Malko, 1985; Heffernan, 1982; Moe, 1972; Pfautsch, 1973; Rudolf, 1980; Russell, 1986, 1980). There is evidence supporting the usefulness and validity of leadership models extracted from business and management for leaders of band and orchestral organizations (Goodstein, 1984; Russell, 1986, 1980). Specifically, Goodstein (1984) infers that proper application of the principles of Situational Leadership Theory may increase the likelihood of success among band directors. The literature yields no comparable research on choral conductors.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This investigation was designed as a descriptive study of the leadership styles of selected successful choral conductors in the United States. Leadership styles were identified by means of the Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description Self-Test (LEAD-Self) (Hersey & Blanchard, 1973). Additional demographic information was obtained through the use of an investigator-constructed questionnaire.

The Population

The population defined as "successful choral conductors" consisted of those high school and college choral conductors who have had choirs selected to perform at National or Division Conventions of the American Choral Directors Association (ACDA) between 1984 and 1987. Each of the seven divisions of ACDA held conventions in 1984 and 1986, and national conventions were held in 1985 and 1987. In addition to encompassing two national and two divisional meetings, the inclusive dates 1984-1987 were chosen for three reasons: (1) current leaders in the field of choral conducting were investigated; (2) the size of the population identified was considered to be adequate for this study; and (3) including the years prior to 1984 increased the likelihood that conductors would have changed jobs and/or could not be located through a mail survey.

As the major professional organization for choral conductors in the United States, ACDA promotes and maintains standards of excellence for the profession through publications, choral workshops, and professional meetings. Although no general assumption could be made regarding correlations between success as a choral conductor and membership in ACDA, the audition procedure used to select choirs to perform at ACDA conventions reflects an attempt to identify the most outstanding choirs in the United States.

Explicit guidelines govern all phases of the audition. Conductors must be "current, paid-up members of ACDA" and "must have been employed in the same position for the previous two years" ("Guidelines," 1985, p. 4). Audition tapes must include musical selections from the current year as well as the two previous years. The audition process is designed to eliminate all elements of bias. Anonymity of schools, choirs, and conductors is maintained through each step of the procedure by coding the tapes before they are disseminated to audition committees. National convention audition tapes are first screened by a committee appointed by Division Presidents. No divisional audition committee hears tapes from its division. The taped performances are ranked on a scale from 1-10, with 10 representing the choirs that definitely should be accepted. Those taped performances ranked 6 or higher are then forwarded to the National Auditions Committee which is assembled by the Past National Presidents Advisory Committee. The results of their screening are sent to the National Convention Chairperson who has the final authority for selecting choirs to

perform on convention programs. Division convention audition tapes are screened by a similar process first at the state level, then at the division level.

Because the readiness level of followers is such an integral aspect of Situational Leadership, both high school and college conductors were included in this investigation. It was assumed that high school choirs might not have the experience or the advanced musical knowledge and skills that the college choirs might have. Thus, the inclusion of both educational levels represented an attempt to examine leadership styles used by conductors who lead students with varying degrees of readiness.

Names of 174 high school and college choral conductors were obtained from the January 1984, 1985, 1986, and 1987 issues of The Choral Journal which listed all of the performing organizations and their conductors. Twenty-two duplicate names were identified, leaving 152. Of these, 54 conductors taught at the high school level, and 98 taught at the college level. Current mailing addresses for these conductors were obtained from the Executive Office of ACDA.

This population reflected a cross section of choral conductors in the United States, with 41 states and the District of Columbia being represented. Figure 5 shows divisional representation within the population.

Division	N	Percent
Southwestern Division	31	20%
Southern Division	24	16%
Western Division	23	15%
Eastern Division	21	14%
Northwestern Division	20	13%
North Central Division	18	12%
Central Division	15	10%

Figure 5. Divisional Representation

The Testing Instruments

By means of a letter, each conductor was asked to complete Hersey and Blanchard's LEAD-Self test, an instrument designed to ascertain leadership behavior according to the guidelines of Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory. Hersey and Blanchard (1982) state that "LEAD-Self was designed to measure self-perception of three aspects of leader behavior: (1) style; (2) style range; and (3) style adaptability" (p. 100).

LEAD-Self is a 10-minute paper-and-pencil test designed to eliminate the need for technical assistance to complete. Subjects are presented with 12 hypothetical group situations and are given four alternative responses from which to choose. Each of the four alternative actions represents one of the four leadership styles in the

Situational Leadership model. Respondents are asked to choose the response which would best describe their behavior in each situation.

The hypothetical situations also represent each of the four levels of group readiness: three situations reflect a low level of readiness; three situations reflect a low-to-moderate level of readiness; three situations reflect a moderate-to-high level of readiness: and three situations reflect a high level of readiness.

Answers to the group situations are used to determine each subject's primary leadership style, secondary leadership style (style range), and style adaptability (flexibility). Primary leadership style is categorized in one of four quadrants (see Figure 6).

Quadrant 3 High Relationship and Low Task (Participating)	Quadrant 2 High Task and High Relationship (Selling)
Quadrant 4 Low Relationship and Low Task (Delegating)	Quadrant 1 High Task and Low Relationship (Telling)

Figure 6. Quadrants of Leadership Style

Secondary leadership style, or style range, is the extent to which leaders are able to vary their leadership style to accommodate different situations. Leaders who use only one leadership style tend to be effective only in those situations which are compatible with that style. Flexible leaders have the potential to be effective in a variety of situations because they have a range of styles from which to choose. Leaders generally have only one primary leadership style but may have no secondary leadership style or up to three. Although style range is not an indicator of effectiveness as a leader, it is a predictor of the potential for effectiveness because a variety of leader behaviors is possible (Hersey, 1981, p. 4).

Style adaptability is the degree to which leaders are able to vary their leadership style appropriately to the demands of a specific situation. Hersey (1981) assesses the critical element in determining leader effectiveness as style adaptability. Effectiveness as a leader is dependent upon choosing a style of leadership which is compatible with the specific work environment (p. 13).

Technical information about LEAD-Self is reported by Greene (1980). He states:

> LEAD-Self was standardized on the responses of 264 managers constituting a North American sample . . . . The stability of the LEAD-Self was moderately strong. In two administrations across a six-week interval, 75% of the managers maintained their dominant style and 71% maintained their alternate style. The contingency coefficients were both .71 and each was significant ($p < .01$). The correlation for the adaptability scores was .69 ($p < .01$). The LEAD-Self scores remained relatively stable across time, and the user may rely upon the results as consistent measures.
>
> The logical validity of the scale was clearly established. Face validity was based upon a review of the items,

> and content validity emanated from the procedures employed to create the original set of items. (p. 1)

Based on several empirical validity studies, Green (1980) also reports satisfactory results supporting the four style dimensions of the scale. He concludes that "the LEAD-Self is deemed to be an empirically sound instrument" (p. 1).

Hersey and Blanchard (1982) affirm the "wide acceptance of the LEAD instruments in a variety of organizational settings" (p. 100). Reviewing Situational Leadership, Eberhardt (1983) suggests that "research using these instruments [LEAD] be conducted because of the potential usefulness of several of the theoretical concepts" (p. 1385). The test has gained favor in educational communities and was used by Goodstein (1984) in his study on leadership styles of band directors. Following his pilot study of Arizona band directors, Goodstein concluded that LEAD-Self accurately measured their leadership behaviors. Grashel (1986) supported Goodstein's assessment of LEAD-Self as a useful device for measuring leadership.

Although the LEAD-Self test was developed for use in business environments, it has direct applications for use in the area of choral conducting. Conductors function as group leaders, working with and through groups to accomplish goals. The leadership behaviors of choral conductors may significantly affect the musical productivity of their choirs. The following example illustrates an application of one of the situations from the LEAD-Self test to a choral setting.

