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Leadership styles, range, and adaptability of principals in North Carolina's exemplary elementary schools

Hall, James Terry, Ed.D.

The University of North Carolina at Greensboro, 1988

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LEADERSHIP STYLES, RANGE, AND ADAPTABILITY OF PRINCIPALS IN NORTH CAROLINA'S EXEMPLARY ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

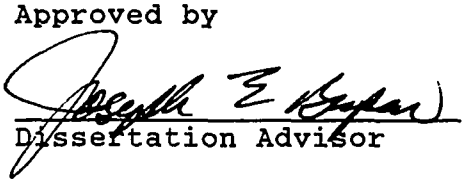
by

JAMES TERRY HALL

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

Greensboro
1988

Approved by



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October 13, 1988
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HALL, JAMES TERRY, Ed.D. Leadership Styles, Range, and Adaptability of Principals in North Carolina's Exemplary Elementary Schools. (1988) Directed by Dr. H. C. Hudgins 207 pp.

The purpose of this research was to ascertain the basic leadership style, style range and style adaptability of principals administering exemplary elementary schools in North Carolina during the 1986-1987 school year.

The effect of four independent variables--the gender, the age, the race, and the number of years of teaching experience of the teacher--on the style perceived were also examined.

Data were collected from 114 teachers and four principals employed in four North Carolina elementary schools selected as exemplary in 1986 by the United States Department of Education's Elementary School Recognition Program. The instruments used to collect teachers' and principals' perceptions were the LEAD Self/Other instruments developed by Paul Hersey and Kenneth Blanchard.

Data revealed that the basic leadership behavior of exemplary principals was Style 2, the Coaching style. Their style range was shown to consist of the Style 1-2-3 range of Directing, Coaching, and Supporting leadership styles. Style adaptability ranged from +5 to +18 on the effectiveness scale.

There were no significant differences among the perceived styles when responses were examined according to the independent variables.

Both teachers and principals of these four exemplary elementary schools perceived that the Coaching style (Style 2) of leadership behavior was prevalent in these schools. The study found that principals who use this style attempt to persuade their teachers to accept psychologically and to perform operationally the behaviors described by the principal.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The writer wishes to extend his sincere appreciation to the following individuals who contributed so much to the completion of this dissertation:

To H. C. Hudgins, Jr., the writer's advisor and friend who will always be remembered for his support, understanding, and encouragement.

To all those principals and teachers who participated in this study, to Jim Davis for his assistance with the computer procedures, and to Vickie and Mack Gray for their assistance with typing.

Last, to the writer's parents Frank and Elizabeth Hall for their support over the years, to his wife Patricia whose help, understanding, and love contributed so much to the completion of the dissertation, and to his son Ben for the many responsibilities he accepted during this period of investigation and writing.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Every human being at one time or another raises such questions as "Who am I?", "How do I fit in with the rest of the world?", and "How am I seen by others?"

These questions arise from one's sense of self-respect, self-worth, or self-esteem. Self-respect develops as one sees himself reflected in the opinions of others. This reflection from the eyes of others is like looking into a mirror and seeing oneself, perhaps for the very first time, as one appears to the world. This realization of being seen as one is seen can often be a frightening experience.

Cooley (1902) suggested that a reflected self arises when individuals appropriate a self-feeling on the basis of how they think they appear in the eyes of other individuals. Cooley (1902) stated: "Each to each a looking glass reflects the other that doth pass" (p. 184). The perception of one's associates is very important to the perception of oneself.

This perceptual phenomenon takes on an even greater importance when viewed from the superordinate-subordinate relationship in an organizational setting.

Much of the literature on organizational behavior deals with the concept of leadership. One cannot do justice to the study of an organization without stressing leadership. A major portion of leadership literature deals with studies done in industrial, military, governmental, or educational settings. One constant that can be found in leadership study is that it is a dynamic concept that is forever undergoing change.

Fiedler (1960) has found that, in order to be effective as a leader, one should exercise different leadership behaviors in different situations. No one style of leadership will be appropriate in every situation. Fiedler (1960) suggested matching the leader to the situation to increase the probability of leadership effectiveness. Although Fiedler's theory may be impractical in a world that is continually bombarded by dynamic situations, it does suggest that some behaviors are more effective than others in diverse situations.

In order to be effective, a leader should be perceptive of the situation and flexible as to the leadership style called for in that situation. In order for this to be possible, the leader should develop styles which will enable him to match his leadership to the situation. Effective leaders tend to change their leadership style to fit the situation (Fiedler, 1965; Korten, 1962). Effective leaders

realize that there is no one behavior for all tasks and change their behavior to be congruent with the situation. Whereas an effective leader will attempt to mold his leadership styles to the situation, in most cases the leader will develop a dominant style that will be utilized more than others. Fiedler (1979) developed an instrument through which the leader's dominant leadership style can be matched to the situation.

A recent study conducted at the University of Alabama found that there was an agreement on the perception of dominant leadership style between secondary school principals and their teachers, superintendent, and peer principals. All groups with the exception of the superintendents perceived the principals as having a dominant style of High Task/High Relationship, whereas the superintendents perceived the principals as having a High Task/Low Relationship based on The Leadership Effectiveness and Adaptability Description (LEAD/Self) (Hall, 1986).

Leadership styles and behavior have been studied by a number of researchers during the past three decades, 1957-1987. Researchers like Likert (1961), Korten (1962), Fleishman and Harris (1962), Vroom (1964), Blake and Mouton (1964), Fiedler (1965), and White and Lippitt (1968) have continued to measure a leader's style as though there was one "magical" style somewhere just over the horizon waiting

to be discovered. This magical style was based on the premise that the leader's behavior would remain static over time and that the follower's needs would not change with the situation.

One widely used instrument in leadership research is based on the above premise. The Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire, formulated by Hamphill and Coons (1957) and modified by Halpin and Winer (1957) yields scores on two factors (consideration and initiating structure) which account for 83 percent of the total factor variance (Halpin & Winer, 1957). Stogdill (1963) revised the questionnaire and found 12 factors of importance in leader behavior. This measure, the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaires (Halpin & Winer, 1957; Stogdill, 1963), suggests that a leader's style can be found by averaging the respondents' (followers) scores across the measure of a leader's style of behavior. Based on more recent literature (Roesner, 1985) which suggests that a leader may well behave differently in different situations, use of the factor means may be an inappropriate method of analysis. Fleishman (Fleishman & Hunt, 1973) recommend that a better method of analyzing a leader's behavior is to use a measure of the variability of the respondent's scores on each factor. This method of analysis would take into account the possibility that a leader may exhibit, or be perceived to exhibit, different

behaviors with different individuals in the work situation.

Therefore, knowing the flexibility required of an effective principal, one is led to the realization that today's educational leader should be an adaptive leader (Hersey & Blanchard, 1970). As Knezevich (1975) has observed, "[Leadership] demands understanding of fellow workers and their inter-relationships to accomplish the objectives of the organization" (81).

It is helpful for effective principals to perceive the manner in which their associates view their leadership style. This is especially true concerning the perception of those subordinates with whom a principal deals directly on a daily basis, the teachers in the school. Effective principals cannot afford to be ignorant of the perception of teachers as to their dominant leadership style without an apparent reduced attainment of goals and objectives. This knowledge of the teachers' perception of the principal's leadership style would be a valuable tool. The principal could use this knowledge in dealing with individuals and groups within the school in order to attain personal, organizational, and job-related goals.

This study was developed to ascertain the leadership style, style range, and style adaptability of four North Carolina elementary school principals who work in schools that have been recognized for excellence. These schools

were selected in 1986 by the United States Department of Education as examples of effective elementary schools.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to ascertain the basic leadership style, style range, and style adaptability of principals in North Carolina's exemplary elementary schools. It is the opinion of this writer, based on experience, that an elementary principal in North Carolina's public schools is called upon to make more decisions during the first hour of the day than many people are required to make during the entire day. Realizing these decisions involve many different issues, the principal may have to rely on a wide range of leadership styles, and be able to adapt his style to the situation.

Significance of the Study

An effective principal is concerned with accomplishing goals with and through people. In their theory of situational leadership, Hersey and Blanchard (1982) proposed that there is no one style with which this can be accomplished. They presented task behavior and relationship behavior as two dimensions of leadership that are essential

to the concept of leadership style, but claimed that these behaviors continually change with the situation.

Other researchers, using different terminology, have recognized similar behaviors in their studies of leadership. Stogdill (1974) suggested that any form of verbalization of leader ship will probably align itself within one of the following general categories: (a) a product of power; (b) an exercise of influence; (c) a product of power and influence different in each situation. An earlier study (Schenk, 1928) stated that a more humane and socially acceptable leadership form is leadership as an example of persuasion. Persuasion leadership, Schenk pointed out, uses inspiration instead of coercion.

Sergiovanni (1975) noted that collaborating principals are team players and follow the earlier human relations models. He contended that the leadership role is to build quality of life in the school as an organization. Another investigator (Barger, 1979) used the terms "human relations skills" and "shared decision-making skills" to describe the effective principal, whereas Hall (1983) stated that school program success is directly related to principals who take an active role in helping teachers. According to Blake and Mouton (1964), System IV managers know how to manipulate the delicate balance between task orientation and concern for people. Blake and Mouton see System IV as the ultimate in

effective leadership styles.

Chapter II of this study deals at greater length with a review of the literature. However, it is essential at this point to refer to the following studies in order to establish the significance of the present study.

A manager's primary responsibility is to attain effective production and high morale through the participation and involvement of people in a team approach (Blake & Mouton, 1964). Barnard (1938) asserted that an effective organization depends on two behavioral conditions: efficiency and effectiveness. Getzels and Guba (1957) identified three types of leader behavior believed useful in the achievement of goals within the organization: (a) nomothetic behavior, (b) idiographic behavior, and (c) transactional behavior. One of the most used works is that of Halpin and Winer (1957) with their model of two-dimensional leader behavior consisting of (a) consideration and (b) initiating structure. Halpin (1959) further maintained that leaders vary considerably in their leadership style. Some leaders emphasize group goal achievement to the extent of causing damage or harm to group maintenance, whereas other leaders emphasize group maintenance to the point of destroying group goal achievement. He stated that in order for a leader to be effective, he should contribute to the objectives of both

goal achievement and goal maintenance.

Fiedler (1965) contended that if a person's leadership style is not appropriate for the situation then he must decide between the two following alternatives: (a) select or train a person so that the person's leadership style is compatible for the task situation or (b) change the task situation to complement the person's leadership style.

Hersey and Blanchard (1982) suggested that leadership styles vary considerably from leader to leader. Leadership behavior, according to them involves (a) task behavior, (b) relationship behavior, (c) both task and relationship behavior, and (d) individuals with various combinations of task and relationship behavior.

In their situational leadership model, Hersey and Blanchard stated that each of four leadership styles--authoritative, consultative, facilitative, and delegative--is a combination of task and relationship behavior. They suggested that the leadership style used with others depends on the readiness level of those the leader is attempting to influence (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982).

Hersey and Blanchard further stated that empirical studies propose that leadership is an active process, differing from situation to situation with changes occurring in leaders, followers, and situations. According to the, research literature appears to support the situational

approach to the study of leadership (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982).

Hersey and Blanchard (1977) also asserted that the closer to reality a leader's perceptions are to the perceptions of others, the higher the probability that the leader will be able to cope effectively with that environment. They further stated that LEAD-Other scores provide potent data that can have an important effect on the leader and the individual or group one is attempting to lead.

This study of the basic leadership style, style range, and style adaptability of elementary school principals in North Carolina's elementary schools that have been recognized by the United States Department of Education as exemplary schools, should provide much needed information as to the leadership style, style range, and style adaptability found to exist in effective leaders. It is imperative for effective elementary principals in North Carolina to have an understanding of their leadership style as perceived by those subordinates with whom they work on a daily basis.

The need and significance of this study are to provide a description of the leadership styles used by principals in exemplary elementary schools in North Carolina. This information will be of value not only to the principals involved in the study, but also to all principals in North

Carolina's schools as they strive for excellence. This study should have a significant impact on school administrators as they attempt to increase their effectiveness by adapting their leadership styles to the situation.

Definition of Terms

Definitions of terms as used in this study are as follows:

Leadership. The process of influencing the activities of an individual or a group in efforts toward goal achievement in a given situation" (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982).

Leadership style. The behavior pattern an individual exhibits when attempting to influence the activities of others as perceived by those others (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982).

Authoritative style. The style of leadership which uses the telling or directing approach (S1) involving high task and low relationship behavior (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982).

Consultative style. The style of leadership which uses a selling, persuading, or coaching approach (S2) involving high task and high relationship behavior (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982).

Facilitative style. The style of leadership which uses a supporting or participating approach (S3) involving low relationship and low task behavior (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982).

Delegative style. The style of leadership which uses a delegating (S4) approach involving low relationship and low task behavior (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982).

Style range. The extent to which leaders are able to vary their style (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982).

Style adaptability. The degree to which leaders are able to vary their style appropriately to the demands of a given situation according to Situational Leadership (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982).

Task behavior. The extent to which leaders are likely to organize and define the roles of the members of their group (followers), to explain what activities each is to do, and when, where and how tasks are to be accomplished--characterized by endeavoring to establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and ways of getting jobs accomplished (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982).

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

support, "psychological strokes," and facilitating behaviors (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982).

Maturity. "the ability and willingness of people to take responsibility for directing their own behavior" (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982).

Lead. An acronym for Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description, an instrument developed by Hersey and Blanchard (1973) and designed to measure three aspects of leader behavior: style, style range, and style adaptability (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982).

LEAD-Self. An instrument designed to measure the self-perception of how an individual behaves as a leader (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982).

LEAD-Other. The same instrument as the LEAD-Self except that it reflects others' subordinates, superordinates, peers or associates and their perceptions of how the person behaves as a leader (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982).

Leadership events. Those events that occur in the leadership environment pertaining to data in terms of self-perceptions (LEAD-Self) and perceptions of others (LEAD-Other) (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982).

Delimitations

This study focused on four elementary schools that had been recognized as exemplary in North Carolina during the year 1986. The data collected apply to principals and teachers employed during the 1986-1987 school year. Furthermore, perceptions of each principal's basic leadership behavior were formed from observations of leadership events that occurred within each public elementary school where the principals functioned as the school leader.

Limitations

Two principal conditions served to limit the generalizations of this study. First, this study was conducted only in the four elementary schools which were selected as schools of recognition by the United States Department of Education during the school year 1986-1987 in North Carolina. Generalizations may be made but there is no claim that teacher perceptions are the same across the state and across the nation. The second condition was the realization that the data depended on self-reporting by the principals and teachers involved in the study. Therefore, the accuracy of the information on leaders' leadership style

is dependent on how accurately the individual has filled out the instrument.

Organization of the Study

This study is organized into five chapters as follows:

Chapter I contains the introduction, purpose, significance, definition of terms, delimitations, limitations, and an organization of the study.

Chapter II contains a review of the literature relevant to the study.

Chapter III contains the method of research, the research questions to be answered, the selection of the sample, instrumentation information, and the collection of the data.

Chapter IV contains the statistical analysis of the data, a description of the subject responses and their differences, and a summary of the findings.

Chapter V contains a summary of the findings revealed in the study, the conclusions drawn, and recommendations for further study.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

One thread that continually runs through educational leadership is dynamic change. Educational leadership parallels the human life cycle in that it is always striving toward maturity yet never reaches the apex of perfection. There is always the possibility for improvement; there is always the possibility for a better way.

At the time a human is born, he is a complete organized whole, yet immature. An individual totally dependent on the environment is subject to the ebb and flow of external forces. As an individual grows, a maturing process starts, and one begins to control, at least to some extent, one's destiny. From a very early age an individual has a self-perception of maturity. Only in retrospect is one able to recognize the immaturity of a previous stage in life. Likewise, educational leadership parallels the human life cycle in the sense that it is always striving toward maturity yet never quite reaching that elusive goal. Furthermore, only in retrospect is one able to recognize the immaturity of previous professional stages of maturity.

In this chapter the writer has reviewed literature related to the leadership style, leadership range, and leadership adaptability of elementary school principals. In order to trace leadership development within the organization, the writer has investigated organizational leadership from the time of scientific management (Taylor, 1911) to Situational Leadership (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982). In addition to leadership theories, theories of motivation have been examined as they relate to situational leadership. Furthermore, demographic studies have been researched as they apply to situational leadership. Chapter II also contains additional related studies and concludes with a summary of the investigation.

Development of Organizational Bureaucracy

In order to understand leadership styles it is first wise to gain a full understanding of the development of an organization an leadership within that organization.

As Etzioni (1964) put it, we are born in organizations, educated by organizations, and most of us spend most of our lives working for organizations. In order to have a full understanding of leadership one should have a clearer concept of the organization in which the leader will function.

In order to develop an understanding of the organization, one should be familiar with such theorists as Marx, Weber, and Michels (Mouzelis, 1977). Their classical writings and especially the Weberian type of bureaucracy became the basis of subsequent theories of bureaucracy. Later theorists have treated some of the problems addressed by the classical theorists in a more empirical and rigorous manner by limiting their scope of the problem. Marx formulated his theory by studying and criticizing Hegel's philosophy of the state that saw bureaucracy taking its meaning from the opposition between the particular interests of the corporations and the common interests of the state (Mouzelis, 1967). This opposition according to Marx represents not the general interests of society, but the particular interests of the ruling class. Working from the Marxist philosophy, one conceives of the state itself as an instrument by which the dominant class exercises control over other social classes.

One other central concept in Marxist thought is the idea of alienation. Mouzelis (1977) maintained that it is by this process that social forces escape from the control of man, attain an independent existence, and finally turn against man, their creator. This ideal of alienation from the organization is central to one's understanding of leadership within the organization. Following Marx's concept of bureaucracy, the bureaucratic organization

becomes an autonomous and oppressive force regulating the lives of those within its boundaries. Those within the confines of the organization feel a sense of hopelessness and despair, thus alienation. This feeling of alienation may lead one to feel dominated by the organization.

In order to understand the organizational theory proposed by Weber, one needs to put it in the context of his theory of domination. Weber defined power as the possibility of imposing one's will upon the behavior of other persons (Weber, 1947). The idea under consideration is not power, but the idea that one person or group of people has the right to exercise control over others while the ruled feel it is their duty to obey. Weber maintained that domination, when exercised over a large number of people, necessitates an administrative staff which will execute commands and which will serve as a bridge between the ruler and the ruled (Weber, 1947). Weber's philosophy of dominance assumed that those ruled would not proceed without control by some outside force.

The third classical approach was proposed by Michels (1962) as he studied the internal structure of the German Socialist Party, which more than all other parties, was supposed to be organized along democratic principles. In studying the Machiavellian tradition, Michels concluded that in order for a true democracy to exist, all organizational members should directly participate in the political process

of decision-making. Machiavellianism refers to a system of ideas based on the conflict between the elite and the non-elite within the organization. According to this view, the rule of the elite is ultimately based on force, even if the force is hidden. Moreover, even when force is not conscious, there is always an element of fraud at the basis of its domination, in that true democracy does not take place.

A principal of a public school is embedded in organizational bureaucracy. In order to achieve the goals of the school there is the need for a unity of command. This unity avoids confusion, inefficiency, and irresponsibility (Simon, 1962). This writer suggests that bureaucracy has become a means of both centralizing and disguising power within the school organization. Leaders sit not on top of an organization as a monolithic group, but rather, each individual in this group is, in his own right, a player in a central, competitive game. The name of the game is politics: bargaining along regularized circuits among players positioned hierarchically within the organization (Allison, 1971).

Leadership Within an Organizational Bureaucracy

Classical theorists propose that a leader is to assume complete control of the situation and exert his dominance

over others. This reminds one of McGregor's (1960) Theory X style of leadership. McGregor described the Theory X leader as exercising total control over the subordinate. This involves giving the subordinate exact directions to be followed and an exact timetable within which the task is to be completed. The Theory X leader further supervises the subordinates with the most strict means possible. The Theory X leader would thus be utilizing the Weberian type of bureaucracy in that he would assume that those ruled would not proceed without some outside force.

In an attempt to gain domination over others, a leader is confronted with the sheer logistics of accomplishing his mission. In order to follow the Weberian model in a unitary situation it would be mandatory physically to follow the individual around, continually supervising, monitoring, directing, and controlling the situation. In an organizational setting this mission is not possible without developing some type of structure with which to reach the goal. Mouzelis (1967) pointed out that in order to exercise control and domination over a large number of people, it is necessary to establish an administrative staff which will execute commands and which will serve as a bridge between the ruler and the ruled.

There are many forms of domination, some of which were mentioned by Mouzelis (1967). Those mentioned include (a) charismatic domination, where the leader exercises his

control by sheer capacity and deeds, and subordinates follow this type of leader because of the quality that radiates from the person himself (b) traditional domination, where the leader leads by virtue of his inherited status; and (c) legal domination, the last mentioned by Mouzelis, utilized predominantly by those practicing the Weberian model in organizational settings.

It is with this legal domination that the traditional bureaucracy of Weber began to evolve into a type of rational-legal bureaucracy. According to Perrow (1986) this rational-legal bureaucracy is based on rational principles (rational in terms of managers' interest, not necessarily the workers'), is backed by legal sanctions, and exists in a legal framework.

Perrow added that the key elements of the rational-legal model include (a) equal treatment of all employees, (b) reliance on expertise, skills and experience relative to the position, (c) specific standards of work and output, (d) extensive record keeping, and (e) establishment of rules and regulations that serve the interests of the organization.

Modern bureaucracy depends on a particular social structure. Such a social structure suggests than an individual cannot survive on his own, but must depend on working for someone else for his survival. In this type of society, an employee must produce more than he is paid to make it worthwhile for the superordinate to keep him on the

payroll. It is into this type of industrial society that Frederick Taylor came around the turn of the century with his scientific management model.

Taylorism (Taylor, 1911) had three advantages for management. First of all it applied research to work. This was in sharp contrast to the idea of letting the worker set his own pace. Second, Taylorism hinted at worker's interest by allowing the workers to advance to the level of their natural ability. This did not in fact encourage advancement of the subordinate as the level of the subordinates' natural ability was determined by management. Last, according to Taylor, it was suggested that this cooperation between management and labor would bring success to the organization.

According to Simon (1946), in an article on "The Proverbs of Administration", Luther Gulick, a contemporary of Taylor, proposed a unity of command within the organization. Unity of command suggests that the decisions of a person at any point in the administrative organizational hierarchy are subject to influence through only one channel of authority. If this type of organizational structure is used, it necessitates a vertical hierarchy where all decisions are made at the top and filter downward through the hierarchy until they reach the level of the target subordinate.

Critics continually attack bureaucracy for primarily two reasons: first, because of its perceived unadaptability, and second, because it stifles the humanity of subordinates. Perrow (1986) agreed that these charges have merit although he pointed out that bureaucracy is a tool, a social tool that legalizes control of the many by the few, despite the formal apparatus of democracy, and this control has generated unregulated and unperceived social power. Perrow added that bureaucracy has become a means, both in capitalist and noncapitalist countries, of centralizing power in society and legitimating or disguising that centralization. Bureaucratic hierarchy is, according to Simon (1962), a system that is composed of interrelated subsystems, each of the latter being, in turn, hierarchial in structure until one reaches some lowest level of elementary subsystem. Therefore, as these systems are used by the perspective organizations to centralize and legitimatize power, there develops a complex vertical hierarchy which almost defies change.

Allison (1971), in looking at the Cuban missile crisis, suggested different models of decision-making that operate within the hierarchy. The first model, the one that a majority of the population perceives as being utilized,is the Rational Actor Model. A leader utilizing the Rational Actor Model considers all possible alternatives to the

situation and every aspect of each alternative before a decision is reached.

Given the Rational Actor Model, the decision-maker attempts to put himself in the place of the other person or persons who would be affected by the decision. Once obtaining this reflective information, the decision-maker attempts to consider all of the possible alternatives available to the other person or persons and, taking into consideration every aspect of each alternative, attempts to make a decision based on the one best alternative available.

When one considers the message of Simon (1962) that the hierarchy is composed of a multitude of subsystems each interrelated and interdependent within the hierarchy, and given Allison's (1971) suggestion that an organization consists of a conglomerate of loosely allied suborganizations, each with substantial life of its own, the Rational Actor Model may not be the most useful model for understanding organizational hierarchy.

Allison (1971) further proposed that a second decision-making model exists that can be utilized somewhat more successfully than the Rational Actor Model. This he called the Organizational Model of decision-making. The decision-maker, using the Organizational Model will be aware of the fact that within any large organization there exist many separate suborganizations, each with its own specialized task and interdependent responsibility. Although these

suborganizations are interdependent with all suborganizations within the organization and the organization as a whole, there exists suborganizational rivalry that is very difficult to overcome.

When one considers the interdependent nature of each suborganization and the great masses of alternatives available within the organization as a whole, it is understandable that it would require an omnipotent and omnipresent leader to utilize the Rational Actor Model. Most theories of individual and organizational choice claim to employ a concept of "comprehensive rationality," according to which individuals and organizations choose the one best alternative, taking into account consequences, their probability, and utilities. In reality, most individuals and organizations focus on the limits of human capacity in comparison with the complexities of the problems. Simon (1962) therefore developed the concept of "bounded rationality." Utilizing the bounded rationality model requires the leader to extract the main features of a problem without capturing all of its complexity. Simon further suggested a form of "satisficing," where the decision-maker does not consider all possible alternatives, but makes the choice based on the course of action that is "good enough" for the particular situation. This satisficing requires the necessary feedback from the

different suborganizations so as to allow for change to take place within the organization.

Allison (1971) further pictured the Model II or Organizational Model leader as being concerned with the internal group process, where important kinds of organizational shifts can take place with little change in a particular organization's parochialism and standard operating procedure. This being the case, it would be very difficult to coordinate the changes within the organization with the unity of command proposed by Gulick (Simon, 1946).

Allison (1971) further proposed that a third decision-making model exists which he called the model of "Government Politics." The Model III leader realizes that the leaders of the organizations do not sit on top of the hierarchy as a monolithic group. Rather, each individual in this group is, in his own right, a player in a central, competitive game. The name of the game is politics: bargaining along regularized circuits among players positioned hierarchically within the organization. It is with this "political" model that organizational decision-making begins to be understood, not as organizational outputs, but as results of these bargaining games.

One embracing the political model suggests that men share power within the organization, and differ about what is to be done. This in turn necessitates that organizational decisions and actions result from a political

process. Consequently what moves the chess pieces is not the reasons that support a course of action, or the routines of organizations that enact an alternative, but the power and skill of proponents and opponents of the action in question. This understanding strikes at the very heart of the bureaucratic politics orientation.

In the political process, a leader is confronted with the task of implementing the programs which he feels are not only best for the organization, but also are those which will solidify the different coalitions within the organization, hence establishing a power base for future decisions. Bardach (1977) mentioned that the implementation process is therefore characterized by the maneuvering of a large number of semi-autonomous actors, each of whom tries to gain access to program elements not under its own control while at the same time trying to extract better terms from other actors seeking access to elements that they do not control.

This policy of control implies that a leader will encounter a certain amount of resistance. This resistance gets at the age-old political question of how the many can be controlled by the few? Bardach (1977) provided several strategies for countering massive resistance. These strategies include (a) Prescription, where a leader tells subordinates the course of action to be taken and the subordinates follow it because it seems the right and proper

thing to do; (b) Enabling, where superordinates give needed resources to subordinates, hence developing control over the subordinates; and (c) Incentives, which is probably the most preferred, and involves payment on performance, usually in the form of accountability.

Ellis (1975), in tracing the development and acceptance of the machine gun, got at the truth that human organizations are slow to change. As organizations develop and, according to Allison (1971), develop a life of their own, they become caught up in tradition to the extent that they are unwilling to change.

Governmental bureaucracy has developed into a monster that seems to be out of control. The question that a leader should address is, how is it possible to coordinate all these diverse components, which are utilizing both Allison's Model II and Model III governmental politics, with the unity of command as proposed by Gulick? It is no easy task. Downs and Larkey (1986) have attempted to reveal some of the methods that have been used to make order out of disorder. The first method discussed is the process of reorganization. The many attempts that have been made include regulation, deregulation, the New Federalism, increased federal assumption of welfare funding and state assumption of primary and secondary education funding, the creation of single-purpose districts, creation of Departments of Defense and Health and Human Services, adoption of the city manager

plan to operate cities and so on. The key point to all the above programs is increased organizational efficiency. Downs and Larkey (1986) quoted March and Olsen as saying, "In terms of their efforts on administrative costs, size of staff, productivity of spending, most major reorganization efforts have been described by outsiders, and frequently by participants, as substantial failures. Few efficiencies are achieved; little gain in responsiveness is recorded; control seems as elusive as before" (pp. 185-186).

The private sector has recently attempted to supplement the recommendations of top officials by devising ways of systematically incorporating the knowledge of lower level employees. Quality circles and incentive award programs are examples of two such innovations. It is possible that this type of involvement of the total organization in the decision-making process may be one method with which to overcome part of the resistance within the political organization.

Owens (1987) presented the idea of an organization developing into a type of clan. The notion of the clan as an organizational structure is supported by literature. Mayo (1945) perceived that the old order, which promoted and regulated cooperative human endeavor through the clan structure in society, had given way to a new and depersonalized type of formal organization. Mayo proposed that such societies know no loyalty outside their own group.

The desire of every individual member to cooperate in communal activities is spontaneous and complete. This loyalty is the essence of the clan.

Twelve years later, Selznick (1957) struggling to illuminate the problem of administrators exercising leadership, used the term "institutionalization" to describe a similar notion. Thus, value rationality, not goal rationality, dominates Selznick's description of the organization. In contrast to Weber (1947) Selznick emphasized the organization as an ideological and normative habitat for an individual.

Building on these ideas, Meyer and Rowan (1983) pointed out that the institutionalization of myths has become an important source of formal structure. This symbolic clan leadership goes beyond the essentials of managing a good organization. Symbolic leadership just does not happen. The clan's values must be pondered, new goals must be envisioned, and plans for achieving them laid.

A clan leader must signal to others what is important and what is valuable. Such a leader tours the organization, visits the different offices (usually from the lower end of the hierarchy first), thus delivering the message of subordinate participation, and talks to the workers in such a manner as to let them know that they are important to the operation of the organization. Following this plan of

action, subordinates will "buy into the organization" and thus the organization will begin operating as a team.

Leadership Styles

In this section, related literature of various leadership styles which could be applied to educational management has been reported. In addition, a participative management style has been investigated as a possible way to involve teachers in the decision-making process.

Task-performance (productivity) and relationship (human relations) are the two dimensional elements that appear most frequently in the literature of research studies with significant reference to leadership (Doll, 1972). Recognition of these two dimensions has characterized the literature on leadership since the conflict between the scientific management and human relations schools of thought as means of accomplishing goals became evident (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982).

Several researchers have examined the theory of scientific management or theories of interpersonal relationships or a combination of both in what became known as two-factor theories.

Fiedler and his colleagues at the Group Effectiveness Laboratory of the University of Illinois (1967) have illustrated scientific efforts in two-factor theories.

According to Fiedler's Contingency Model, situations require different leader styles. The Contingency Model was one of the models of situational leadership that evolved as theorists determined that different traits and behaviors were important for leaders in different settings. This Contingent theory is so named because a leader's effects on those subordinate to his position are said to be contingent upon particular variables of the situation.

The proposition of Fiedler and his colleagues suggests that when the situation for exercising influence is very favorable or very unfavorable, task-oriented leadership styles are most effective. Those situations which are only moderately favorable for exercising influence and leadership lend themselves to relation-oriented leadership styles. The degree of favorableness of a given situation is determined by the extent to which the leader and the group have good relationships with each other, the position of power of the leader is strong, and the tasks of the group are well defined and clearly structured. Fiedler (1967) suggested that by combining each of these situational dimensions--leader-member relations, power position, and task structure--eight situations for leadership can be identified. Four of these situations, being either very favorable or unfavorable for exercising influence and leadership, require task-oriented styles. Four, being only moderately favorable, require relation-oriented leadership styles. The four

situations of Fiedler's research (1967) consist of task-oriented or authoritarian leadership styles being more effective in group situations where (a) leader-member relations are good, tasks are structured, and leader position power is strong; (b) leader-member relations are good, tasks are structured, and leader position power is weak; (c) leader-member relations are good, tasks are unstructured, and leader position power is strong; and (d) leader-member relations are moderately poor, tasks are unstructured, and leader position power is weak. The remaining four propositions of Fiedler's research (1967) consist of relationship-oriented or participatory leadership styles being more effective in group situations where (a) leader-member relations are good, tasks are unstructured, and leader position power is weak; (b) leader-member relations are moderately poor, tasks are structured, and leader position power is strong; (c) leader-member relations are moderately poor, tasks are structured, and leader position power is weak; and (d) leader-member relations are moderately poor, tasks are unstructured, and leader position power is strong.