SITUATION	ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS
3. Members of your group are unable to solve a problem themselves. You have normally left them alone. Group performance and interpersonal relations have been good.	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 problems and be supportive of their efforts.

(Hersey & Blanchard, 1973, p. 2)

For the choral conductor, this situation may be applicable to a musically skilled choir whose interpersonal relationships are superior. During the initial rehearsal of an unfamiliar composition, a passage with a particularly difficult rhythmic figure is performed incorrectly. Possible scenarios for the alternative responses a conductor might choose are as follows: Response A suggests identifying the incorrect passage and talking through the solution; Response B suggests either identifying the incorrect passage and assuming the singers can make the necessary adjustment, or assuming the singers realize their error and will correct it themselves before the next rehearsal; Response C suggests identifying the incorrect passage, isolating that passage to rehearse, correcting the error, and rehearsing the passage again (directives may continue until the passage is correct); Response D suggests the realization of rhythmic problems within the piece together with an acknowledgment that the singers can solve these problems before the next rehearsal.

Because no published standardized music test is now available to measure the leadership styles of choral conductors, and because the LEAD-Self test was found to be a useful instrument for the measurement of leadership styles of music educators in previous research (Goodstein, 1984), the LEAD-Self test was used in this study (see Appendix E). LEAD-Self, as a measure of leadership style, is applicable to choral music situations and has been deemed by the researcher to be an empirically valid instrument.

An additional survey instrument was used in this study. An investigator-constructed questionnaire was administered to choral conductors to obtain descriptive information about them as conductors and the choral environments in which they work (see Appendix G). Questions were designed to elicit conductors' self-report of their leadership style, to obtain information about the readiness levels of their choirs, to obtain other descriptive information about their choral situations, and to obtain information such as age, educational background, and years of experience to further describe the population. This questionnaire was pilot-tested on a sample of 18 choral conductors from North Carolina, Virginia, and Michigan to determine the clarity of the questions and the ease of administration. Based on the responses to the pilot test, adjustments to the questionnaire were made prior to its administration to the population that was studied.

Procedure

A survey packet containing a cover letter with an introduction, clarification of purpose, and instructions (see Appendix A); a letter of endorsement from Dr. Hugh Sanders, then-current President of ACDA (see Appendix D); a green LEAD-Self test (see Appendix E); a white investigator-constructed questionnaire (see Appendix G): and a stamped, self-addressed return envelope was mailed to each conductor.

As recommended by Rossi, Wright, and Anderson (1983), each cover letter had the individual's name and address typed on it and was signed with a blue ballpoint pen to personalize the appearance of the letter. Initial mailing envelopes, all follow-up mailings, and return envelopes were individually typed and stamped with first class postage. Each questionnaire and return envelope was coded to preserve the anonymity of respondents.

Adapting the mail survey procedure of Fowler (1984), the sequence of mailings was as follows: two weeks after the initial mailing, a reminder card was sent to each nonrespondent (see Appendix B); two weeks after the postcard was mailed, those conductors who still had not responded were sent a second cover letter (see Appendix C), another LEAD-Self test, and a copy of the questionnaire.

An 83% response rate was achieved in this study. Of the 152 subjects in the population, 126 subjects responded--44 high school conductors (80%) and 82 college conductors (84%). Three of the respondents did not return the LEAD-Self test, and one respondent did not

complete the investigator-designed questionnaire. Eliminating the four incomplete surveys, 122 responses were analyzed in the treatment of the data.

Treatment of the Data

The LEAD-Self tests were hand-scored using the Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description Matrix (Hersey, 1983) (see Appendix F). Results of the scoring were used to identify each conductor's primary leadership style, secondary leadership style or styles, and style adaptability. Using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS-X), the researcher constructed frequency tables for primary leadership style, secondary leadership style, and style adaptability. Chi-square analysis was used to compare the leadership styles of the successful high school conductors with the leadership styles of the successful college conductors.

Demographic information from the investigator-designed questionnaire was reported in tables which included frequencies and percentages to answer questions concerning self-reported leadership style. Similar tables were constructed to clarify information pertaining to the most musically advanced choirs and the least musically advanced choirs of these successful conductors. Data from both high school and college conductors were synthesized into single tables to reflect the entire population of successful conductors rather than subgroups.

Cross-tabulations were generated and reported in tables to compare the primary leadership styles of successful high school conductors

and successful college conductors with variables of educational level, number of school-related choirs conducted, years of experience as a full-time conductor, and age. Chi-square tests were performed to evaluate differences on educational level, number of choirs, years of experience, and age. To compare self-reported leadership style and LEAD tested leadership style, Pearson product-moment correlations were used.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Analysis of the data resulting from the investigation of leadership style included descriptive statistics obtained from the frequencies and cross-tabulations procedures of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS-X). In addition, chi-square procedures and Pearson product-moment correlation procedures were included in the analysis.

Survey materials were returned by 126 conductors from the population of 152 successful conductors, an 83% return. One hundred twenty-two of the 126 questionnaires were usable returns. Of these, 43 returns were from high school conductors, and 79 from college conductors. Four incomplete questionnaires were considered not usable.

Primary Research Questions

To answer research questions 1 and 2 listed in Chapter I, frequency distributions on primary leadership style and secondary leadership style were generated and are reported in tables. To answer research question 3, descriptive statistics including mean and standard deviation are reported on style adaptability scores. Chi-square analysis was used to answer research question 4. Differences in leadership styles between high school and college conductors were delineated.

Research Question 1: What are the specific leadership styles of selected successful conductors in the United States?

Table 1 shows the primary leadership styles of the choral conductors in this investigation as determined by the results from Hersey and Blanchard's LEAD-Self test. These successful choral conductors exhibited three of the four leadership styles associated with Situational Leadership Theory. The primary leadership style of 88 conductors (72.1%) was Style 2, the high task/high relationship style. The primary leadership style of 12 conductors (9.8%) was Style 3, the high relationship/low task style. The primary leadership style of eight conductors (6.6%) was Style 1, the high task/low relationship style. Fourteen (11.5%) conductors had dual primary leadership styles: eight (6.6%) scored equally on Style 2 and Style 3, and six (4.9%) scored equally on Style 1 and Style 2. No conductor in this study had a Style 4 (low relationship/low task) primary style of leadership.

Table 1

Primary Leadership Style of Selected Successful Conductors

Style	Frequency (N=122)	% of Total
Style 1 (High Task/Low Relationship)	8	6.6
Style 2 (High Task/High Relationship)	88	72.1
Style 3 (High Relationship/Low Task)	12	9.8
Style 4 (Low Relationship/Low Task)	0	0.0
Dual Style 1 and Style 2	6	4.9
Dual Style 2 and Style 3	8	6.6

Table 2 shows secondary leadership styles of the selected successful conductors. Two predominant secondary leadership styles were identified: 44 conductors (36.1%) had both Style 1 and Style 3 as supporting styles; 32 conductors (26.2%) had Style 3 only. Seven conductors (5.7%) had no secondary leadership style.

Table 2

Secondary Leadership Styles of Selected Successful Conductors

Style	Frequency (N=122)	% of Total
None	7	5.7
Style 1 only	14	11.5
Style 2 only	8	6.6
Style 3 only	32	26.2
Style 1 and Style 2	5	4.1
Style 1 and Style 3	44	36.1
Style 1 and Style 4	2	1.6
Style 2 and Style 3	4	3.3
Style 3 and Style 4	3	2.5
Style 1, Style 2, and Style 4	1	.8
Style 1, Style 3, and Style 4	2	1.6

Research Question 2: Is there a predominant leadership style among selected successful choral conductors in the United States?

Table 1 shows that the predominant leadership style among the successful conductors in this study was Style 2 (high task/high

relationship behavior), with 72.1% of the conductors exhibiting this style of leadership.

Research Question 3: How effective are selected successful choral conductors in the United States at matching a leadership style appropriate for the demands of various situations?

According to Hersey (1983), style adaptability scores are indicators of effectiveness in matching an appropriate style of leadership with the readiness level of people within particular situations. High adaptability is indicated by scores that are within the 30-36 range, moderate adaptability by scores that are within the 24-30 range, and low adaptability is indicated by any score lower than 24. The conductors in this study had adaptability scores that ranged from 13-30. The mode was 25, which is within the moderate range of adaptability as defined by Hersey and Blanchard. The median was 23 and the mean adaptability score was 22.94, both within the low adaptability range. The standard deviation was 3.296. Only one conductor had an adaptability score in the high adaptability range. The cumulative percentage listing of adaptability scores indicated that a slight majority (51.6%) of the conductors had a low ability to adapt their style of leadership according to the demands of a specific situation (see Table 3).

Research Question 4: Is there a relationship between the leadership style of selected successful choral conductors and the readiness level of the group or groups they conduct? Specifically, is there a difference between selected successful high school conductors and selected successful college conductors in leadership style?

Table 3

Adaptability Scores of Selected Successful Conductors

Score	Adaptability Range	Frequency (N=122)	% of Total	Cumulative %
13	Low	2	1.6	1.6
16	Low	3	2.5	4.1
17	Low	4	3.3	7.4
18	Low	4	3.3	10.7
19	Low	5	4.1	14.8
20	Low	7	5.7	20.5
21	Low	12	9.8	30.3
22	Low	11	9.0	39.3
23	Low	15	12.3	51.6
24	Moderate	15	12.3	63.9
25	Moderate	17	13.9	77.9
26	Moderate	13	10.7	88.5
27	Moderate	7	5.7	94.3
28	Moderate	5	4.1	98.4
29	Moderate	1	.8	99.2
30	High	1	.8	100.0

Note. Mean = 22.94; Standard Deviation = 3.296

Chi-square analysis was used to compare the leadership styles of the high school conductors with the leadership styles of the college conductors. At the .05 level, no significant relationship was found between the teaching level of the conductors and their primary leadership styles. Therefore, it is plausible that successful high school conductors and successful college conductors do not differ significantly in regard to primary leadership style (see Table 4).

Table 4

Primary Leadership Styles of Selected Successful High School Conductors and Selected Successful College Conductors

Measure	S1	S2	S3	S4	S1,2	S2,3
High School	1	31	7	0	3	1
(% of Total)	.8	25.4	5.7	0.0	2.5	.8
College	7	57	5	0	3	7
(% of Total)	5.7	46.7	4.1	0.0	2.5	5.7

Note. $\chi^2 = 7.00$; $df = 4$; $p = .136$

Demographic Information From the Investigator-Designed Questionnaire

Frequency distributions on items from the investigator-designed questionnaire were used to describe further the population of successful choral conductors and the situations in which they work. Given a choice between being primarily task-oriented and primarily relationship-oriented in a rehearsal situation, 102 conductors (83.6%) reported that they were primarily task-oriented. On combined task behavior and relationship behavior, an overwhelming percentage of conductors (91.8%) described their style of leadership as high task/high relationship behavior (Style 2) (see Table 5).

Conductors were asked if their style of leadership changed when they worked with choirs of differing abilities. A majority (56.6%) of conductors indicated that they changed their style of leadership to meet the needs of their various choirs. Written comments from the

Table 5

Self-Reported Leadership Orientation

Measure	Frequency	% of Total
Primarily Task-Oriented	102	83.6
Primarily Relationship-Oriented	19 (N = 121)[a]	15.6
High Task/Low Relationship	9	7.4
High Task/High Relationship	112	91.8
High Relationship/Low Task	1	.8
Low Relationship/Low Task	0 (N = 122)	0.0

[a]1 case missing

conductors who reported a change in leadership style suggested that, in most contexts, these conductors were predisposed to more relationship-oriented behaviors when working with less musically advanced choirs. One conductor, whose self-reported leadership style did not change among situations, strongly suggested that relationship-oriented behavior was basic, regardless of the situation.

The conductors were asked six questions to obtain descriptive information about their choirs. Conductors of more than one group reported both on their most musically advanced and on their least musically advanced choirs. Conductors of only one choir were asked to respond in the category of "most musically advanced choir." All of the conductors (100%) reported that, as a group, their most musically

advanced choir was often or always motivated primarily by musical factors such as a love of music, a desire to sing, or a desire to learn choral repertoire. For their least musically advanced choir, 82.6% of the conductors reported that their singers were often or always motivated primarily by musical factors: 17.4% of the conductors reported that their singers were seldom motivated by musical factors. More conductors (69.7%) of advanced choirs reported that their singers were seldom or never motivated by primarily nonmusical factors such as social interaction, attraction of tour sites and travel opportunities, curriculum requirement, or "easy" credit. A slight majority (51.1%) of conductors of less musically advanced choirs reported that their singers were motivated primarily by nonmusical factors, with 48.9% of the conductors having singers who were often motivated by nonmusical factors (see Table 6).

More conductors (51.7%) of musically advanced choirs had a larger percentage (41%-100%) of choir members who engaged in vocal or instrumental instruction in addition to choral instruction, with 20.5% of the conductors reporting that 81%-100% of their choir members engaged in additional vocal or instrumental instruction. Conversely, a majority (66.3%) of conductors reported that less than 20% of the choir members in their least musically advanced choirs engaged in vocal or instrumental instruction in addition to choral instruction. Almost all (96%) of the conductors required an audition for membership in their advanced choirs, whereas 50.5% required an audition for membership in their least musically advanced choirs. The largest

Table 6

Descriptive Information on Motivation of Most Musically Advanced Choir and Least Musically Advanced Choir

Descriptor	Most Musically Advanced Choir	Least Musically Advanced Choir
Motivated by Musical Goals (desire to sing, love of music, desire to learn choral repertoire)		
Always	44.3%	16.3%
Often	55.7%	66.3%
Seldom	-	17.4%
Motivated by Nonmusical Goals (social interaction, attraction of tour sites and travel opportunities, required course, "easy" credit)		
Always	.8%	-
Often	29.5%	48.9%
Seldom	61.5%	43.5%
Never	8.2%	7.6%

percentage (42.6%, 32.6%) of conductors had choirs of 46-75 members in both their most musically advanced groups and their least musically advanced groups (see Table 7).

Percentages of enrollment by class suggested that the most musically advanced choirs had a lower percentage of freshmen students than the least musically advanced choirs: 4.1% of the conductors reported that their advanced groups had 50% or more freshmen, whereas 38.2% reported that their least advanced groups had 50% or more freshmen. More conductors (41.8%) of advanced choirs reported no freshmen

Table 7

Descriptive Information on Additional Instruction, Audition, and Numerical Enrollment on Most Musically Advanced Choir and Least Musically Advanced Choir

Descriptor	Most Musically Advanced Choir	Least Musically Advanced Choir
Percentage that Engage in Private Vocal or Instrumental Instruction in Addition to Choral Instruction		
Less than 20%	30.3%	66.3%
21%-40%	18.0%	18.5%
41%-60%	14.8%	7.6%
61%-80%	16.4%	4.3%
81%-100%	20.5%	3.3%
Audition Required for Membership		
Yes	96.0%	50.5%
No	4.0%	49.5%
Enrollment		
Fewer than 15	1.6%	5.4%
16-30	22.1%	14.1%
31-45	23.8%	21.7%
46-75	42.6%	32.6%
Over 75	9.8%	26.1%

in their choirs than did conductors (21.7%) of the least advanced groups. Percentage of sophomore enrollment at 50% or more was reported by 4.1% of the conductors of advanced choirs; for least advanced choirs, 8.8% of the conductors reported an enrollment of 50% or more sophomores. Conductors of advanced choirs also reported that 50% or more of their choirs had larger percentages of juniors (8.1%), seniors (19.6%), and graduate students (6.4%) than did their least advanced choirs (3.3%, 1.1%, 0%, respectively) (see Table 8).