Andrew Halpin and Don Croft (1963), in their study of the organizational climate of schools, concentrated on internal organizational characteristics as though they function independently from external influences and used the terms "open" and "closed" to describe the profiles of

schools that represented selected characteristics of what they chose to call organizational climate. This understanding was a convenience for researchers, for it was difficult to study and discuss the behavior of people in a system without assuming that the organization was separate from its environment.

The most important determinant in organizational climate is leadership. Before one can understand leadership and its effects it is necessary first to know the elements of leadership. These are, according to Halpin and Croft (1963), the behavior of the leader, the behavior of the followers, and the environment of the situation. Halpin (1959) used these terms to describe the leader behavior of school superintendents. He defined "Initiating Structure," as referring to the leader's behavior in delineating the relationship between himself and the members of his work group, and in endeavoring to establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and methods of procedure. Halpin (1959) further defined "Consideration" as referring to behavior indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth in the relationship between the leader and the members of his staff.

Using a device called the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) (Stogdill & Coons, 1957), Halpin (1957) investigated the criteria applied to the evaluation of leadership by both leaders and subordinates. One of the

conflicts identified by Halpin was the opposite evaluations of supervisors and subordinates regarding the contributions of the dimensions of consideration and initiating structure to effective leadership. He felt that this represented a basic dilemma faced by an administrator in exercising his leadership function.

Likert, (1967) attempted to identify the human factors that influenced the effectiveness of the organization in reaching its goals. This research began in 1947 largely with industrial firms, but later included public agencies, military organizations, health-care organizations, schools and universities.

In New Patterns of Management (1961), Likert described significant relationships among management styles, the characteristics of the organization's interaction-influence system, and the effectiveness of the organization. In this volume and a later one, Human Organization (1967), Likert developed the theory, research, and specifics of one approach used to conceptualize or measure organizational climate.

Likert developed a continuum for placement of organizations with the character of their superordinate-subordinate relationships providing the key for proper placement. These organizational types were grouped into four categories: System 1 called the Exploitative-Authoritative, System 2 called the Benevolent-Authoritative,

System 3 called the Consultive, and System 4 called the Participative type of organizational leadership. (See Figure 1)

Although initially described in terms of seven operating characteristics, Likert's measure now includes eight characteristics that focus on leadership processes, motivational forces, the communication process, the interaction-influence process, the decision-making process, goal setting, control processes, and performance goals and training. These variables map profiles of organizations for placement along the continuum from exploitative-authoritative to participative systems (Likert, 1967).

Fifty-one items were developed by Likert and his colleagues to measure the eight variables (Likert, 1967).

Likert characterized an organization as a pyramidal structure with a face-to-face work group as the basic unit. Examples of Likert's structure are teachers and department chairpersons, and grade chairpersons and homeroom teachers. These are people who regularly interact (communicate, influence, motivate) at work with their supervisors. These groups are small enough to permit individual participation and close enough to the task to be performed to make effective, creative decisions. Keeping these groups coordinated requires effective communication between and among them. The primary work groups should be linked. This linking pattern should swing upward so that groups lower in

Figure 1.

Likert's Management System
(Hersey and Blanchard, 1982, P. 66)

Examples of Items from Likert's Table of Organizational and Performance Characteristics of Different Management Systems

Organizational Variable	System 1	System 2	System 3	System 4
Leadership processes used Extent to which superiors have confidence and trust in *subordinates*	Have no confidence and trust in subordinates	Have condescending confidence and trust, such as master has to servant	Substantial but not complete confidence and trust; still wishes to keep control of decisions	Complete confidence and trust in all matters
Character of motivational forces Manner in which motives are used	Fear, threats, punishment, and occasional rewards	Rewards and some actual or potential punishment	Rewards, occasional punishment, and some involvement	Economic rewards based on compensation system developed through participation; group participation and involvement in setting goals, improving methods, appraising progress toward goals, etc.
Character of interaction-influence process Amount and character of interaction	Little interaction and always with fear and distrust	Little interaction and usually with some condescension by superiors; fear and caution by subordinates	Moderate interaction, often with fair amount of confidence and trust	Extensive, friendly interaction with high degree of confidence and trust

the organizational pyramid have the opportunity to interact with and influence higher levels of the organization (Likert, 1967).

In a further study, Likert discovered that high-producing supervisors make clear to their subordinates what the objectives are and then give them the freedom to do the job (Likert, 1961). This is in agreement with the idea of allowing subordinates to participate in the decision-making process. Only by allowing for this participation within the organization can one show the trust necessary to allow individuals the freedom to progress within Likert's Systems theory.

Blake and Mouton (1964) integrated the research of Likert, Argyris, McGregor, and many others into an easily understood tool for analyzing and attempting to change organization and management styles based on the balance between one's concern for production and concern for people. The Managerial Grid proceeds along a continuum which progresses from a low concern for people and task, to a high concern for both people and task.

Reddin's Three-Dimensional Theory (1967), was based on the Ohio State Leadership Studies. The Ohio State Studies determine two factors of leadership behavior, consideration and structure. Initiating this structure requires planning as well as organizing work and tasks. Consideration is concerned with maintaining relationships. This model

assumes the possibility of both factors being present at once.

Research at the University of Michigan's Research Center by Guetzkow, defined two factors similar to those in the Ohio State Leadership Studies. These were labeled interpersonal or employee-centered and task environment or production-centered. Because this idea did not integrate the two factors, Reddin favored the Ohio State Studies.

The findings of the three research studies cited above are in agreement that there are two basic factors in management: task orientation and relations orientation. This concept became the basis of Reddin's 3-D Leadership Theory (1970).

Reddin began constructing his theory by defining some basic leadership styles according to the task-oriented and relations-oriented concepts. He identified four leadership styles which are essentially the same as those identified by Blake and Mouton (1964). These were expanded into a square that in turn was divided into four equal squares designated as follows: Related, Integrated, Separated, and Dedicated.

Each approach represents a basic leadership style and gains meaning from its relationship to the task oriented and relations oriented poles. The basic leadership styles increase their orientation as they move along the grid (Owens, 1982). A related manager will have a high relations orientation and a very low task orientation. A dedicated

manager is the opposite. An integrated manager will be highly oriented to both styles. A separated manager would not be oriented to either style (Hoy & Miskel, 1982).

Reddin (1970) summarized four effective and four ineffective styles of leadership. The four effective styles were Executive, Developer, Benevolent, Autocrat, and Bureaucrat. These styles were representative of managerial behavior which progressed from a maximum concern for both task and people to a minimum concern for both task and people. The styles termed ineffective by Reddin were Compromiser, Missionary, Autocrat, and Deserter. These styles were representative of managerial behavior which gave considerable concern for both task and people in a situation that required emphasis on only one or neither to behavior which gave minimum concern to task and people in a situation where such behavior was inappropriate.

Reddin maintained that each of his four basic leadership styles is effective under the right circumstances. Each is useful in some situation. The third dimension of his 3-D Theory deals with the effectiveness of a basic style with respect to the situation involved. According to Reddin's theory, the vital distinction between more effective and less effective styles does not lie in administrative behavior. The job of the leader is to be effective and he should not think in terms of what he does, but what he achieves (Reddin, 1970).

Reddin maintained that there are three managerial skills necessary for effective leadership. These skills include style flexibility, situational sensitivity, and situational management.

Style flexibility is the ability to change leadership styles as the situation demands. Style flexibility is somewhat misidentified in leaders, as a leader will often change styles to avoid conflict. This type of behavior Reddin called style drift. Reddin further suggested that leaders who use one style regardless of the situation are showing what he termed style rigidity. Leaders who maintained the appropriate style are using style resilience.

Situational sensitivity, the second term noted by Reddin, is the ability to appraise a situation and determine appropriate procedures. Situational sensitivity requires astute observation. However, it may include feedback loops as well as some other type of evaluation practice.

Situational management was seen by Reddin as the third skill needed for effectiveness. This is often confused with situational manipulation in which a situation has change for personal gain. Situational management is change brought about to increase a leader's effectiveness. Reddin saw the need for progress through change. Therefore, he urged a leader to assess the situation and affect change when needed (Reddin, 1970).

Situational Leadership Theory

The Situational Model of Leadership as developed by Hersey and Blanchard is an outgrowth of their Tri-Dimensional Leader Effectiveness Model. This model in turn was an adapted product of initiating structure and consideration behavior of the Ohio State University Leadership Studies and the effectiveness dimension of Reddin's 3-D Management Style Theory. The Emphasis Situational Leadership is on the behavior of the leader in relation to the leader's subordinates. The model as designed is based on a relationship between task behavior and relationship behavior and maturity (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982).

The Tri-Dimensional Model added an effectiveness dimension to the task relationship two-dimensional models developed in the Ohio State Leadership Studies such as the Managerial Grid. Hersey and Blanchard proposed the third dimension to be the environment in which the leader is operating. They further stated that the maturity level of the group members in the environment is a critical factor that determines leadership style. Maturity is seen in terms of the specific task to be performed and not in terms of whether the group is mature or immature (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982).

Hersey and Blanchard used the terms "task behavior" and "relationship behavior" to describe concepts similar to the Consideration and Initiating Structure concepts of the Ohio State Leadership Studies. They also used the four basic leader behavior quadrants developed in the two-dimensional models: high task and high relationship, high relationship and low task, low relationship and high task, and low relationship and low task.

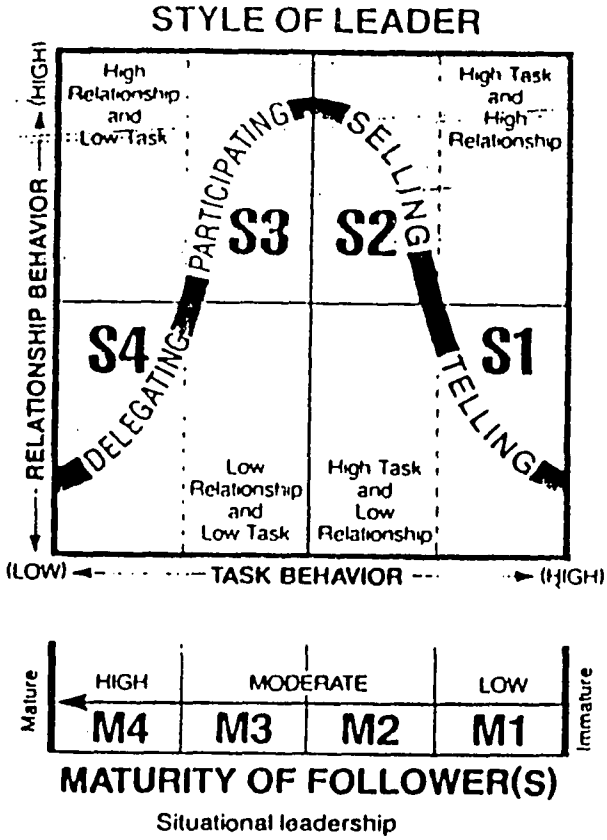
As a result of their model, Hersey and Blanchard (1982) gave consideration to the maturity level of the followers. When the maturity level of the subordinates is low, the effective leadership style will emphasize task and place less emphasis on relationship. A gain or increase in maturity is possible. The shift of leadership behavior from right to left along the bell-shaped curve would match any shift in the maturity level of followers, from low (immature) to high (mature) in order to be maximally effective. (See Figure 2)

Essentially, Situational Leadership Theory contends that the maturity level of organizational participants can be increased over time and as the maturity level of the participants increases, the effective leadership style will be characterized by a reduction in task-oriented behavior and an increase in relations-oriented behavior.

In support of a relations-oriented approach to leadership, Peters and Waterman (1982) contended that the

Figure 2.

Situational Leadership
(Hersey and Blanchard, 1982, p. 248)



basic philosophy of leadership should, in effect, respect the individual, make people winners, let them stand out, and in general treat them as adults. Later, Peters and Austin (1986) pointed out that it is the thousand and one little things that the leader does for the subordinates that will build "ownership" at all levels of the organization.

According to Hersey and Blanchard (1982), in Situational Leadership Theory there is no one best way to influence people. They choose the appropriate leadership style for given levels of maturity as a prescriptive curve going through four leadership quadrants. The four leadership styles are called "telling," "selling," "participating," and "delegating." Each is a combination of task and relationship behavior.

A description of the four leader behavior styles is as follows:

Telling (S1) - Provide specific instructions and closely supervise performance.

Selling (S2) - Explain decisions and provide opportunity for clarification.

Participating (S3) - Share ideas and facilitate in making decisions.

Delegating (S4) - Turn over responsibility for decisions and implementation (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982).

In using the shorthand designations (S1, S2, S3, S4) and the labels "telling," "selling," "participating," and "delegating," for leadership styles, one should keep in mind that they should be used only when referring to behaviors represented by the effective face of the Tri-Dimensional Leader Effectiveness Model. When discussing ineffective styles one should refer to them only by quadrant number: Q1, Q2, Q3, or Q4.

In most cases there are at least two leadership styles in the effective range. At the same time, there are usually one or two leadership styles that are clearly in the less effective range.

Implicit to the Situational Leadership Theory and the Tri-Dimensional Leader Effectiveness Model is the idea that a leader should help followers grow in maturity as far as they are willing to go. This development is done by adjusting leadership behavior through the four styles along the prescriptive curve. To determine what leadership style should be used with a person in a given situation, one must do several things. First, the manager must decide what aspect of the person's job responsibilities he wants to influence. The second step is to determine the ability and motivation (maturity level) of the individual or group in the selected area. The third and final step is to decide which of the four leadership styles is appropriate with the person in the selected area. Figures 3 and 4 explain the

updated version of Situational Leadership II (Blanchard, Zigarmi, & Zigarmi, 1985, p. 68, 56). For the purpose of reporting data, the terms introduced by Blanchard, Zigarmi, & Zigarmi (1985)--Directing, Coaching, Supporting, and Delegating--will be used throughout the study.

Studies on The Use of Situational Leadership Theory in Education

One of the earliest studies that applied the Situational Leadership Theory to the educational setting was conducted by Ducharme (1970), in the elementary schools of Toronto, Canada. Ducharme attempted to define the relationships between maturity level and leader behavior preference of 572 urban, elementary school teachers. The results were not conclusive. He found no relationship between maturity level and task-oriented behavior among teachers; however, he did find a direct relationship between maturity level and relation-oriented behavior when the independence dimension of maturity was omitted.

Angelini, Hersey, and Caracushansky (1982) conducted a study applying the Situational Leadership Theory to teaching. In this study an attempt was made to compare the learning effectiveness scores between students who attended a course in which conventional teacher-student relationships prevailed and students who attended a course in which Situational Leadership was applied by the same teacher. In the experimental classes, the maturity level of the students

Figure 3.