Table 8

Summary of Descriptive Information on Percentage of Enrollment by Class on Most Musically Advanced Choir and Least Musically Advanced Choir

Descriptor	Most Musically Advanced Choir	Least Musically Advanced Choir
Percentage of Enrollment by Class		
No Freshmen	41.8%	21.7%
50% or more Freshmen	4.1%	38.2%
100% Freshmen	0.0%	9.8%
50% or more Sophomores	4.1%	8.8%
50% or more Juniors	8.1%	3.3%
50% or more Seniors	19.6%	1.1%
50% or more Graduate Students	6.4%	0.0%
100% Graduate Students	1.6%	0.0%

Table 9 shows crosstabulations of responses by successful high school conductors and successful college conductors for educational level, number of school-related choirs conducted, years of full-time experience as a choral conductor, and age. With respect to educational level, the largest percentage (79.1%) of high school conductors had masters degrees, whereas the largest percentage (57%) of the college conductors had doctorates. For number of school-related choirs conducted, the largest percentage (42.9%) of high school conductors conducted five or more choirs. The largest percentage (36.7%) of college conductors conducted two choirs. The largest percentage (37.2%) of high school conductors had 11-15 years of experience as full-time conductors. The largest percentage (30.8%) of college conductors had over 25 years of experience as full-time conductors. The largest

percentage (44.2%) of high school conductors was between 30-39 years of age, whereas the largest percentage (44.3%) of the college conductors was between 40-49 years of age.

Table 9

Crosstabulations of Successful High School Conductors and Successful College Conductors by Educational Level, Number of Choirs Conducted, Years of Experience, and Age

Measure	High School (N=43)	Column %	College (N=79)	Column %
Educational Level[a]				
Bachelors	7	16.3	3	3.8
Masters	34	79.1	31	39.2
Doctorate	2	4.7	45	57.0
Number of School-Related Choirs Conducted[a]				
1	-	-	19	24.1
2	1	2.4	29	36.7
3	12	28.6	21	26.6
4	11	26.2	8	10.1
5 or more	18	42.9	2	2.5
Years of Experience				
1-5	1	2.3	-	-
6-10	3	7.0	4	5.1
11-15	16	37.2	17	21.8
16-20	7	16.3	19	24.4
21-25	8	18.6	14	17.9
over 25	8	18.6	24	30.8
Age[a]				
20-29	1	2.3		
30-39	19	44.2	17	21.5
40-49	15	34.9	35	44.3
50-59	8	18.6	18	22.8
60 or over	-	-	9	11.4

[a]Denotes chi-square significance at the .05 level

As a result of chi-square analysis, significant differences at the .05 level were found between successful high school conductors and successful college conductors in regard to educational level, number of choirs conducted, and age. No significant difference was found between the two groups in regard to years of experience as a full-time conductor. Therefore, it is conceivable that successful high school conductors and successful college conductors do differ significantly in regard to educational level, number of choirs conducted, and age, but do not differ significantly in regard to years of experience.

Crosstabulations of LEAD Primary Style with Variables of Educational Level, Number of Choirs, Years of Experience, and Age on the Total Population

Table 10 shows a crosstabulation of LEAD primary leadership style with educational level. Style 2 was the primary leadership style of the largest percentage (70%, 69.2%, 76.6%) of conductors at each educational level: bachelors, masters, and doctorate.

Table 11 shows a crosstabulation of LEAD primary leadership style with number of choirs conducted. Style 2 was the primary leadership style of a majority (73.7%, 73.3%, 69.7%, 63.2%, 80%) of conductors in each category of number of choirs conducted.

Table 12 shows a crosstabulation of LEAD primary leadership style with years of experience as a full-time choral conductor. Style 2 was the primary leadership style of a majority (100%, 57.1%, 72.8%,

Table 10

Crosstabulations of LEAD Primary Leadership Style with Educational Level (Total)

Primary Style	Educational Level			Row Total
	Bachelors	Masters	Doctorate	
Style 1	2	3	3	8
(% in Column)	20.0	4.6	6.4	6.6
Style 2	7	45	36	88
(% in Column)	70.0	69.2	76.6	72.1
Style 3	1	8	3	12
(% in Column)	10.0	12.3	6.4	9.8
Style 1 and Style 2		6		6
(% in Column)		9.2		4.9
Style 2 and Style 3		3	5	8
(% in Column)		4.6	10.6	6.6

$\chi^2 = 11.80$

df = 8

p = .160

Table 11

Crosstabulations of LEAD Primary Leadership Style with Number of Choirs (Total)

Primary Style	Number of Choirs 1	2	3	4	5 or more	Row Total
Style 1	1	3	2	1	1	8
(% in Column)	5.3	10.0	6.1	5.3	5.0	6.6
Style 2	14	22	23	12	16	87
(% in Column)	73.7	73.3	69.7	63.3	80.0	71.9
Style 3	3	1	4	2	2	12
(% in Column)	15.8	3.3	12.1	10.5	10.0	9.9
Style 1 and Style 2		1	3	1		5
(% in Column)		3.3	9.1	5.3		4.1
Style 2 and Style 3	1	3	1	3	1	9
(% in Column)	5.3	10.0	3.0	15.8	5.0	7.4

$\chi^2 = 2.89$

df = 16

p = .941

Table 12

Crosstabulations of LEAD Primary Leadership Style with Years of Experience (Total)

Primary Style	Years of Experience 1-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	21-25	Over 25	Row Total
Style 1		1	2	1		4	8
(% in Column)		14.3	6.1	3.8		12.5	6.6
Style 2	1	4	24	20	15	23	87
(% in Column)	100.0	57.1	72.8	77.0	68.2	71.9	71.9
Style 3		2	4		3	3	12
(% in Column)		28.6	12.1		13.6	9.4	9.9
Style 1 and Style 2				3	2	1	6
(% in Column)				11.5	9.1	3.1	5.0
Style 2 and Style 3			3	2	2	1	8
(% in Column)			9.1	7.7	9.1	3.1	6.6

$\chi^2 = 17.16$

df = 20

p = .643

77%, 68.2%, 71.9%) of conductors in each category of years of experience.

Table 13 shows a crosstabulation of LEAD primary leadership style with age. Style 2 was the primary leadership style of the largest percentage (100%, 72.2%, 72%, 80.8%, 44.4%) of conductors in each category of age.

Table 13

Crosstabulations of LEAD Primary Leadership Style with Age (Total)

	Age					
Primary Style	20-29	30-39	40-49	50-59	60 or Over	Row Total
Style 1		2	2	2	2	8
(% in Column)		5.6	4.0	7.7	22.2	6.6
Style 2	1	26	36	21	4	88
(% in Column)	100.0	72.2	72.0	80.8	44.4	72.1
Style 3		4	4	1	3	12
(% in Column)		11.1	8.0	3.9	33.3	9.8
Style 1 and Style 2		1	4	1		6
(% in Column)		2.8	8.0	3.9		4.9
Style 2 and Style 3		3	4	1		8
(% in Column)		8.3	8.0	3.9		6.6

$\chi^2 = 14.83$

df = 16

p = .537

Crosstabulations of LEAD Primary Leadership Style with Variables of Educational Level, Number of Choirs, Years of Experience, and Age on High School Conductors Only

Table 14 shows a crosstabulation of LEAD primary leadership style with educational level. Style 2 was the primary leadership style of a majority (71.4%, 73.5%) of high school conductors who have bachelors degrees and masters degrees. Of the two high school conductors who have doctorates, one (50%) had Style 2 as a primary leadership style, and one (50%) had Style 3 as a primary leadership style. Combining the educational level groups, a majority (72.1%) of all high school conductors had Style 2 as a primary leadership.