Situational Leadership II
(Blanchard, Zigarmi, Zigarmi, 1985, p. 68)

(Permission Granted by Publisher)

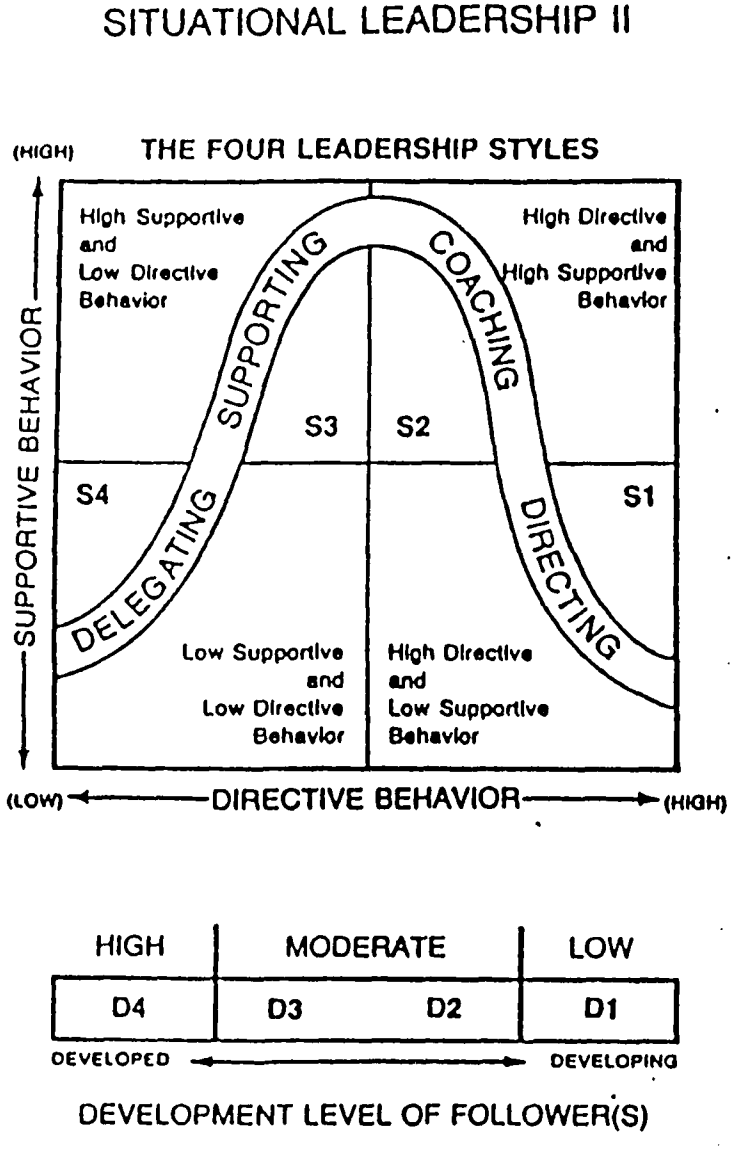


Figure 4.

Leadership Styles

(Blanchard, Zigarmi, Zigarmi, 1985, p. 56)

(Permission Granted by Publisher)

DEVELOPMENT LEVEL	APPROPRIATE LEADERSHIP STYLE
D1 Low Competence • High Commitment	S1 DIRECTING Structure, control, and supervise
D2 Some Competence • Low Commitment	S2 COACHING Direct and support
D3 High Competence • Variable Commitment	S3 SUPPORTING Praise, listen, and facilitate
D4 High Competence • High Commitment	S4 DELEGATING Turn over responsibility for day-to-day decision-making

LEADERSHIP STYLES APPROPRIATE FOR THE VARIOUS DEVELOPMENT LEVELS

"Directing (Style 1) is for people who lack competence but are enthusiastic and committed (D1). They need direction and supervision to get them started.

"Coaching (Style 2) is for people who have some competence but lack commitment (D2). They need direction and supervision because they're still relatively inexperienced. They also need support and praise to build their self-esteem, and involvement in decision-making to restore their commitment.

"Supporting (Style 3) is for people who have competence but lack confidence or motivation (D3). They do not need much direction because of their skills, but support is necessary to bolster their confidence and motivation.

"Delegating (Style 4) is for people who have both competence and commitment (D4). They are able and willing to work on a project by themselves with little supervision or support."

was developed over time by a systematic shift in teaching style. The findings indicated that the experimental classes showed not only higher performance on content exams but were also observed to have a higher level of enthusiasm, morale, and motivation as well as less tardiness and absenteeism.

In another study, Back (1978) attempted to validate the relationship of leader effectiveness to follower maturity and leadership style. Although this study was not all-inclusive, the researcher was able to conclude that high-relationship styles were more effective in the educational setting than low-relationship styles.

Hersey and Blanchard (1977) produced a study utilizing the elementary schools of eastern Massachusetts. In this study, the school's principal shared Situational Leadership Theory with his teachers and contracted a leadership style which reflected individual teacher experience and expertise. The findings indicated that when leadership styles were contracted with the teachers, they perceived the principal's leadership style to be rewarding, regardless of type of leadership style.

Peters (1975) looked at the aspects of leader style, adaptability, and effectiveness among principals in western Massachusetts. The findings indicated a significant positive relationship between the perceptions of the principal and his staff in regard to his ability to change leadership styles to fit the situations. Although

concluding that principals were able to adapt their behavior, it could not be determined that adaptable behavior was related to either effective or ineffective principals.

A study was conducted by Roberts (1985) to determine whether there were significant differences between principals' and teachers' perceptions of principals' basic leadership styles. The sample included all the mathematics, science, and social studies teachers in the schools of Mississippi. The study revealed no significant differences in the mean perceptions of the principals and their teachers of the principals' basic leadership styles

Another study (Haas, 1986) examined psychological androgyny and its relationship to effective school leadership. The study concluded that there was no significance found for the relationship between sex-role identity or leadership effectiveness and adaptability and the teacher variables of age, ethnicity, years of experience, and administrative certification. Significance was found for the teacher variables of age, ethnicity, years of experience, and teachers' years of experience with the principal. In this particular study school size and community were also found to be significant.

Ramos (1986) compared the leadership styles of secondary school principals in the state of Alabama with a group of principals in Venezuela and found no significant relationships between demographic factors and principals'

leadership style or adaptability scores. However, the study did reveal a significant relationship between the adaptability scores and the principals' length of employment in the schools.

In another study, Nye (1986) examined the innovative performance of secondary school principals in relation to Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory and concluded that there was no significant relationship between principals' leadership style effectiveness and style flexibility and innovative performance. The study indicated that the more effectively Situational Leadership was applied, the more principals were perceived as being effective in their innovative efforts.

In the last Situational Leadership study to be considered, Gregory (1986) found that the principals' leadership style and the maturity match of their staff did not affect organizational health and academic achievement.

Situational Leadership studies investigated by this researcher indicated that a positive relationship existed between leadership style effectiveness and high relationship behavior as perceived by subordinates. This high relationship behavior, according to Bennis & Nanus (1985), should seek to instill visions, meaning, and trust in subordinates and allow them to develop an empowerment where they may participate in the decision-making process. The researchers revealed that an agreement existed between

superordinates in relation to perceived leadership behavior. Further research in the area of superordinates' and subordinates' perceptions of leadership behavior would be beneficial to the study of Situational Leadership.

Situational Leadership and Motivation

In order to have a better understanding of Situational Leadership it is wise to review the literature in relation to motivation. The following writers have developed the motivational framework upon which Situational Leadership is supported.

Waller (1982) pointed out that the principal, as the educational leader of a school, has professional responsibility and moral obligation to support teachers' quests for professional development and personal growth as well as to provide a means of fulfilling these needs. He suggested further that by nurturing a people-positive attitude and demonstrating an awareness of and concern for the needs of one's fellow professionals, a principal establishes the primary ingredients for an effective and fluid climate that assists teachers in functioning at their optimum.

Herzberg (1973) stated that the two main factors responsible for a feeling of satisfaction with one's job are the inner feelings of worthwhile achievement experienced by

the individual and recognition for that achievement by superordinates, peers, and subordinates. If this belief has merit, then a situational leader must recognize motivational needs in order to help followers move from one maturity level to another.

In an additional study, Phillips (1968) suggested that each person has a concept of himself, and his behavior will be consistent with the self-concept. Later, Phillips (1978) pointed out that leaders who hold high expectations and assume that subordinates can be self-directed and seek responsibility are able to capitalize on untapped human resources.

Quality Circles, which consist of subordinates participating in the decision-making process, have received attention in motivational literature. Imel (1982) suggested that Quality Circles are one way to provide workers with increased autonomy, responsibility, and authority. The theoretical bases of Quality Circles are McGregor's Theory Y, Herzberg's Motivation/Hygiene Theory, and Maslow's hierarchy of needs.

Schasbier (1981) presented a paper at the National Education Conference where she suggested that teachers are dissatisfied and often burn out because they work in a bureaucratic structure where most decisions are made by the administration. She further stated that people have a need to work, to pursue excellence, and to "self-actualize" as

Maslow calls it. This style of leadership should include, according to Schasbier, (a) development of a participative/supportive leadership process, (b) concern for motivational factors, (c) improved communications, (d) better interaction/influence processes, (e) improved decision-making, (f) mutual goal-setting, and (g) improved control processes considering individuals and their goals. According to Schasbier, public schools will improve if the hierarchial pyramid crumbles and is replaced with a system of administrators and professionals working together.

In a further study Ellis (1984) suggested that teachers are primarily motivated by intrinsic rewards such as self-respect, responsibility, and a sense of accomplishment. According to Ellis, administrators can boost morale and motivate teachers to excel through participatory governance, in-service education, and systematic evaluation.

Ouchi (1981), in addressing what he termed the "Theory Z" culture of Japanese business, contended that it is important to view the worker's life as a whole and that humanizing the working conditions will not only increase productivity but also increase employees' self-esteem. Naisbitt and Aburdene (1985) further expressed an encouraging note when they suggested that there is a growing new compatibility between the needs of people and the needs of companies in the information society.

In contrast, a study conducted by Frataccia (1982) was in disagreement with the others. The results indicated that the role of the principal in accepting responsibility for meeting the needs of the teachers was unimportant. However, Kaufman (1984) concluded that the Herzberg Motivation/Hygiene Theory could be used in education to distinguish between motivation seekers and hygiene seekers. Kaufman found that motivation seekers were more committed to the teaching profession than hygiene seekers.

In addition Rodgers (1969) suggested that the task of an administrator is to arrange the organizational conditions and methods of operation so that people can best achieve their own goals by also furthering the jointly defined goals of the institution.

The final source to be noted can be used to summarize situational motivation. Williams (1978) stated that the foremost challenge for school executives is to facilitate the emergence of basic needs in the human sense. Williams concluded that, by using a modified Maslow scale, teachers were generally well satisfied with the two lower needs, but much less satisfied with the three higher needs. According to Williams, leaders should concentrate resources at the motivational level where they can expect to gain the greatest results. To understand better the Hierarchy of Needs as proposed by Maslow, as well as the relationship

between situational leadership and related theory, see Figures 5, 6, and 7.

Motivational studies investigated by this researcher indicated the need for a high human relations approach to Situational Leadership. Researchers have found a need for superordinates to provide for higher order needs or motivators as they lead the organization toward a team concept.

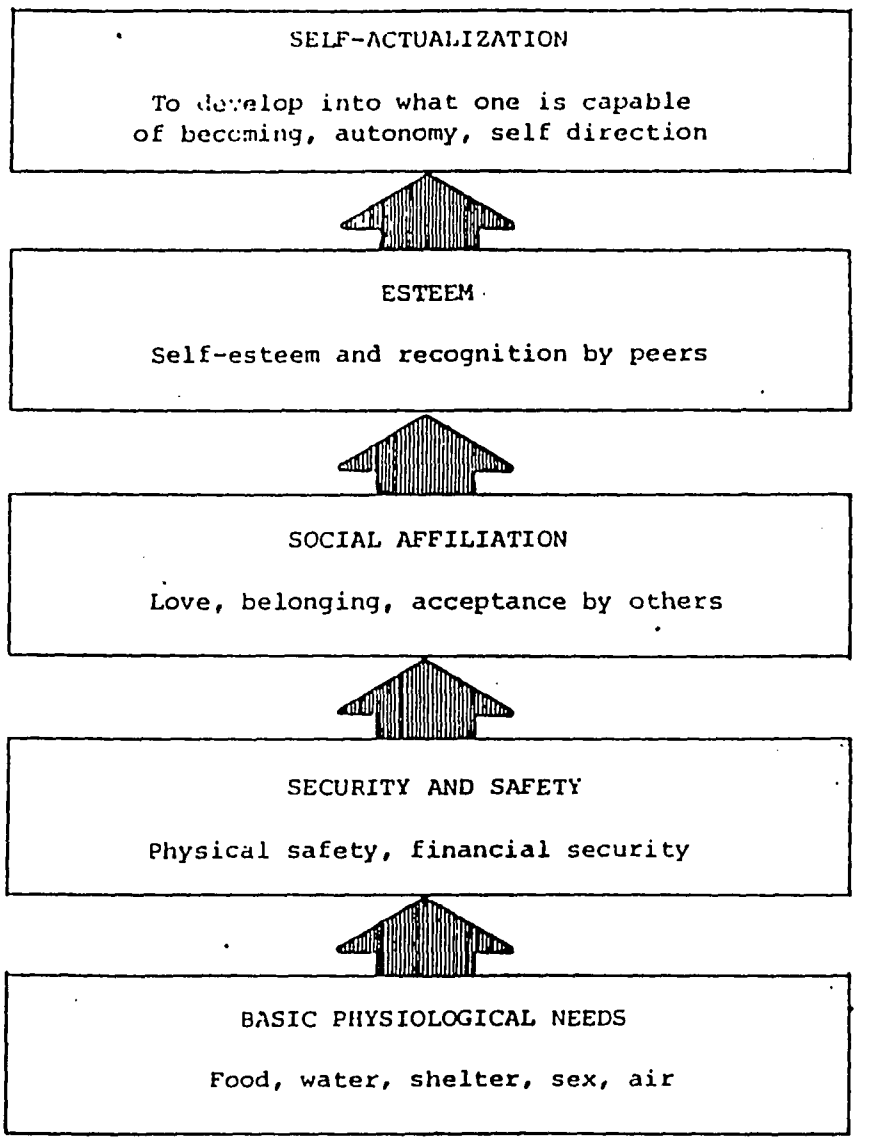
Demographic Variables

Demographic variables were a part of nearly all the studies reviewed. The most frequently used aspects of demographics were size of school, gender of both principal and subordinate, and principals' length of service. Other aspects which were used less frequently were age of teachers, teachers' length of service, race of both principal and subordinate, and teachers' years of experience. A few studies have included, as minor variables, the educational degree earned by the teachers, and the formal training received by both the principal and the teachers.

Roberts (1985) concluded that there were no significant differences in principals' and teachers' perceptions of principals' leadership styles in relation to the demographic variables of race, gender, age, tenure, and teachers' area

Figure 5.

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs
(Maslow, 1954)



Hierarchy of Needs as used in Maslow's Theory of Motivation

Figure 6.

Relationship Between Situational Leadership and Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs and Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory.
(Hersey and Blanchard, 1982, p. 296)

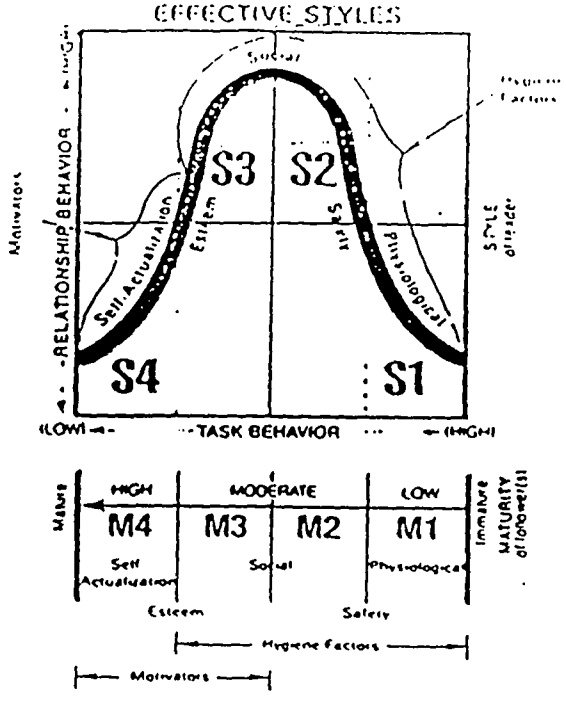
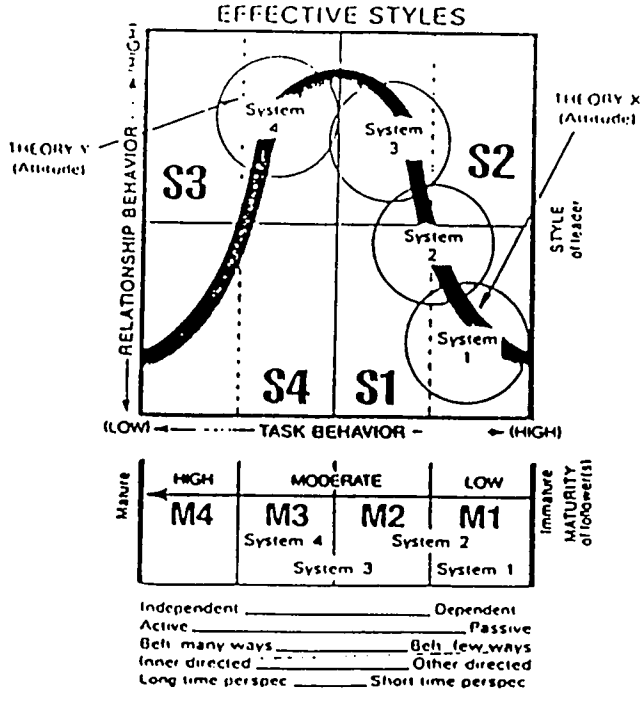


Figure 7.