Table 15 shows a crosstabulation of LEAD primary leadership style with number of choirs conducted. A majority (100%, 66.7%, 63.6%, 77.8%) of high school conductors in each category of number of choirs conducted had Style 2 as a primary leadership style.

Table 16 shows a crosstabulation of LEAD primary leadership style with years of experience. Style 2 was the primary leadership style of a majority (100%, 75%, 85.7%, 50%, 87.5%) of high school conductors in all categories except 6-10 years of experience. The three conductors who had 6-10 years of experience were equally distributed among Styles 1, 2, and 3.

Table 17 shows a crosstabulation of LEAD primary leadership style with age. Style 2 was the primary leadership style of a majority

Table 14

Crosstabulations of LEAD Primary Leadership Style with Educational Level (High School)

Primary Style	Educational Level			Row Total
	Bachelors	Masters	Doctorate	
Style 1	1			1
(% in Column)	14.3			2.3
Style 2	5	25	1	31
(% in Column)	71.4	73.5	50.0	72.1
Style 3	1	5	1	7
(% in Column)	14.3	14.7	50.0	16.3
Style 1 and Style 2		3		3
(% in Column)		8.8		7.0
Style 2 and Style 3		1		1
(% in Column)		2.9		2.3

$\chi^2 = 7.81$

df = 8

p = .452

Table 15

Crosstabulations of LEAD Primary Leadership Style with Number of Choirs (High School)

Primary Style	Number of Choirs 1	2	3	4	5 or More	Row Total
Style 1					1	1
(% in Column)					5.6	2.4
Style 2		1	8	7	14	30
(% in Column)		100.0	66.7	63.6	77.8	71.4
Style 3			3	2	2	7
(% in Column)			25.0	18.2	11.1	16.7
Style 1 and Style 2			1	1		2
(% in Column)			8.3	9.1		4.8
Style 2 and Style 3				1	1	2
(% in Column)				9.1	5.6	4.8

$\chi^2 = 2.50$

df = 12

p = .868

Table 16

Crosstabulations of LEAD Primary Leadership Style with Years of Experience (High School)

Primary Style	Years of Experience 1-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	21-25	Over 25	Row Total
Style 1		1					1
(% in Column)		33.3					2.3
Style 2	1	1	12	6	4	7	31
(% in Column)	100.0	33.3	75.0	85.7	50.0	87.5	72.1
Style 3		1	4		1	1	7
(% in Column)		33.3	25.0		12.5	12.5	16.3
Style 1 and Style 2				1	2		3
(% in Column)				14.3	25.0		7.0
Style 2 and Style 3					1		1
(% in Column)					12.5		2.3

$\chi^2 = 28.39$

df = 20

p = .101

Table 17

Crosstabulations of LEAD Primary Leadership Style with Age (High School)

Primary Style	Age					Row Total
	20-29	30-39	40-49	50-59	60 or Over	
Style 1		1				1
(% in Column)		5.3				2.3
Style 2	1	14	9	7		31
(% in Column)	100.0	73.7	60.0	87.5		72.1
Style 3		3	3	1		7
(% in Column)		15.8	20.0	12.5		16.3
Style 1 and Style 2		1	2			3
(% in Column)		5.3	13.3			7.0
Style 2 and Style 3			1			1
(% in Column)			6.7			2.3

$\chi^2 = 5.75$

df = 12

p = .928

(100%, 73.7%, 60%, 87.5%) of high school conductors in each age grouping. No high school conductor was in the 60 or over age category.

Crosstabulations of LEAD Primary Style with Variables of Educational Level, Number of Choirs, Years of Experience, and Age on College Conductors Only

Table 18 shows a crosstabulation of LEAD primary leadership style with educational level. Style 2 was the primary leadership style of a majority (66.7%, 64.5%, 77.8%, 72.2%) of conductors at each educational level: bachelors, masters, and doctorate.

Table 18

Crosstabulations of LEAD Primary Leadership Style with Educational Level (College)

Primary Style	Educational Level			Row Total
	Bachelors	Masters	Doctorate	
Style 1	1	3	3	7
(% in Column)	33.3	9.7	6.7	8.9
Style 2	2	20	35	57
(% in Column)	66.7	64.5	77.8	72.2
Style 3		3	2	5
(% in Column)		9.7	4.4	6.3
Style 1 and Style 2		3		3
(% in Column)		9.7		3.8
Style 2 and Style 3		2	5	7
(% in Column)		6.5	11.1	8.9

$\chi^2 = 9.12$

df = 8

p = .332

Table 19 shows a crosstabulation of LEAD primary leadership style with number of choirs conducted. Style 2 was the primary leadership style of a majority (73.7%, 72.4%, 71.4%, 62.5%, 100%) of conductors in each category of years of experience.

Table 19

Crosstabulations of LEAD Primary Leadership Style with Number of Choirs (College)

Primary Style	Number of Choirs 1	2	3	4	5 or more	Row Total
Style 1	1	3	2	1		7
(% in Column)	5.3	10.3	9.5	12.5		8.8
Style 2	14	21	15	5	2	57
(% in Column)	73.7	72.4	71.4	62.5	100.0	72.2
Style 3	3	1	1			5
(% in Column)	15.8	3.4	4.8			6.3
Style 1 and Style 2		1	2			3
(% in Column)		3.4	9.5			3.8
Style 2 and Style 3	1	3	1	2		7
(% in Column)	5.3	10.3	4.8	25.0		8.9

$\chi^2 = 4.28$

df = 16

p = .831

Table 20 shows a crosstabulation of LEAD primary leadership style with years of experience. Style 2 was the primary leadership style of a majority (75%, 70.6%, 73.7%, 78.6%, 66.7%) of conductors in each category of years of experience.

Table 20

Crosstabulations of LEAD Primary Leadership Style with Years of Experience (College)

	Years of Experience						
Primary Style	1-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	21-25	Over 25	Row Total
Style 1			2	1		4	7
(% in Column)			11.8	5.3		16.7	9.0
Style 2		3	12	14	11	16	56
(% in Column)		75.0	70.6	73.7	78.6	66.7	71.8
Style 3		1			2	2	5
(% in Column)		25.0			14.3	8.3	6.4
Style 1 and Style 2				2		1	3
(% in Column)				10.5		4.2	3.8
Style 2 and Style 3			3	2	1	1	7
(% in Column)			17.6	10.5	7.1	4.2	9.0

χ^2 = 15.85

df = 16

p = .463

N = 77 (1 case missing)

Table 21 shows a crosstabulation of LEAD primary leadership style with age. Style 2 was the primary leadership style of the largest percentage (70.6%, 77.1%, 77.8%, 44.4%) of conductors in each category of age. No conductor was in the 20-29 years of age category.

Table 21

Crosstabulations of LEAD Primary Leadership Style with Age (College)

	Age					
Primary Style	20-29	30-39	40-49	50-59	60 or Over	Row Total
Style 1		1	2	2	2	7
(% in Column)		5.9	5.7	11.1	22.2	8.9
Style 2		12	27	14	4	57
(% in Column)		70.6	77.1	77.8	44.4	72.2
Style 3		1	1		3	5
(% in Column)		5.9	2.9		33.3	6.3
Style 1 and Style 2			2	1		3
(% in Column)			5.7	5.6		3.8
Style 2 and Style 3		3	3	1		7
(% in Column)		17.6	8.6	5.6		8.9

$\chi^2 = 19.80$

df = 12

p = .071

Statistical Analysis Incorporating Demographic Information

Chi-square analysis was used to compare LEAD primary leadership style with variables of educational level, number of choirs conducted, years of experience as a full-time choral conductor, and age in three ways: total population, high school conductors only, and college conductors only. For all three groups, no statistically significant differences were found between primary leadership style and any of the four variables. Therefore, it is plausible that none of the obvious background and circumstance characteristics of these successful conductors has any association with primary style of leadership.