Relationship Between Situational Leadership and McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y, Argyris' Maturity-Immaturity Continuum, and Likert's Management Systems.
(Hersey and Blanchard, 1982, p. 297)



Relationship between Situational Leadership and McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y, Argyris' maturity-immaturity continuum, and Likert's management systems

of training. The leadership styles of the principals were perceived in a similar manner in relation to all variables.

Furthermore, Orr (1980) investigated the leadership styles of middle school principals and concluded that there were no significant relationships between the leadership styles of principals and the maturity of the school organization, nor between the leadership styles of the principals and the years of experience the principal had in the organization.

In a 1986 study, Ramos attempted to determine whether there was a relationship between the principals' predominant leadership style and the demographic variables of years of experience in educational administration, length of employment in the present schools, educational degree attained, and field of study. The findings indicated that with only one exception, there was no significant relationship between the demographic variables and the leadership style or adaptability scores. A statistically significant relationship was found between the adaptability scores and principals' length of employment in the schools.

In another study Haas (1986) investigated the relationship between leadership styles of principals and demographic variables. He found no significant relationship between sex-role identity or leadership effectiveness and adaptability and teacher variables of sex, age, ethnicity, years of experience, and administrative certification.

Significance was found for the principal variables of age, ethnicity, years of experience and teachers' years of experience with the principal. In this particular study the size of the school and community were also found to be significant.

In one of the latest research studies involving demographics, Brown (1985) attempted to determine whether a relationship existed between the principals' leadership style, leadership adaptability, and leadership range and the demographic variables of gender, principals' age, principals' graduate major, type of school, and school size. The study revealed that no significant relationship existed between the selected demographic variables and leadership style and leadership range. The findings were basically the same for leadership adaptability. However, the study did show a significant relationship between leader adaptability and the demographics of school size and type of school.

Demographic studies investigated by this researcher revealed that few positive relationships existed with regard to most demographic variables. The positive relationships which were found consisted of demographic variables of principals, as well as teachers' length of employment, school size, and type of school. Further research is needed with regard to demographic variables of teachers as they relate to Situational Leadership.

Related Studies

Researchers, previously mentioned in this chapter, have found effective leaders being concerned with structuring the work environment to provide for the satisfaction of subordinates' higher order needs. The following studies have been investigated as they related to the perceived satisfaction of subordinates' needs.

Brown and Bledsoe (1977) looked at the job satisfaction of school superintendents as related to perceptions of leaders' behavior. In this particular study Georgia public school superintendents were requested to complete the LBDQ as a measure of perceptions of the school board presidents' leadership and the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire as a measure of job satisfaction.

The results revealed that the extrinsic job satisfaction of the school superintendents was positively related to both variables of leaders' behavior, Consideration an Initiating Structure. Appointed superintendents reported significantly greater job satisfaction in two dimensions than did elected superintendents. The high level of satisfaction and high regard for the school board president apparently did not permit a highly reliable prediction of job satisfaction. Initiating Structure was not related to preconceived job satisfaction.

The review by Brayfield and Crockett (1955) found that job satisfaction seemingly does not result in productivity. Indeed, some support exists for the reverse relationship. In a similar study, Locke (1969) suggested that certain intrinsic rewards may follow from goal achievement, rather than the reverse.

Many researchers have studied the influence of subordinate personality on the relationship between the participation dimension of leadership and subordinate response, i.e., job satisfaction and job performance, as a mediating variable (Sanford, 1950; Vroom, 1960) and found that subordinates with more authoritarian personalities expressed higher preference for directive leadership than subordinates with less authoritarian personalities.

Kenis (1978) supported the argument that the personalities of subordinates have a moderating effect on the response to leadership styles. Considerate and participative behavior by superordinates was found to be more effective with respect to increasing the satisfaction of subordinates who had a higher need for independence and lower authoritarianism than of subordinates with a lower need for independence and higher authoritarianism. With respect to structuring behavior of superordinates, however, the results were inconclusive.

The results of this study supported the conclusions of

Vroom (1960) with respect to participation and extend similar conclusions for consideration.

In a later study, Gilmore, Beehr, and Richter (1979) found that the manipulation of leader behavior caused differences in subordinate performance just as Stogdill (1974) suggested it would, although satisfaction was not affected by the manipulation. Furthermore, research supported the notion that certain leader behavior affected subordinate performance, although it could not be determined whether subordinate performance caused certain leader behavior to emerge (Greene, 1975).

Three purposes were investigated in a related study (Hunt, Hill, & Reaser, 1971). The first purpose was to determine whether the preconceived leadership behavior of a mental hospital aide's first- and second-level managers was related to his psychological need satisfaction. The study found that the first-level manager's perceived behavior had a significant impact on the perceived need satisfaction of his subordinates. This was also shown to be true but to a lesser extent for the second-line manager. Another finding showed that there was no one perceived leadership behavior that was related to all need areas and no one need area was related to all behaviors. In addition every need area was related to at least one type of leadership behavior. This appeared to indicate that all of those leadership variables were important.

The second purpose was to determine whether information concerning the preconceived leadership behavior of managers at two organizational levels increased the ability to predict need-satisfaction over and above information at one level only. The study produced evidence to support the expanded information position.

The final purpose was to determine the nature of any two-level effects found. The results were consistent with the results of Nealey and Blood (1968) and Mann (1965); however, they conflicted with the findings of Hunt (1971). Nealey and Blood found that high first-level initiating structure and low structure at the second level were related to high satisfaction at each level. It was found that need dissatisfaction with esteem and autonomy is least when first-level managers exhibit low structure. Therefore, it was concluded that first-level managerial behavior was more important to rank-and-file dissatisfaction than second-level behavior. The differences found between Hunt (1971) and Nealey and Blood (1968) and Mann (1965) seemed to be that need-dissatisfaction was different from satisfaction with job factors and two-level managerial behavior must be combined differently to optimize across different satisfaction criteria. According to Hunt, Hill, and Reaser (1971), managerial behavior could influence subordinate need-satisfaction across two hierarchial levels. Hunt, Hill, and Reaser (1971) concluded that care should be taken;

otherwise, one could contribute to such worker feelings as insecurity, low esteem, lack of autonomy, and low self-actualization.

Furthermore, it was also possible that different kinds of managerial behavior were required to deal with different needs of workers. This emphasizes, according to Hunt, Hill, and Reaser (1971), the importance of a manager's recognizing individual worker needs and responding accordingly. Further, a worker or group that is highly insecure may respond better to managerial structuring behavior than to increased freedom. These findings, according to Hunt and Hill (1971), stress the importance of individual worker differences and the situational approach to leadership.

In addition, it was suggested that a first-level manager is more important in influencing rank-and-file employee need-satisfaction than is a second-level manager. Hunt, Hill, and Reaser (1971) suggested that organizations should check to be sure that they are investing resources in the training and selection of these lower-order people considering their great influence. Furthermore, the reverse may be true; fewer dissatisfied workers may cause managers to behave differently than more dissatisfied workers.

In another study Hunt and Liebscher (1973) investigated five leadership dimensions and seven satisfaction criteria in two state highway department bureaus, design and construction.

The data showed situational differences between the two bureaus in terms of leadership preferences, the discrepancies between preferences and behavior, and a number of relationships between leadership and satisfaction. More consideration and freedom were desired in design than in construction and the discrepancies were larger in design than in construction for freedom and production emphasis.

There was a tendency for behavior to be more strongly related to the criteria in design than in construction. The most strongly related criterion across leadership dimensions and bureaus was supervision satisfaction, while consideration was the single most strongly related dimension across criteria and bureaus. Promotion satisfaction, total satisfaction, and turnover propensity relationships were larger in design than in construction when averaged across leadership dimensions.

Another finding, contrary to Maunheim, Rim, and Grinberg (1967), Yukl (1981) showed that consideration preferences appear to be situationally influenced and indeed are influenced even when some other leadership dimensions are not. House, Filley, and Gujarity (1971) argued that when jobs are low in satisfaction, increased consideration may be needed to help compensate for the lack of intrinsic satisfaction.

A further study by Rooker (1967) attempted to determine the relationship of two motivational variables, need

achievement and need affiliation, to the leader behavior of elementary school principals as this behavior was perceived by members of their faculties, and by the principals themselves.

It was concluded that teachers tend to agree in the ways that they perceived principals' behavior and that principals also tend to agree among themselves in their perceptions of their own behavior; however, in general there was no common agreement between principals and teachers with respect to the nature of the principals' behavior.

In a related study Batlis and Green (1979) investigated differences in personality attributes between supervisors who placed equal emphasis on people and task dimensions of leadership and those who tended to be exclusively people or task oriented. The results of the study pointed to several differences between leaders who were task oriented and people who were people oriented.

Those subjects who were found to be balanced in their leadership styles preferred to work and make decisions with other people. These people would most likely be very cautious or moderate and would operate on a realistic basis. On the other hand, those subjects who fell into the low consideration-high structure or high structure-low consideration would most likely be more sensitive, unconventional, and independent.

Ashqur and England (1972) investigated the relationship between leader's dominance, attitude toward delegation, authoritarianism, subordinate's capacity, and the level of discretion. The findings confirmed those of Jacques (1961) and Thompson (1967). A leader's dominance was found to have a negative relationship to the dependent variable. The investigation found no relationship between the leader's attitude nor his authoritarianism.

In another study by Wesley (1976) attention was directed to supervisory behavior and need satisfaction of two levels of management employees. The findings showed a strong positive relationship between consideration and employee need satisfaction and a strong negative relationship between autocratic styles and need satisfaction.

A similar study by Hermann (1976) showed significant positive relationships existing between leader's satisfaction with work, people, and consideration leader behavior.

In a final study, Schriesheim and Murphy (1976) studied the relationship between leader behavior and subordinate satisfaction and performance. The results supported some of the findings reported of other researchers in the field concerning relationships between leader behavior and subordinate satisfaction and performance. Supervisors who exerted more structure had significantly lower performing

subordinates when they were also low in consideration. However, when they were high in consideration they had a slight positive effect on performance. Thus, high structure was dysfunctional only when accompanied by low consideration, supporting earlier work of Fleishman and Harris (1962), Cummins (1971), and others.

Schriesheim and Murphy (1976) concluded that leader consideration resulted in increased satisfaction and performance under low stress but reduced both under high stress conditions. These findings are in general agreement with Halpin (1954).

Related studies investigated by this researcher revealed a concern by effective leaders to structure the working environment to provide for the satisfaction of subordinates' higher order needs. Although few researchers concluded that job performance led to satisfaction rather than satisfaction leading to job performance, the majority of researchers found that leader behavior affects subordinates' job satisfaction. It was further found that no one leader behavior was related to all subordinates' need areas. Further research is needed to support findings in the area of Situational Leadership and subordinates' need satisfaction.

Summary

In Chapter II the writer investigated literature related to the leadership style, leadership range, and leadership adaptability of the elementary school principal. This investigation led to the examination of the development of the organizational bureaucracy and how leadership takes place in such a bureaucracy. Upon gaining a greater understanding of the bureaucratic organization, the writer reviewed selected leadership styles concluding with discussion of the Situational Leadership Theory as proposed by Hersey and Blanchard (1982). It was concluded that since the research studies in the area of Situational Leadership in the field of education were inconclusive, further research was needed in order to make a more definitive statement.

The aspect of motivation as it related to the study of Situational Leadership was examined. The literature was found to be moving away from a Theory X style of leadership toward a Theory Y style. This style of leadership, best described by Schasbier (1981), involves the participative-supportive leadership process, and is concerned with motivational factors communications, better interaction/influence processes, improved decision-making, better mutual goal setting, and an improved control process.

Given the fact that demographic variables are a part of almost all studies, the writer selected a number of variables which he felt may have a bearing on the present investigation. Whereas most researchers have studied demographic variables of the leader, the writer has chosen to study the demographic variables as they relate to the subordinate.

Chapter II also included a review of related studies that investigated the relationship between leadership style and satisfaction of subordinates' needs, and concluded with a summary of the investigation.

Chapter III

METHODOLOGY

Research Design

This descriptive study was designed to identify leadership style, leadership style range, and leadership style adaptability of the principals of four exemplary elementary schools within North Carolina during the 1986-1987 school year. The leadership style, style range, and style adaptability have been determined according to the perceptions of both teachers and principals within those four exemplary schools. The leadership style, style range, and style adaptability have further been examined as they related to selected demographic variables.

The researcher examined the following six primary research questions:

Question 1: What was the prevalent leadership style among all principals of the exemplary elementary schools in North Carolina in 1986 according to the perceptions of the principals of those exemplary schools?

Question 2: What was the prevalent leadership style range among all principals of the exemplary elementary schools in North Carolina in 1986 according to the

perceptions of the principals of those exemplary schools?

Question 3: What was the average leadership style adaptability among all principals of the exemplary elementary schools in North Carolina in 1986 according to the perceptions of the principals of those exemplary schools?

Question 4: What was the prevalent leadership style among all principals of the exemplary elementary schools in North Carolina in 1986 according to the perceptions of the teachers of those exemplary schools?

Question 5: What was the prevalent leadership style range among all principals of the exemplary elementary schools in North Carolina in 1986 according to the perceptions of the teachers of those exemplary schools?

Question 6: What was the average leadership style adaptability among all principals of the exemplary elementary schools in North Carolina in 1986 according to the perceptions of the teachers of those exemplary schools?

In addition to examining the six primary research questions, the researcher also examined the following four secondary research questions:

Question 1: What was the prevalent leadership style, style range, and average style adaptability of the principal of school 0 as perceived by the teachers of school 0?

Question 2: What was the prevalent leadership style, style range, and average style adaptability of the principal

of school 1 as perceived by the teachers of school 1?

Question 3: What was the prevalent leadership style, style range, and average style adaptability of the principal of school 2 as perceived by the teachers of school 2?

Question 4: What was the prevalent leadership style, style range, and average style adaptability of the principal of school 3 as perceived by the teachers of school 3?

The researcher further examined the following four questions as they related to demographic variables:

Question 1: Was there a difference between the leadership style, style range, and style adaptability of principals of exemplary elementary schools in North Carolina in 1986 as perceived by the teachers of those schools when one considers the variable of gender?

Question 2: Was there a difference between the leadership style, style range, and style adaptability of principals of exemplary elementary schools in North Carolina in 1986 as perceived by the teachers of those schools when one considers the age of teachers?

Question 3: Was there a difference between the leadership style, style range, and style adaptability of principals of exemplary elementary schools in North Carolina in 1986 as perceived by the teachers of those schools when one considers the race of teachers?

Question 4: Was there a difference between the leadership style, style range, and style adaptability of principals of exemplary elementary schools in North Carolina in 1986 as perceived by the teachers of those schools when one considers the years of teaching experience of teachers?

Selection of the Population and the Sample

In considering a population from which to obtain critical data for the study, the researcher determined that the United States Department of Education's Elementary School Recognition Program would provide a unique grouping of elementary schools within North Carolina which have been determined to be exemplary by meeting established standards. Because of the held assumption that exemplary schools are administered by exemplary administrators, the principals of this select group of schools formed a population upon which to base research for an administrative leadership profile.

The four principals and 114 teachers of the four elementary schools in North Carolina which were distinguished as exemplary schools in 1986 by the United States Department of Education's Elementary School Recognition Program formed the research population. In order to be considered, the schools were required to comply with criteria established by the United States Department of Education. The criteria consisted of maintaining an

acceptable level in the following areas: school organization, instructional program, instruction, school climate, efforts to make improvements, school community relations, and student achievement. The entire research population was surveyed. The names of these principals and their schools were obtained from the National Commission on Excellence in Education in Washington, D.C., a division of the United States Department of Education.

Description of the Research Instrument

The Leadership Effectiveness and Adaptability Description (LEAD-Self/Other) was selected as the measurement instrument for the study. According to Greene (1980), the LEAD-Self measures specified aspects of leadership behavior as relates to Hersey and Blanchard's situational leadership theory model.

The LEAD-Self was developed to measure an individual's perception of his own leadership behavior. Three aspects of leadership behavior are assessed by the LEAD-Self instrument: leadership style, leadership style adaptability, and leadership style range. The LEAD-Self proposes 12 situations which require approximately ten minutes to complete. For each of the 12 situations the respondent must select, from the four alternate leader behavior styles, that leadership style which is most

representative of his behavior in that situation. The four alternative leadership styles are (a) High Task and Low Relationship, (b) High Task and High Relationship, (c) Low Task and High Relationship, and (d) Low Task and Low Relationship. The LEAD-Self varies the subordinates' maturity level in different situations. Each level of maturity is assigned three of the situations composing the instrument. The levels of maturity are low, low to moderate, moderate to high, and high (Hersey & Blanchard, 1977).

In scoring the LEAD-Self, one determines the number of responses the subject gives in each of the four basic leadership styles. The total number of responses in each style constitutes the leadership style score. The leadership style range is the distribution pattern of the responses throughout the four basic leadership styles. An individual may exhibit no style range, that is, all of the responses may fall into the same leadership style. On the other hand, an individual's style range may be wide and varied, that is, the responses may fall into two, three, or all four basic leadership styles. The leadership style range is determined by using the most frequently found leadership style score and the alternative styles that have at least two occurrences on the LEAD-Self instrument. Fifteen basic leadership style ranges are possible. The style range measures the degree to which a leadership style

varies from one situation to another. The score which illustrates how appropriate the leadership behavior response is to the maturity level of the subordinate in regard to situational leadership theory is called leadership adaptability. The leadership style adaptability score measures how appropriately the leadership style varies from one situation to another. (See Appendix A)

The LEAD-Other is the same instrument as the LEAD-Self with the exception that it is administered to those other than the leader.

Validation of the Instrument

Originally designed as a training instrument, as indicated by its brevity (12 times) and its relatively short time requirement (10 minutes), the LEAD-Self lends itself to serious research on leadership behavior. Therefore, researchers have made the LEAD-Self a popular tool in measuring leadership style, leadership style adaptability, and leadership style range.

In order to gain a better understanding of the research instrument it is necessary to understand the different types of validity addressed in the validation of LEAD-Self.

Green (1080) summarized the technical aspects of the LEAD-Self instrument and explained three types of validity.

Greene (1980) summarized the technical aspects of the LEAD-Self instrument as follows:

> The LEAD-Self was standardized on the responses of 264 managers constituting a North American sample. The managers ranged in age from 21 to 64; 30 percent were at the entry level of management; 55 percent were middle managers; 14 percent were at the high level of management.
>
> The 12 item validities for the adaptability score ranged from .11 to .52 and 10 of the 12 coefficients (83 percent) were .25 and higher. Eleven coefficients were significant beyond the .01 level and one was significant at the .05 level. Each response option met the operationally define criterion of less than 80 percent with respect to selection frequency.
>
> The stability of the LEAD-Self was moderately strong. In two administrations across a six-week interval, 75 percent of the managers 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.
>
> Several empirical validity studies were conducted. As hypothesized, correlations with the demographic/organismic variables of sex, age, years of experience, degree and management level were generally low, indicating the relative independence of the scales with respect to these variables. Satisfactory results were reported supporting the four style

> dimensions of the scale using a modified approach to factor structure. In 46 of the 48 item options (96 percent), the expected relationship was found. In another study, a significant ($p < .01$) correlation of .67 was found between the adaptability scores of the managers and the independent ratings of their supervisors. Based upon these findings, the LEAD-Self is deemed to be an empirically sound instrument. (Greene, 1980)

Data Collection

The data collection instruments selected for the study were the Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description (LEAD-Self) (Appendix B) AND (LEAD-Other) (Appendix C). Both instruments are the same with the exception that the LEAD-Other is to be used with those other than the leader. These instruments were developed by Hersey and Blanchard at the Center of Leadership Studies, Ohio State University. The LEAD-Self instruments for use in this study were purchased from the University Associates, Inc., San Diego, California.

The researcher developed a demographic survey instrument called the Personal Data Form (Appendix D) to gather demographic information on each individual surveyed in terms of gender, age, race, years of educational experience, as well as the job position and school classification.

The LEAD-Self or the LEAD-Other and the Personal Data Form were combined to form the Leadership Research Instrument. All three sections of the instruments were stapled together, and each section was numbered identically so that no confusion would result in matching Personal Data Forms to the LEAD-Self or LEAD-Other instruments.

The survey packages were mailed to School 2 and School 3 in a large envelope, while the researcher personally delivered survey packages to School 0 and School 1 which were in the local geographical area. Permission had been obtained in advance from each superintendent and principal involved in the study. (See Appendix E) Principals were requested to call the teachers together for the purpose of completing the questionnaires. These four schools constituted the entire population of the United States Department of Education's Elementary School Recognition Program in North Carolina during the school year 1986-1987. The survey package further included appropriate instructions for completing and returning the instrument,(principal, Appendix G; teacher, Appendix H), as well as individual prestamped, self-addressed envelopes for returning the surveys.

Analysis of the Data

A reporting of response frequencies and percentages was used in the treatment of the data. Procedures as prescribed by Hersey and Blanchard (1977) were used in scoring the LEAD instruments.

A LEAD self-scoring and analysis instrument was calculated and analyzed for each of the 99 respondents within the study. Total responses for each of the alternative styles were added at the bottom of column one. This procedure resulted in determining the total number of responses within each leadership style. The percentages of each leadership style were found by dividing the total responses of each leadership style within the particular subgroup--e.g., teachers, Caucasians--by the total possible responses within that particular subgroup. The majority leadership style range was determined by calculating each individual scoring form. Any leadership style that consisted of two or more responses fell within the leadership style range of that particular respondent. Each scoring form was grouped according to style range with the majority of common ranges within each subgroup being the style range for that particular subgroup. The style range was reported throughout the study by revealing the number of respondents who had chosen that particular range as well as

the percentage of the total respondents within that particular subgroup. The average leadership style adaptability score was determined by transferring each respondent's chosen alternative actions from column 1 to column 2 on the LEAD scoring and analysis instrument. Each column, a-d, was added and then multiplied by the given positive or negative number. The products were then added to determine each individual style adaptability. Each individual style adaptability was then added and divided by the total respondents within that particular subgroup to determine the average adaptability score for each subgroup (see Appendix A). The LEAD scores for each individual, along with each individual's demographic information from the Personal Data Form, were transferred onto a Data Sheet III computer card of the National Computer Systems. The completed cards were then scanned with the Sentry 3000 scanner using Asheville City Schools' IBM main frame computer system. The statistical package employed was Microtest Survey, published by the National Computer Systems, Inc. (1986). The statistical program tabulated the LEAD instrument and demographic data.

The LEAD-Self or LEAD-Other and the demographic data were compared and analyzed as they related to each question. This was accomplished by comparing and analyzing the frequency and percentage of respondents' perceptions of principals' leadership styles.

A narrative format was employed for reporting the data. Tables were developed for illustrative purposes.

Chapter IV

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

The purpose of this study was to identify and examine the leadership style, leadership style range, and leadership style adaptability, as defined by the LEAD-Self and LEAD-Other instruments, of the four North Carolina elementary school principals whose schools were designated as exemplary by the U.S. Department of Education's Elementary School Recognition Program in 1986. The leadership style, style range, and style adaptability were determined according to the perceptions of both teachers and principals within those exemplary elementary schools. The leadership style, style range, and style adaptability were further examined as they related to selected demographic variables.

The Leadership Effectiveness and Adaptability Description (LEAD-Self/Other) instruments were employed to gather the necessary data for this study. Data produced by the LEAD-Self/Other and the demographic information produced by a Personal Data Form were used to address the research questions. The leadership research instruments were administered to the 114 teachers and four principals of the four elementary schools which had been distinguished as

exemplary. Ninety-nine of 118 instruments were completed and returned representing a return of 86.8%. Follow-up phone calls were made to each school in an attempt to receive the missing 14.2%. This attempt resulted in no additional returns, so the researcher proceeded with an analysis of the data. The LEAD instruments were scored in accordance with methods prescribed by Hersey and Blanchard (1977).

A LEAD self-scoring and analysis instrument was calculated and analyzed for each of the 99 respondents within the study. Total responses for each of the alternative styles were added at the bottom of column one. This procedure resulted in determining the total number or responses within each leadership style. The percentages of each leadership style were found by dividing the total responses of each leadership style within the particular subgroup--e.g., teachers, Caucasians--by the total possible responses within that particular subgroup. The majority leadership style range was determined by calculating each individual scoring form. Any leadership style that consisted of two or more responses fell within the leadership style range of that particular respondent. Each scoring form was grouped according to style range with the majority of common ranges within each subgroup being the style range for that particular subgroup, e.g., range 1-2-3, range 2-3. The style range was determined by the number of

respondents having chosen that particular range as well as the percentage of the total respondents within that particular subgroup, e.g., teachers. The average leadership style adaptability score was determined by transferring each respondent's chosen alternative actions from column 1 to column 2 on the LEAD scoring and analysis instrument. Each column, a-d, was added and then multiplied by the given positive or negative number. The products were then added to determine each individual style adaptability. Each individual style adaptability was then added and divided by the total respondents within that particular subgroup to determine the average adaptability score for each subgroup (see Appendix A).

Research Questions

This researcher examined the following six primary research questions:

Question 1: What was the prevalent leadership style among all principals of the exemplary elementary schools in North Carolina in 1986 according to the perceptions of the principals of those exemplary schools?

Question 2: What was the prevalent leadership style range among all principals of the exemplary elementary schools in North Carolina in 1986 according to the perceptions of the principals of those exemplary schools?

Question 3: What was the average leadership style adaptability among all principals of the exemplary elementary schools in North Carolina in 1986 according to the perceptions of the principals of those exemplary schools?

Question 4: What was the prevalent leadership style among all principals of the exemplary elementary schools in North Carolina in 1986 according to the perceptions of the teachers of those exemplary schools?

Question 5: What was the prevalent leadership style range among all principals of the exemplary elementary schools in North Carolina in 1986 according to the perceptions of the teachers of those exemplary schools?

Question 6: What was the average leadership style adaptability among all principals of the exemplary elementary schools in North Carolina in 1986 according to the perceptions of the teachers of those exemplary schools.

In addition to examining the six primary research questions, the researcher also examined the following four secondary research questions:

Question 1: What was the prevalent leadership style, style range, and average style adaptability of the principal of school 0 as perceived by the teachers of school 0?

Question 2: What was the prevalent leadership style, style range, and average style adaptability of the principal of school 1 as perceived by the teachers of school 1?

Question 3: What was the prevalent leadership style, style range, and average style adaptability of the principal of school 2 as perceived by the teachers of school 2?

Question 4: What was the prevalent leadership style, style range, and average style adaptability of the principal of school 3 as perceived by the teachers of school 3?

The researcher further examined the following four questions as they related to demographic variables:

Question 1: Was there a difference between the leadership style, style range, and style adaptability of principals of exemplary elementary schools in North Carolina in 1986 as perceived by the teachers of those schools when one considers the variable of gender?

Question 2: Was there a difference between the leadership style, style range, and style adaptability of principals of exemplary elementary schools in North Carolina in 1986 as perceived by the teachers of those schools when one considers the age of teachers?

Question 3: Was there a difference between the leadership style, style range, and style adaptability of principals of exemplary elementary schools in North Carolina in 1986 as perceived by the teachers of those schools when one considers the race of teachers?

Question 4: Was there a difference between the leadership style, style range, and style adaptability of principals of exemplary elementary schools in North Carolina

in 1986 as perceived by the teachers of those schools when one considers the years of teaching experience of teachers?

Demographic Information

The Personal Data Form provided critical demographic information for this study. Four principals and 95 teachers of the four North Carolina exemplary elementary schools in 1986 participated in the study. Of this total, 34 teachers represented school 0, 33 teachers represented school 1, 15 teachers represented school 2, and 13 teachers represented school 3. Ninety-two females and three males were in this group. Caucasians constituted the larger number of the total with 77; there were 18 non-Caucasian teachers. In relation to teachers' age, there were 32 between the ages of 25 and 35, 41 between the ages of 36 and 45, 16 between the ages of 46 and 55, and 6 teachers over the age of 55. The researcher further examined the teachers' years of experience in the public schools. This sample represented 30 teachers with between 1 and 10 years teaching experience, 50 teachers with between 11 and 20 years, and 15 teachers with more than 20 years teaching experience. Tables 1 through 5 present the demographic data summarized above.

Table 1

Gender and Educational Position of Teachers and Principals

	Female	Male	Total
Teachers -	92	3	95
Principals -	1	3	4
Totals -	93	6	99

Table 2

Number of Teacher Respondents by School Classification

School Classification		Teacher Respondents
School 0	-	34
School 1	-	33
School 2	-	15
School 3	-	13
Total		95

Table 3

Race of Teacher Respondents

Race	-	Teacher Respondents
Caucasian	-	77
non-Caucasian	-	18
Total	-	95

Table 4

Age of Teacher Respondents

Age in Years				
25-35	36-45	46-55	Over 55	Total
32	41	16	6	95

Table 5

Years of Teaching Experience of Teacher Respondents

Years of Teaching Experience			
1-10	11-20	Over 21	Total
30	50	15	95

Analysis of the Data

A reporting of response frequencies and percentages was used in the analysis of the data. Procedures were used in scoring the LEAD-Self and LEAD-Other instruments as outlined by Hersey and Blanchard (1977). (See Appendix A) The LEAD scores for each individual, along with each individual's demographic information from the personal data form, were transferred onto Data III computer cards of the National Computer Systems. The completed cards were then scanned with the Sentry 3000 scanner using the Asheville City School's IBM main frame computer system. The statistical package employed was the Microtest Survey, published by National Computer Systems, Inc. (1986).

Scores on the LEAD-Self or LEAD-Other and the demographic data were compared and analyzed as they related to each question, using the computer. Tables were used to illustrate results of the analysis.

Presentation of Research Questions Data

The presentation of research question data in the following section has been reported by frequency number and percentage of response. The total responses in each of the four leadership styles were compiled and divided by the total possible responses within the particular subgroups.

Subgroups constitute a breakdown of total respondents, i.e., teachers, principals, Caucasians, non-Caucasians, et cetera. The results obtained from this procedure, when written as a percentage, will be a percentage of responses within each leadership style. (See example in Appendix A.) This method of reporting data will be followed throughout the study.

The study revealed the following frequency data as they related to the six primary research questions:

Question 1: What was the prevalent leadership style among all principals of the exemplary elementary schools in North Carolina in 1986 according to the perceptions of the principals of those exemplary schools?

The prevalent leadership style among all principals of the exemplary elementary schools in North Carolina in 1986 according to the perceptions of principals of those exemplary schools was Style 2--High Task, High Relationship--with 22 (or 45.8%) of all principals' responses exhibiting this High Task, High Relationship type of leader behavior. The second most prevalent leadership style was Style 3 - High Relationship, Low Task--with 14 (or 29.1%) of all principals' responses exhibiting this High Relationship, Low Task type of leader behavior. The third most prevalent leadership style was Style 1--High Task, Low Relationship with a frequency of seven (or 14.5%) of all responses revealing this High Task, Low Relationship style. The leadership style least perceived was Style 4 - Low

Relationship, Low Task--with a frequency of five (or only 10.6%) of all principals' responses revealing this Low Relationship, Low Task leader behavior.