Additionally, self-reported leadership style was correlated with primary leadership style as measured by the LEAD-Self test. Pearson product-moment correlations were tabulated in three forms: high school only (r = -.13, p = .212), college only (r = -.17, p = .086), and combined high school and college (r = -.14, p = .068). At a significance level of .05, in all three groupings, no pattern existed between self-reported leadership style and LEAD primary leadership style. Similarly, there was no statistically significant relationship between self-task and LEAD task (r = -.03, p = .363), or self-relationship and LEAD relationship (r = -.07, p = .222) at the .05 level. Therefore, it is plausible that no significant relationship exists between conductors' self-reported leadership styles and their LEAD-Self measured leadership styles.

Summary

Four leadership styles are delineated in Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory. Style 1 is characterized by high task/low relationship behaviors, Style 2 by high task/high relationship behaviors, Style 3 by high relationship/low task behaviors, and Style 4 by low relationship/low task behaviors.

Results of LEAD-Self

1. Primary leadership styles exhibited by the successful conductors were Style 1, Style 2, Style 3, dual Styles 1 and 2, and dual Styles 2 and 3. No conductors had Style 4 as a primary leadership style.
2. Secondary leadership styles exhibited by the successful conductors included all of the four styles, but more conductors had only Style 3 or both Styles 1 and 3 as supporting styles.
3. Style 2 was the predominant leadership style among all the conductors.
4. Both the mean and median scores on adaptability indicated that the successful conductors had a low range of effectiveness when matching leadership style to various group situations. The mode, however, was within the moderate adaptability range.
5. Chi-square analysis showed no statistically significant difference between successful college conductors and

successful high school conductors in leadership style ($\chi^2 = 7.00$, $p = .136$).

Results from the Demographic Questionnaire

1. Choosing between only task-oriented leadership style and relationship-oriented leadership style, most conductors (83.6%) reported a primarily task-oriented approach to leadership in rehearsal settings.
2. On combined task behavior and relationship behavior. most conductors (91.8%) reported a high task/high relationship style of leadership.
3. The majority (56.6%) of conductors indicated that their style of leadership changed when they worked with various choirs of differing abilities.
4. The most musically advanced choirs of these successful conductors had the following characteristics.
   a. They were more motivated by musical factors than non-musical factors.
   b. They had larger percentages of choir members who engaged in vocal or instrumental instruction in addition to choral instruction.
   c. Auditions were required for membership by most conductors (96%).
   d. Their enrollments consisted of more upperclassmen and graduate students.
   e. The predominant enrollment was 46-75 members.

5. The least musically advanced choirs of these successful conductors had the following characteristics.
   a. Although they were motivated by musical factors, a large percentage (48.9%) were also motivated by non-musical factors.
   b. They had smaller percentages of choir members who engaged in vocal or instrumental instruction in addition to choral instruction.
   c. Auditions were required for membership by only half (50.5%) of the conductors.
   d. Their enrollments primarily consisted of freshmen and sophomores.
   e. The predominant enrollment was 46-75 members.
6. Chi-square analysis on variables of educational level (χ^2 = 33.36, p = .000), number of choirs (χ^2 = 54.66, p = .000), and age (χ^2 = 12.42, p = .015) between the successful high school and college conductors showed significant differences at the .05 level.
7. Chi-square analysis on years of experience between the successful high school and college conductors showed no significant difference at the .05 level (χ^2 = 6.79, p = .237).
8. Crosstabulations of LEAD primary style with variables of educational level, number of choirs, years of experience, and age showed Style 2 as the primary leadership style of

the largest percentage of all conductors, of high school conductors only, and of college conductors only on each variable.

9. As a result of chi-square analysis, no statistically significant differences were found between primary leadership style and any of the four variables of educational level, number of choirs, years of experience, and age on the total population, on high school conductors only, or on college conductors only.

10. Pearson product-moment correlations of relationship between self-reported leadership style and tested LEAD primary leadership style showed no significant relationship. Likewise, no statistically significant relationship existed between conductors' self-reported task orientation and their LEAD task orientation, or between their self-reported relationship orientation and their LEAD orientation.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Summary

The focus of this study was on leadership styles of selected successful choral conductors in the United States. A primary purpose of the study was to determine if there was a predominant style of leadership among choral conductors who were identified as successful. Of secondary interest was demographic information used to describe further the population of successful conductors and the situations in which they worked at the time they completed the survey material.

Qualities of effective leaders and styles of leadership have been the subjects of extensive research in business and management since the early 1900s. A particularly intriguing contemporary leadership theory is the Situational Leadership Theory of Hersey and Blanchard (1982). Hersey and Blanchard contend that there is no universal best style of leadership; instead, leadership style is dependent on the situation in which leadership occurs and the needs of the followers within those situations. Hersey and Blanchard identified four styles of leadership: high task/low relationship behaviors, high task/high relationship behaviors, high relationship/low task behaviors, and low relationship/low task behaviors, and hypothesized that the most effective style of leadership for a particular situation is dependent upon the readiness level of the followers.

To measure leadership style, Hersey and Blanchard developed the Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description (LEAD) instrumentation. LEAD-Self is used to measure a leader's self-perceptions of primary and secondary leadership styles. Also determined is an adaptability score which is used to assess the extent of effectiveness a leader exhibits in matching an appropriate leadership style to the demands of a specific situation.

Although Situational Leadership Theory resulted from research conducted primarily in the business community, educational researchers (Beck, 1978; Clark, 1981; Hersey, Angelini, & Carakushansky, 1982; Pascarella, 1985) have found the theory particularly useful in educational situations. Furthermore, Goodstein (1984) found the theory to be applicable in the area of music education. According to Goodstein's results, Style 2 (high task/high relationship) was the predominant leadership style both of successful band directors and their randomly selected counterparts.

Leadership as an aspect of choral conducting has been alluded to in various books and articles. Heffernan (1982), Moe (1972), Pfautsch (1973), and Swan (1987) imply that personal qualities of leadership are crucial to success in choral conducting. In her conducting text, Simons (1983) incorporated principles of leadership, emphasizing communication skills as well as technical skills. Noticeably absent from the research literature, however, are studies pertaining to leadership styles of choral conductors. Therefore, this study was designed to describe the leadership styles of selected successful choral conductors in the United States.

Subjects in this study included those high school and college choral conductors who had choirs perform at national or division conferences of the American Choral Directors Association (ACDA) between 1984 and 1987. Names of the conductors were obtained from the 1984, 1985, 1986, and 1987 special convention issues of The Choral Journal. Addresses were obtained from the ACDA Executive Office. Each of the 152 conductors in the population of successful conductors was sent a survey packet containing a cover letter of purpose, a letter of endorsement from then ACDA President Hugh Sanders, a LEAD-Self test, an investigator-designed questionnaire, and a stamped, self-addressed return envelope. Two weeks after the initial mailing, a follow-up postcard was sent to nonresponders. Two weeks later, a second complete packet of materials was sent to those who still had not responded. One hundred twenty-two were usable returns. The LEAD-Self tests were hand scored using the LEAD Matrix and the data were analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences.

Discussion

The successful choral conductors in this study had a predominant leadership style characterized by both high task and high relationship behaviors (Style 2). The predominant secondary styles were Style 3 only and both Style 1 and Style 3. These findings corroborate Goodstein's (1984) conclusions on leadership styles of successful band directors.

The Style 2 primary leadership style seems to be a likely leadership approach for conductors who are concerned about the group interaction within their choirs as well as the quality of musical performance. Choral conductors may need to be conscious of the delicate balance between consideration of the voice as a musical instrument and the voice as a personal attribute of the singers.

Those conductors who have both Style 1 (high task/low relationship) and Style 3 (high relationship/low task) as supporting styles may emphasize either task or relationship behavior as needed in a particular situation. Style 1 behaviors may result from the pressures of preparing a musical performance. As an example, written comments from some of the successful conductors suggested that they are more inclined to emphasize task-oriented behaviors in festival situations when they are working under severe time constraints. Some conductors suggested that they could devote more time to relationship-oriented behaviors in their everyday situations where there was more time to build group spirit, group morale, and a sense of camaraderie. It may be that conductors whose supporting style is Style 3 understand the importance of group dynamics and motivation and, therefore, find it effective to balance the musical concerns with greater consideration for the individuals who produce the musical sounds.

Contrary to Goodstein's findings, the successful choral conductors in this study scored in the low style adaptability range. While Goodstein's subjects scored clearly in the moderately effective range, the subjects in this study had mean scores just below the moderate

range. The implication is that these choral conductors showed a low ability to match an appropriate leadership style to situational changes. It is possible that the choral profession is so innately task-oriented, and yet, at the same time, so enhanced by relationship-oriented behaviors, that successful choral conductors find it most effective to combine both behaviors regardless of the situation.

Chi-square analysis showed no significant difference between successful high school conductors and successful college conductors in leadership style. A plausible interpretation of this finding would suggest that successful choral conductors share universal leadership qualities regardless of the level at which they teach. Similarly, no significant differences were found between primary leadership style and variable of educational degree held, number of choirs conducted, years of experience, and age. Again, perhaps it is possible that successful leaders share qualities unrelated to factors of background and circumstance.

Analysis of demographic variables of education, number of choirs conducted, and age showed significant differences between successful high school conductors and successful college conductors. No significant difference was found on the variable years of experience. More of the college conductors in this study had doctoral degrees, whereas more of the high school conductors had masters degrees. This difference is not unexpected since many colleges require a doctorate as a condition of employment and high schools do not. The college conductors tended to conduct fewer choirs than the high school conductors.

This circumstance may be due to the fact that college conductors often have other teaching and administrative responsibilities in addition to their choral conducting, unlike high school conductors who typically teach in situations where they are responsible primarily for all of the choral performing organizations. The largest percentage of the college conductors was in the 40-49 years of age category, whereas the largest percentage of the high school conductors was in the 30-39 years of age category. The requirements for employment in college positions often include an advanced degree and prior teaching and/or professional experience. Because of the additional years required to qualify for many college teaching positions, college conductors may be older than high school conductors who can begin their teaching immediately upon completion of their baccalaureate degrees. For this population, there was no measurable difference between high school and college conductors on years of teaching experience. Some college conductors may have had their teaching careers delayed or interrupted by other pursuits such as professional musical careers or advanced musical study. If this is so, high school and college conductors would likely accumulate a similar number of years of teaching experience.

Based on information from the questionnaire, the most musically advanced choirs of these successful conductors tended to be more motivated by musical factors than nonmusical factors, to have more members who engaged in vocal or instrumental instruction in addition to choral instruction, to have more membership as a result of audition, to have choirs with 46-75 members, and to have enrollments with more

upperclassmen and graduate students. None of these characteristics appears to be an unusual phenomenon for a musically advanced choir that tends to be more selective in membership and to have better, more experienced singers.

Conductors reported a large percentage of choir members in their least musically advanced choirs was also motivated by musical factors, but the percentage was not as large as that of the advanced groups. A large percentage of students in less advanced choirs was also motivated by nonmusical factors. Fewer students engaged in vocal or instrumental instruction in addition to choral instruction. Slightly more than half (50.5%) were required to audition for membership. It is unclear, however, whether the audition was required for membership or merely for vocal placement within the choir. The majority of the least advanced choirs also had enrollments of 46-75 members, and they had more freshmen and sophomores than upperclassmen. Again, these less advanced choirs are often preparatory groups and fall within a musical hierarchy in which students progress to more advanced choirs as they gain experience and training.

Implications

The results of this study showed that the majority of successful conductors who participated in this survey shared a common style of leadership, high task/high relationship behavior. Presumably, both musical/conducting skills and interpersonal skills are high. Traditionally, college choral conducting courses emphasize the acquisition

of technical/musical skills rather than interpersonal skills. It may be of benefit to broaden the choral conducting curriculum to include concepts of leadership theory and their specific applications to the choral music profession. First, conductors should understand that there is no single best style of leadership for all situations. Second, conductors should understand the various styles of leadership that are available. Third, conductors should know how to apply effectively the variety of styles that might be used. Fourth, conductors should develop skills in assessing leadership situations in order to know the most effective leadership style to use. The most effective conductors may be those who possess outstanding leadership skills as well as outstanding musical skills.

Recommendations

1. The present study might be expanded to include both the LEAD-Self test and the LEAD-Other test (a companion test to be completed by followers) to determine the extent of the match between conductors' self-perceptions of their leadership style and their followers' perceptions of their conductors' style.
2. A similar study should be conducted comparing a sample of successful choral conductors with a sample of randomly selected choral conductors to determine if there are leadership qualities exclusively characteristic of successful choral conductors.

3. A similar study of choral conductors of professional choirs may yield insights into the leadership characteristics of conductors recognized as exceptional in their profession.

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APPENDIX A

FACSIMILE OF INITIAL COVER LETTER

Initial Mailing

Dear

Because of your excellence as a choral conductor, you have been selected to participate in a study that will examine the leadership styles of successful choral conductors in the United States. Your success is indicated by your choir's performance at an American Choral Directors Association convention within the last four years.

I am a doctoral student at The University of North Carolina at Greensboro. In my dissertation, I will describe the leadership styles used by successful choral conductors in the United States. Specifically, I will attempt to determine if there is a common style of leadership that is used by successful conductors. Your expertise may provide invaluable information for other choral conductors who are striving for success as choral leaders. Additionally, your perceptions may contribute to the future of choral music education.

Enclosed you will find a green Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description Self-Test (LEAD-Self), a white questionnaire, a letter of endorsement from ACDA immediate Past President Hugh Sanders, and an addressed, stamped envelope. The LEAD-Self is a 10-minute self-explanatory questionnaire in which you are placed in several hypothetical group situations and given four alternative responses from which to choose. You may find it helpful to substitute the word "students" where the word "subordinates" is found. The white questionnaire is an investigator-designed survey intended to provide descriptive information about you and your choral environment. It should take 5-10 minutes to complete. You are asked to check appropriate responses.

You may be assured of strict confidentiality in all phases of this study. The code number found at the top of each form is for compilation purposes only and will not be used to identify specific conductors or schools. Your completion of both the LEAD-Self and the questionnaire is crucial to my study.

If you have any questions or comments, please feel free to include them with your survey. Thank you for your contributions to the choral profession and for your invaluable assistance with this study. Without your participation, this study would not be possible.

Your prompt reply is greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Gail Allen
Associate Professor of Music

APPENDIX B

FACSIMILE OF FOLLOW-UP POSTCARD

Postcard

Dear

Two weeks have passed since you were mailed a survey packet containing a green LEAD-Self test, a white questionnaire, and an addressed, stamped envelope. Please take a moment to complete and return these forms. I need your participation to complete my dissertation on leadership styles of successful choral conductors. If your completed questionnaires are in the mail, thank you. If not, thank you for sending them this week.

Sincerely,

Gail Allen
Associate Professor of Music

APPENDIX C

FACSIMILE OF LETTER TO NONRESPONDERS

Follow-Up Letter

Dear

It has been four weeks since you received a letter from me in which I requested information required to complete my dissertation. Your response is crucial to my study because you are a successful choral conductor in the United States.