Table 6, column 3, provides frequency and percentage data which address Question 1.

Question 2: What was the prevalent leadership style range among all principals of the exemplary elementary schools in North Carolina in 1986 according to the perceptions of the principals of those exemplary schools?

According to Hersey and Blanchard (1977) the method used to determine the leadership style range is to take the leadership style which receives the greatest number of frequencies and all other styles which receive two or more frequencies. Taken together these styles constitute the leadership style range. It was determined by following the prescribed procedure that the prevalent leadership style range among all principals of the exemplary elementary schools was the Style 1, Style 2, Style 3, and Style 4 range. The majority of principals who took part in this study perceived themselves as exhibiting the full range of leadership styles. This Style 1, 2, 3, 4 range was exhibited by two (or 50%) of the principals. That is, their leadership style ranged from Telling on one end of the continuum to Delegating on the other end.

Table 6, column four, presents frequency data which address Question 2.

Table 6

Leadership Styles, Style Range, and Style Adaptability
According to the Perceptions of Principals

I	II	III				IV			V
SUBGROUP	TOTAL RESPONDENTS	FREQUENCY/PERCENTAGE STYLES				STYLE RANGE PERCENTAGE			STYLE ADAPTABILITY (Effectiveness) -24 through +24
		1	2	3	4	2-3	1-2-3	1-2-3-4	
PRINCIPAL	4	7/14.5%	22/45.8%	14/29.1%	5/10.6%			50%	+15.5

Question 3: What was the average leadership style adaptability among all principals of the exemplary elementary schools in North Carolina in 1986 according to the perceptions of the principals of those schools?

Leadership style adaptability is a measure of leadership effectiveness as exhibited by the principal. Leadership style adaptability is measured on a continuum from -24 which is perceived as least effective to +24 which is perceived as most effective.

It was determined that the average leadership style adaptability score for all principals of North Carolina exemplary elementary schools in 1986 according to the perceptions of the principals of those schools was +15.5 on an effectiveness scale of -24 to +24. This relatively high score indicates that the principals perceived themselves as being very adaptable in leadership styles.

Table 6, column five, presents frequency and percentage data which address Question 3.

Question 4: What was the prevalent leadership style among all principals of exemplary elementary schools in North Carolina in 1986 according to the perceptions of the teachers of those exemplary schools?

The prevalent leadership style was Style 2--High Task, High Relationship. Five hundred seventeen (or 45.4%) of all teachers' responses revealed teachers perceiving their principals as exhibiting High Task, High Relationship type

of leader behavior. The second most prevalent leadership style was Style 3--High Relationship, Low Task. Three hundred thirty-four (or 29.3%) of all teachers' responses revealed teachers perceiving their principals as exhibiting High Relationship, Low Task type of leader behavior. The third most prevalent principal leadership style perceived by the teachers of those exemplary schools was Style 1--High Task, Low Relationship. Two hundred thirty-nine (or 21%) of the teachers' responses revealed teachers perceiving this High Task, Low Relationship style. Style 4--Low Relationship, Low Task--was the leadership style least perceived. Only fifty (or 4.3%) of the teachers' responses revealed teachers perceiving this Low Relationship, Low Task style. This indicates that the two most common leadership styles (almost 75%) in exemplary elementary schools involve high relationships.

Table 7, column three, provides frequency and percentage data which address Question 4.

Question 5: What was the prevalent leadership style range among all principals of the exemplary elementary schools in North Carolina in 1986 according to the perceptions of the teachers of those schools?

The procedures detailed in Question 2 to determine leadership style range were also used to determine style range as perceived by the teachers of those exemplary schools. It was determined that the prevalent leadership

Table 7

Leadership Styles, Style Range, and Style Adaptability
According to the Perceptions of Teachers

I	II	III				IV			V
SUBGROUP	TOTAL RESPONDENTS	FREQUENCY/PERCENTAGE STYLES				STYLE RANGE PERCENTAGE			STYLE ADAPTABILITY (Effectiveness) -24 through +24
		1	2	3	4	2-3	1-2-3	1-2-3-4	
TEACHER	95	239/21%	517/45.4%	334/29.3%	50/4.3%		49%		+7.5

style range among all principals of the exemplary elementary schools in North Carolina in 1986 according to the teachers' perception was the Style 1, Style 2, and Style 3 range. The teacher respondents perceived their principals as exhibiting primarily the Coaching Style (S2) with 517 (or 45.4%), second the Supporting Style (S3) with 334 (or 29.3%), and third the Directing Style (S1) with 239 (or 21%) of the teachers' responses. This style range represented 47 (or 49%) of the teachers. This indicates that almost half of the teachers perceived that their principal exhibited all the leadership styles except Delegating.

Table 7, column four, provides frequency and percentage data which address Question 5.

Question 6: What was the average leadership style adaptability among all principals of the exemplary elementary schools in North Carolina in 1986 according to the perceptions of the teachers of those schools?

The procedures detailed in Question 3 to determine leadership style adaptability were also used to determine style adaptability as perceived by the teachers of those exemplary elementary schools. It was determined that the prevalent leadership style adaptability score for all principals was +7.5 on an effectiveness scale of -24 to +24. This indicates that the teachers perceived only about half as much style adaptability as the principals perceived themselves to have.

Table 7, column five, provides frequency and percentage data which address Question 6. Table 8 presents a comparison of principals' and teachers' perceptions of leadership styles, style range, and style adaptability.

In addition to examining the six primary research questions, the researcher also examined four secondary research questions:

Question 1: What was the prevalent leadership style, style range, and average style adaptability of the principal of school 0 as perceived by the teachers of school 0?

In order to provide a comparison of school 0 teachers' perception with school 0 principal's perception, the data from LEAD-Self which was completed by the principal of school 0 were analyzed.

The self-perceived leadership styles of the principal of school 0 was Style 2 (66%), Style 3 (25%), Style 4 (9%) and no perception of Style 1. The teachers of school 0 perceived the principal as having Style 2 with 200 teachers' responses (or 49%), Style 3 with 97 teachers' responses (or 23.8%), Style 1 with 96 teachers' responses (or 23.5%), and Style 4 with 15 teachers' responses (or 3.7%). As for the perception of leadership style range, the principal of school 0 perceived himself as having a leadership style range of Style 2, Coaching 66% and Style 3, Supporting 25%, whereas the teachers perceived him as having a Style 1, Directing with 96 teachers' responses (or 23.5%); Style 2,

Table 8

Leadership Styles, Style Range, and Style Adaptability Comparing the Perceptions of Principals and Teachers

I	II	III				IV			V
SUBGROUP	TOTAL RESPONDENTS	FREQUENCY/PERCENTAGE STYLES				STYLE RANGE PERCENTAGE			STYLE ADAPTABILITY (Effectiveness) -24 through +24
		1	2	3	4	2-3	1-2-3	1-2-3-4	
PRINCIPAL	4	7/14.5%	22/45.8%	14/29.1%	5/10.6%		50%		+15.5
TEACHER	95	239/21 %	517/45.4 %	334/29.3%	50/4.3 %		49%		+ 7.5

Coaching with 200 teachers' responses (or 49%); and Style 3, Supporting with 97 teachers' responses (or 23.8%). This constituted 18 teachers (or 53%). In reference to leadership style adaptability, the principal had a self-perceived score of +15, whereas the teachers perceived him to have an average adaptability score of +6.7 on an effectiveness scale of -24 to +24.

Considerable agreement existed between the leadership styles perceived by both the principal and teachers of school 0. The difference which did occur involved a Directing style of leader behavior being perceived by the teachers while not being perceived by the principal. The data available were not sufficient to make a definitive statement as to the cause for this disagreement. One possible reason may have been that teachers perceived a more Directing style of leader behavior because they were in a subordinate relationship with the principal. A further possibility may be that the principal was simply not aware of the Directing aspect of his leadership style.

Table 9 provides the frequency and percentage data of teacher perceptions from Question 1. In order to compare the school 0 principal's and teachers' responses see Table 15.

Question 2: What was the prevalent leadership style, style range, and average style adaptability of the principal of school 1 as perceived by the teachers of school 1?

Table 9

Leadership Styles, Style Range, and Style Adaptability According to the Perceptions of Teachers by School Classification

I	II	III				IV			V
SUBGROUP	TOTAL RESPONDENTS	FREQUENCY/PERCENTAGE STYLES 1	2	3	4	STYLE RANGE PERCENTAGE 2-3	1-2-3	1-2-3-4	STYLE ADAPTABILITY (Effectiveness) -24 through +24
SCHOOL 0	34	96/23.5%	200/49%	97/23.8%	15/3.7%		53%		+12
SCHOOL 1	33	51/12.9%	172/43.4%	147/37.1%	26/6.6%		39%		+17
SCHOOL 2	15	32/17.8%	85/47.2%	59/32.8 %	4/2.2 %		60%		+14
SCHOOL 3	13	56/35.9%	58/37.1%	31/19.8 %	11/7.2 %		54%		+ 7

To continue a comparative analysis, the self-perception of the principal of school 1 was presented. The self-perceived leadership styles of the principal of school 1 was Style 2 (52%), and Styles 1, 3, and 4 (16%) whereas the teachers perceived the principal as having Style 2 with 172 teachers' responses (or 43.4%), Style 3 with 147 teachers' responses (or 37.1%), Style 1 with 51 teachers' responses (or 12.9%), and Style 4 with 26 teachers' responses (or 6.6%). As for the perception of the leadership style range, the principal of school 1 perceived himself as having a style range of Style 2 or Coaching (52%), Style 1 or Directing, Style 3 or Supporting, and Style 4 or Delegating (16%) or a Style 1-2-3-4 range. The teachers, on the other hand, perceived the principal as exhibiting a Style 1-2-3 range with 51 teachers' responses (or 12.9%) perceiving Style 1 or Directing; 172 teachers' responses (or 37.1%) perceiving Style 3 or Supporting. This constituted 13 teachers (or 39%). In reference to leadership style adaptability, the principal had a self-perceived score of +13, whereas the teachers perceived him as having an average adaptability score of +8.4 on an effectiveness scale of -24 to +24.

Agreement existed between the principal and teachers of school 1 concerning the prevalent leadership style being Style 2--High Task, High Relationship, although disagreement was found to some extent regarding the remaining three

leadership styles. The principal perceived himself as exhibiting a balance in relation to the remaining styles, whereas the teachers' responses revealed a perception of more Supporting leader behavior on the part of the principal. The data available were not sufficient to make a definitive statement as to the cause of this disagreement in perception. A possible reason may have been the principal had allowed the teachers more input into the decision-making process over a period of time and therefore the teachers may have felt they were supported and appreciated for their contributions. Table 9 also provides frequency and percentage data of teacher perceptions from Question 2. In order to compare the School 1 principal's and teachers' responses see Table 15.

Question 3: What was the prevalent leadership style, style range, and average style adaptability of the principal of school 2 as perceived by the teachers of school 2?

The self-perceived leadership styles of the principal of school 2 was Style 2 (33%), Styles 1 and 3 (25%), and Style 4 (17%), whereas the teachers perceived the principal as exhibiting Style 2 with 85 teachers' responses (or 47.2%), Style 3 with 59 teachers' responses (or 32.8%), Style 1 with 32 teachers' responses (or 17.8%), and Style 4 only four teachers' responses (or 2.2%). In comparing the perceptions regarding leadership style range, the principal of school 2 perceived himself as exhibiting the

Style 1-2-3-4 range, with 100% of his responses falling in this range. The teachers of school 2 also perceived the principal as having the Style 1-2-3 leadership with nine teachers (or 60%) falling in this range. The leadership style adaptability can also be compared with the principal perceiving an adaptability score of +16, whereas the teachers perceived an average +10.1 score on an effectiveness scale of -24 to +24.

Agreement prevailed between the principal and teachers of school 2 in almost all aspects of the question. The possible exception was a greater self-perception of the Delegating style of leader behavior by the principal. The available data were not sufficient to make a definitive statement concerning the cause of this difference in perception. One possible cause may have been that the principal had perceived himself as a delegator as a result of allowing the teachers more input into the decision-making process, whereas the teachers may have perceived this authority to contribute to the decision-making process as Supporting behavior of the principal.

Table 9 provides frequency and percentage data of teacher perceptions from Question 3. In order to compare the School 2 principal's and teachers' responses see Table 15.

Question 4: What was the prevalent leadership style,

style range, and average style adaptability of the principal of school 3 as perceived by the teachers of school 3?

As in the above three questions, the self-perception of the principal of school 3 was presented. The self-perceived leadership style of the principal of school 3 was Style 3 (50%), Style 2 (33%), Style 1 (17%), and no perception of Style 4, whereas the teachers of school 3 perceived the principal as having Style 2 with 58 teachers' responses (or 37.1%), Style 1 with 56 teachers' responses (or 35.9%), Style 3 with 31 teachers' responses (or 19.8%), and Style 4 with 11 teachers' responses (or 7.2%). The principal of school 3 perceived himself as exhibiting the Style 1-2-3 range with 100% of his responses falling in this range, whereas the teachers of school 3 also perceived the principal as having Style 1-2-3 range with seven teachers (or 54%) falling into this range. In relation to leadership style adaptability the principal of school 3 perceived himself as having an adaptability score of +18, whereas the teachers of school 3 perceived an average adaptability score of only +5 on an effectiveness scale of -24 to +24.

Disagreement in perception was more prevalent in school 3 than in any of the other schools. The principal of school 3 perceived himself as being primarily a Supporting leader which would involve allowing teachers to make a major contribution in the decision-making process. On the other hand, the teachers of school 3 perceived their principal as

exhibiting only a small amount of leader behavior which would allow for teacher autonomy. Another conflict in perception involved the teachers' perception of a strong Directing leadership from their principal, while the principal perceived only a slight Directing style. Furthermore, a wide difference in perception was revealed in relation to leadership style adaptability. The principal of school 3 perceived himself as being more adaptable in his leadership styles than any other principal in this study, whereas the teachers of school 3 perceived him as being less adaptable than any other principal in this study. It was not possible, based on the available data to propose a definitive statement as to the reason of this difference in perception: there are, however, a number of explanations as to possible cause. One explanation may have involved the small number of study participants responding from school 3. Another possibility may have been the existence of a crisis situation within school 3 which may have required a more Directing leadership from the principal. A further explanation may involve the period of time the principal had been at that particular school.

Table 9 further provides frequency and percentage data on teacher perceptions from Question 4. In order to compare the School 3 principal's and teachers' responses see Table 15.

This study further examined the following four questions as they related to demographic variables.

Question 1: Was there a difference between the leadership style, style range, and style adaptability of principals of exemplary elementary schools in North Carolina in 1986 as perceived by the teachers of those schools when one considers the variable of gender?

This study investigated the perceptions of both female and male teachers who were teaching in the North Carolina elementary schools chosen as being exemplary during the 1986 school year. The data revealed that the female teachers perceived the leadership style of the principals to be Style 2 with 496 teachers' responses (or 44.9%), Style 3 with 322 teachers' responses (or 29.2%), Style 1 with 236 responses (or 21.3%), and Style 4 leadership style receiving only 50 teacher's responses (or 4.6%). Whereas the male respondents perceived the principals as exhibiting somewhat similar leadership styles with Style 2 receiving 21 teachers' responses (or 33%), Style 1 received only three teachers' responses (or 9%), while Style 4 was not perceived as a principal leadership style. In relation to the leadership style range the female teachers perceived the principals as having a Style 1-2-3 range which constituted 38 teachers (or 41%) of the total. The males perceived only a Style 2-3 leadership range with two (or 75%) males falling in this range. Leadership style adaptability was somewhat different

with female teachers perceiving the principals to exhibit an average adaptability score of +7.4, while the males perceived the principals as having a score of +13 on an effectiveness scale of -24 to +24.

Consistency in perception held when one considered the variable of gender with the exception of the Directing style of leadership. The females perceived stronger Directing behavior from the principal than did the males involved in this study. Furthermore, there was a considerable difference in style adaptability. The data available were not sufficient to make a definitive statement as to the cause for this difference in perception, although there are some possible explanations as to the cause. One possibility may have been the (disproportionate) ratio between male and female participants. Another may have been the fact that most of the principals were male, whereas a large proportion of the teachers were female. The male teachers may have not perceived a strong Directing style because of being the same gender as the principals, or the male principals may have been more directing towards female teachers.