For your convenience, I have enclosed another set of survey materials. You will find a green LEAD-Self test, a white questionnaire, and another addressed, stamped envelope.

LEAD-Self requires only 10 minutes to complete. Check one of the four alternative responses to each of the hypothetical group situations which are presented. You may find it helpful to substitute the word "students" in place of the word "subordinates."

The white questionnaire will require only 10-15 minutes to complete. This survey is designed to provide descriptive information about you and your choral environment.

You may be assured of the strict confidentiality of your responses. The code numbers you see are for compilation purposes only.

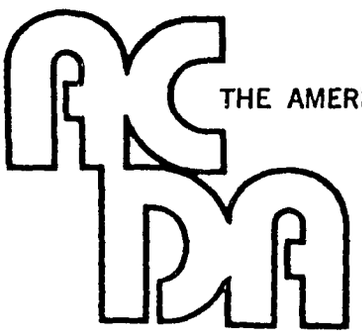
Because you are a successful choral conductor, the information you provide can be most beneficial to the choral profession and the future of choral music education. I appreciate your willingness to assist me in the completion of my dissertation. Your prompt reply is greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Gail Allen
Associate Professor of Music

APPENDIX D

FACSIMILE OF ENDORSEMENT LETTER FROM DR. HUGH SANDERS, PAST PRESIDENT OF THE AMERICAN CHORAL DIRECTORS ASSOCIATION



THE AMERICAN CHORAL DIRECTORS ASSOCIATION

To Whom It May Concern:

This letter is written on behalf of choral music research to be conducted by Gail Allen. Gail is Associate Professor at Averett College in Danville, Virginia.

As a member of ACDA and subscriber to the Choral Journal she found interest in comments that have been made in the "President's Comments" concerning the effective leadership skills that a successful choral director must possess.

If in fact you would take time to complete the material that has been included in a questionaire, I am sure that the information would be most helpful in arriving at definitive conclusions.

Choral music and American Choral Directors Association will be well served through your participation in this project.

Sincerely,

Hugh Sanders

Dr. Hugh Sanders
President
American Choral Directors Association

HS/rew

APPENDIX E

LEADER EFFECTIVENESS AND ADAPTABILITY DESCRIPTION SELF-TEST

APPENDIX F

LEADER EFFECTIVENESS AND ADAPTABILITY DESCRIPTION MATRIX

APPENDIX G

FACSIMILE OF INVESTIGATOR-DESIGNED QUESTIONNAIRE

Investigator-Designed Questionnaire

Questions 1-3 refer to your style of leadership.

Task-oriented behavior is defined as maximum efficiency in the use of rehearsal time through effective sequencing of teaching strategies to accomplish musical goals.

Relationship-oriented behavior is defined as maximum development of group morale and individual self-esteem through enjoyment of the music.

Please place a check mark by the appropriate response.

1. As a choral conductor in a rehearsal setting, do you consider yourself to be primarily task-oriented (having a high regard for goal accomplishment) or primarily relationship-oriented (having a high regard for interpersonal relationships)?

   _____ PRIMARILY TASK-ORIENTED ____ PRIMARILY RELATIONSHIP-ORIENTED

2. Which combination of behaviors most accurately describes your style of leadership? (check one)

   _____ A. HIGH TASK/LOW RELATIONSHIP BEHAVIOR

   _____ B. HIGH TASK/HIGH RELATIONSHIP BEHAVIOR

   _____ C. HIGH RELATIONSHIP/LOW TASK BEHAVIOR

   _____ D. LOW RELATIONSHIP/LOW TASK BEHAVIOR

3. Does your style of leadership change when you work with choirs of differing abilities?

   _____ YES _____ NO

   If yes, please give an example which would describe how you change your style of leadership to meet the needs of the choirs you are conducting.

   _____

   _____

Questions 4-15 refer to your choral group or groups.

If you conduct ONLY ONE CHOIR in your high school or college position, please answer questions 4-9 only.

If you conduct MORE THAN ONE CHOIR in your high school or college, please answer questions 4-9 as they apply to your most musically advanced choir.

Place a check mark by the appropriate response.

4. As a group, is this choir motivated primarily by musical goals (love of music, desire to sing, desire to learn choral repertoire)?

   _____ ALWAYS _____ OFTEN _____ SELDOM _____ NEVER

5. As a group, is this choir motivated primarily by nonmusical goals (social interaction, attraction of tour sites and travel opportunities, required course, "easy" credit)?

   _____ ALWAYS _____ OFTEN _____ SELDOM _____ NEVER

6. What percentage of your choir members engage in private vocal or instrumental instruction in addition to choral instruction?

   __FEWER THAN 20% __21%-40% __41%-60% __ 61%-80% __ 81%-100%

7. Is an audition required for membership in this choir?

   _____YES _____ NO

8. What is the enrollment in this choir?

   __ FEWER THAN 15 __ 16-30 __ 31-45 __ 46-75 __ OVER 75

9. Please estimate the percentage of enrollment by class in this choir. (Write in approximate percentages please, e.g., 10%, 15%, 36%)

   _____ FRESHMEN _____ SOPHOMORE _____ JUNIOR _____ SENIOR

   _____ GRADUATE STUDENTS _____ OTHER

IF YOU CONDUCT ONLY ONE CHOIR IN YOUR HIGH SCHOOL OR COLLEGE, PLEASE PROCEED TO QUESTIONS 16-20.

IF YOU CONDUCT MORE THAN ONE CHOIR, PLEASE PROCEED TO QUESTIONS 10-20.

If you conduct MORE THAN ONE CHOIR in your high school or college, please answer questions 10-15 as they apply to your least musically advanced choir.

Place a check mark by the appropriate response.

10. As a group, is this choir motivated primarily by musical goals (love of music, desire to sing, desire to learn choral repertoire)?

_____ ALWAYS _____ OFTEN _____ SELDOM _____ NEVER

11. As a group, is this choir motivated primarily by nonmusical goals (social interaction, attraction of tour sites and travel opportunities, required course, "easy" credit)?

_____ ALWAYS _____ OFTEN _____ SELDOM _____ NEVER

12. What percentage of your choir members engage in private vocal or instrumental instruction in addition to choral instruction?

__ FEWER THAN 20% __ 21%-40% __ 41%-60% __ 61%-80% __ 81%-100%

13. Is an audition required for membership in this choir?

_____ YES _____ NO

14. What is the enrollment in this choir?

__ FEWER THAN 15 __ 16-30 __ 31-45 __ 46-75 __ OVER 75

15. Please estimate the percentage of enrollment by class in this choir. (Write in approximate percentages please, e.g., 10%, 15%, 36%)

_____ FRESHMEN _____ SOPHOMORE _____ JUNIOR _____ SENIOR

_____ GRADUATE STUDENTS _____ OTHER

PLEASE PROCEED TO QUESTIONS 16-20.

Please answer questions 16-20 as they best describe you.

Place a check mark by the appropriate response.

16. What is your present level of instruction?

_____ HIGH SCHOOL _____ COLLEGE OR UNIVERSITY

17. What is your highest attained educational level?

_____ BACHELORS _____ MASTERS _____ DOCTORATE

18. How many school-related choral organizations (not church or community) do you presently conduct?

___ 1 ___ 2 ___ 3 ___ 4 ___ 5 OR MORE

19. How many years of experience do you have as a full-time choral conductor?

___ 1-5 ___ 6-10 ___ 11-15 ___ 16-20 ___ OVER 25

20. What is your age?

___ 20-29 ___ 30-39 ___ 40-49 ___ 50-59 ___ 60 OR OVER

****

Would you like to receive a copy of the results of this study?

_____ YES

_____ NO

THANK YOU FOR COMPLETING THIS QUESTIONNAIRE.