Table 10 presents frequency and percentage data which address demographic Question 1.

Question 2: Was there a difference between the leadership style, style range, and style adaptability of principals of exemplary elementary schools in North Carolina

Table 10

Leadership Styles, Style Range, and Style Adaptability According to the Perceptions of Teachers When Considering the Variable of Gender

I	II	III					IV			V
SUBGROUP	TOTAL RESPONDENTS	FREQUENCY/PERCENTAGE STYLES					STYLE RANGE PERCENTAGE			STYLE ADAPTABILITY (Effectiveness) -24 through +24
		1	2	3	4		2-3	1-2-3	1-2-3-4	
FEMALE	92	236/21.3%	496/44.9%	322/29.2%	50/4.6%			41%		+ 7.4
MALE	3	3/9%	21/58%	12/33%	0/0		75%			+13

in 1986 as perceived by the teachers of those schools when one considers the age of teachers?

In order to obtain information regarding the demographic variable of age of teacher the researcher divided age into the following four categories: 25-35, 36-45, 46-55, and over 55 years of age. The investigation revealed similar results in all areas. Data for the age category 25-35 revealed that the teachers perceived the principals as exhibiting Style 2 with 184 teachers' responses (or 48%), Style 3 with 88 teachers' responses (or 23%), Style 1 with 105 teachers' responses (or 27%), and Style 4 with 7 teachers' responses (or 2%). In the next age category 36-45, the teachers perceived the principals as having Style 2 with 221 teachers' responses (or 45%), Style 3 with 160 teachers' responses (or 33%), Style 1 with 87 teachers' responses (or 17%), and Style 4 with 24 teachers' responses (or 5%). In the following age category 46-55, the teachers perceived the principals as exhibiting Style 2 with 80 teachers' responses (or 42%), Style 3 with 60 teachers' responses (or 31%), Style 1 with 36 teachers' responses (or 19%), Style 4 only 16 teachers' responses (or 8%). In the final age category to be considered, over 55, the teachers perceived the leadership style of the principals to be Style 2 with 32 teachers' responses (or 45%), Style 3 with 26 teachers' responses (or 36%), Style 1 with 11 teachers'

responses (or 15%), and Style 4 was perceived only with three teachers' responses (or 4%).

Based on the above data, teachers perceived the principals as utilizing predominately the Style 2 or Coaching style of leadership behavior regardless of age category. According to Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership the majority of teachers should have been at maturity level M-2 for this S-2 style to have been effective. When one considers the teachers' perception of the principals' leadership style range it was found that all age categories perceived the principals as having the 1-2-3 style range. The average leadership style adaptability score offers further agreement. Age category 25-35 perceived the principals as having an adaptability score of +7.3 while the next age category 36-45 placed the adaptability score at +7.5. The third category 46-55 perceived the principals as having a score of +8.1, while the final category, over 55, perceived the principals as having an adaptability score of +7.3 on an effectiveness scale of -24 to +24. Consistency held when one considered the variable of age.

Table 11 presents frequency and percentage data which address demographic Question 2.

Question 3: Was there a difference between the leadership style, style range, and style adaptability of

Table 11

Leadership Styles, Style Range, and Style Adaptability According to the Perceptions of Teachers When Considering the Variable of Age

I	II	III				IV			V
SUBGROUP	TOTAL RESPONDENTS	FREQUENCY/PERCENTAGE STYLES				STYLE RANGE PERCENTAGE			STYLE ADAPTABILITY (Effectiveness) -24 through +24
		1	2	3	4	2-3	1-2-3	1-2-3-4	
AGE 25-35	32	105/27%	184/48%	88/23%	7/2%		56%		+7.3
AGE 36-45	41	87/17%	221/45%	160/33%	24/5%		41%		+7.5
AGE 46-55	16	36/19%	80/42%	60/31%	16/8%		63%		+8.1
AGE OVER 55	6	11/15%	32/45%	26/36%	3/4 %		56%		+7.3

principals by the teachers of those schools when one considers the race of teachers?

The researcher divided the race of the teacher respondents into Caucasian and non-Caucasian categories. The results of the investigation produced similar results with the exception of leadership style adaptability. Data revealed that Caucasian teachers perceived the leadership style of the principals to be primarily Style 2 with 426 teachers' responses (or 46%), followed by Style 3 with 277 teachers' responses (or 30%), Style 1 with 182 teachers' responses (or 20%), and last Style 4 with only 39 teachers' responses (or 4%) falling in this style. The data further revealed that non-Caucasian teachers teaching in these same exemplary elementary schools also perceived the principals as exhibiting primarily Style 2 with 91 teachers' responses (or 43%), followed by Style 1 and Style 3 with 57 teachers' responses each (or 26%) and with Style 4 having only 11 teachers' response (or 5%). In relation to leadership style range both the Caucasian and non-Caucasian teachers perceived the principals as having the 1-2-3 leadership style range. A contrast in perception can be seen in examining the leadership style adaptability scores. In investigating the leadership style adaptability scores, it was found that the Caucasian teachers perceived the principals as having an average adaptability score of +7.8, whereas the non-Caucasian teachers perceived the principals

as having an average adaptability score of only +5.9 on an effectiveness scale of -24 to +24. This does not constitute a significant difference in adaptability score.

Consistency was found when one considered the variable of race. Caucasian teachers perceived the principals as having a slightly higher style adaptability than did non-Caucasian teachers. Once again, the data available were not sufficient to make a definitive statement as to the cause for this difference in perception. However, one possible cause may have been the large amount of non-Caucasian teachers from the same geographical area. The majority of non-Caucasian teachers that participated in this study were from school 3. Another possible cause may have been the existence of a crisis situation within school 3 which required less style adaptability on the part of the principal. A further possibility may have been the relatively small number of participants responding from school 3.

Table 12 presents frequency and percentage data which address demographic Question 3.

Question 4: Was there a difference between the leadership style, style range, and style adaptability of principals of exemplary elementary schools in North Carolina in 1986 as perceived by the teachers of those exemplary schools when one considers the years of teaching experience of teachers?

Table 12

Leadership Styles, Style Range, and Style Adaptability According to the Perceptions of Teachers When Considering the Variable of Race

I SUBGROUP	II TOTAL RESPONDENTS	III FREQUENCY/PERCENTAGE STYLES 1	2	3	4	IV STYLE RANGE PERCENTAGE 2-3	1-2-3	1-2-3-4	V STYLE ADAPTABILITY (Effectiveness) -24 through +24
CAUCASIAN	77	182/20 %	426/46%	277/30%	39/4%		52%		+7.8
NON-CAUCASIAN	18	57/26 %	91/43 %	57/26 %	11/5 %		39%		+5.9

In order to obtain information regarding the demographic variable of teaching experience of teachers, the researcher divided teaching experience into the following three categories: 1-10 years, 11-20 years, and over 20 years. The investigation revealed similar results throughout the variable. Data for the category 1-10 years teaching experience revealed that the teachers perceived the leadership styles of the principal to be Style 2 with 171 teachers' responses (or 47.5), Style 3 with 103 teachers' responses (or 28.5%), Style 1 with 79 teachers' response (or 22%), and Style 4 with only seven teachers' responses (or 2%). The next category to be considered, 11-20 years of teaching experience, showed the perceived leadership Style 2 with 262 teachers' responses (or 43.7%), Style 3 with 176 teachers' responses (or 29.3%), Style 1 with 125 teachers' responses (or 20.8%), and Style 4 with 37 teachers' responses (or 6.2%). The last category to be considered, over 20 years teaching experience, revealed the teachers' perception of the principals leadership style to be Style 2 with 84 teachers' responses (or 46.6%), Style 3 with 55 teachers' responses (or 30.5%), Style 1 with 35 teachers' response (or 19.4%), and last Style 4 with only six teachers' responses (or 3.5%). Furthermore, agreement was shown in relation to the perceived leadership style range. All three categories of teaching experience of the teachers employed in the selected exemplary elementary schools

perceived their principals to exhibit the 1-2-3 leadership style range. Likewise, some consistency was found in relation to the principals' leadership style adaptability score as perceived by the teachers of all experience categories. In both categories 1-10 years and 11-20 years teachers perceived an average adaptability score of +8.4 and +7.5 respectively, whereas those teachers with over 20 years teaching experience perceived the principals as having an average adaptability score of +5.6 on an effectiveness scale of -24 to +24.

Consistency was also revealed when one considered the variable of years of teaching experience. Teachers with more than 20 years teaching experience perceived slightly less style adaptability on the part of the principal than teachers with less teaching experience. As stated previously, the data were not sufficient to make a definitive statement as to the cause for this difference in perception. A possible explanation may have been that as teachers gained more experience in the teaching profession they may have developed an independence of character where there was less need for a wide style adaptability on the part of the principal.

Table 13 presents frequency and percentage data which address demographic Question 4.

In concluding an analysis of the data of this study, the researcher has presented information related to the

Table 13

Leadership Styles, Style Range, and Style Adaptability According to the Perceptions of Teachers When Considering the Variable of Age

I	II	III				IV			V
SUBGROUP	TOTAL RESPONDENTS	FREQUENCY/PERCENTAGE STYLES				STYLE RANGE PERCENTAGE			STYLE ADAPTABILITY (Effectiveness) -24 through +24
		1	2	3	4	2-3	1-2-3	1-2-3-4	
EXPERIENCE 1-10	30	79/22%	171/47.5%	103/28.5%	7/2%		57%		+8.4
EXPERIENCE 11-20	50	125/20.8%	262/43.7%	176/29.3%	37/6.2%		42%		+7.5
EXPERIENCE OVER 20	15	35/19.4%	84/46.6%	55/30.5%	6/3.5%		60%		+5.6

perceptions of the total respondents. The total respondents perceived the leadership styles of the principals of exemplary elementary schools in North Carolina in 1986 to be Style 2 with 539 teachers' responses (or 45.4%), Style 3 with 348 teachers' responses (or 29.3%), Style 1 with 246 teachers' responses (or 20.7%), and last, Style 4 with 55 teachers' responses (or 4.6%) of those participating in the study. The leadership style range perceived by the total respondents was the Style 1-2-3 range, with an average +7.8 leadership style adaptability score perceived by the total responses.

The data indicate an overall perception of a broad style range being exhibited by the principals. Total respondents perceived the existence of all leadership styles with the exception of the Delegating style. The difference in style adaptability, however, indicates the principals perceived themselves as much more adaptable in their leadership styles than the total respondents perceived them.

Table 14 presents frequency and percentage data which address the responses regarding the perceived leadership style, style range, and style adaptability of the principals as perceived by the total respondents of the study. Table 15 presents summary tabulation of all subgroup responses to the LEAD instrument.

Table 14

Leadership Styles, Style Range, and Style Adaptability
According to the Perceptions
of Total Respondents

I	II	III				IV			V
SUBGROUP	TOTAL RESPONDENTS	FREQUENCY/PERCENTAGE STYLES				STYLE RANGE PERCENTAGE			STYLE ADAPTABILITY (Effectiveness) -24 through +24
		1	2	3	4	2-3	1-2-3	1-2-3-4	
TOTAL RESPONDENT	99	246/20.7%	539/45.4%	348/29.3%	55/4.6%		47%		+7.8

Table 15

Summary of Leadership Styles, Style Range, and Style Adaptability of All Subgroups According to the Perceptions of the Respondents

I	II	III				IV			V
SUBGROUP	TOTAL RESPONDENTS	FREQUENCY/PERCENTAGE STYLES 1	2	3	4	STYLE RANGE PERCENTAGE 2-3	1-2-3	1-2-3-4	STYLE ADAPTABILITY (Effectiveness) -24 through +24
PRINCIPAL	4	7/14.5%	22/45.8%	14/29.1%	5/10.6%			50%	+15.5
TEACHER	95	239/21 %	517/45.4%	334/29.3%	50/4.3%		49%		+ 7.5
TEACHER SCHOOL 0	34	96/23.5%	200/49%	97/23.8%	15/3.7%		53%		+ 6.7
PRINCIPAL SCHOOL 0	1	0/0	8/66%	3/25%	1/9%	100%			+15

Table 15 continued

Summary of Leadership Styles, Style Range, and Style Adaptability of All Subgroups According to the Perceptions of the Respondents

I SUBGROUP	II TOTAL RESPONDENTS	III FREQUENCY/PERCENTAGE STYLES 1	2	3	4	IV STYLE RANGE PERCENTAGE 2-3	1-2-3	1-2-3-4	V STYLE ADAPTABILITY (Effectiveness) -24 through +24
TEACHER SCHOOL 1	33	51/12.9 %	172/43.4%	147/37.1%	26/6.6%		39%		+8.4
PRINCIPAL SCHOOL 1	1	2/16.7 %	6/50 %	2/16.7%	2/16.7%			100%	+13
TEACHER SCHOOL 2	15	32/17.8%	85/47.2%	59/32.8%	4/2.2 %		60%		+10.1
PRINCIPAL SCHOOL 2	1	3/25 %	4/33 %	3/25 %	2/17%			100%	+16
TEACHER SCHOOL 3	13	56/35.9 %	58/37.1%	31/19.8%	11/7.2%		54%		+ 5
PRINCIPAL SCHOOL 3	1	2/17 %	4/33%	6/50%	0/0%		100%		+18
FEMALE	92	236/21.3%	496/44.9%	322/29.2%	50/4.6%		41%		+7.4
MALE	3	3/9%	21/58%	12/33%	0/0%	75%			+13
AGE 25-35	32	105/27%	184/48%	88/23%	7/2%		56%		+7.3
AGE 36-45	41	87/17%	22/45%	160/33%	24/5%		41%		+7.5

Table 15 continued

Summary of Leadership Styles, Style Range, and Style Adaptability of All Subgroups According to the Perceptions of the Respondents

I SUBGROUP	II TOTAL RESPONDENTS	III FREQUENCY/PERCENTAGE STYLES 1	2	3	4	IV STYLE RANGE PERCENTAGE 2-3	1-2-3	1-2-3-4	V STYLE ADAPTABILITY (Effectiveness) -24 through +24
AGE 46-55	16	36/19%	80/42%	60/31%	16/8%		63%		+8.1
AGE OVER 55	6	11/15%	32/45%	26/36%	3/4%		50%		+7.3
CAUCASIAN	77	182/20%	426/46%	277/30%	39/4%		58%		+7.8
NON-CAUCASIAN	18	57/26%	91/43%	57/26%	11/5%		39%		+5.9
EXPERIENCE 1-10	30	79/22%	171/47.5%	103/28.5%	7/2%		57%		+8.4
EXPERIENCE 11-20	50	125/20.8%	262/43.7%	176/29.3%	37/6.2%		42%		+7.5
EXPERIENCE OVER 20	15	35/19.4%	84/464.6%	55/30.5%	6/3.5%		60%		+5.6
TOTAL RESPONDENT	99	246/20.7%	539/45.4%	348/29.3%	55/4.6%		47%		+7.8

Summary

The research data revealed that the prevalent leadership style among all principals of the exemplary elementary schools in North Carolina in 1986 according to the perception of principals of those exemplary schools was Style 2 -- High Task, High Relationship -- with 22 responses (or 45.8%) of all principals perceiving themselves to exhibit that particular leadership style. Style 2 was also prevalent in the teacher category with 517 responses (or 45.4%) of all teachers perceiving the principals as exhibiting that particular leadership style. Consistency held in the total respondent category with Style 2 being chosen by 539 (or 45.4%) of the total. Furthermore, an examination of the four exemplary elementary schools taken individually revealed the same prevalent Style 2 leadership with the exception of the principal of school 3 which perceived the Style 3 leadership to be prevalent. The Style 2 -- High Task, High Relationship -- also held true in each of the demographic categories -- female, male, Caucasian, non-Caucasian, age 25-35, age 36-45, age 46-55, over 55, teaching experience between 1-10 years, 11-20 years, and over 20 years of teaching experience.

The Style 2 -- High Task-High Relationship behavior is comparable to Blake and Mouton's (1964) 9, 9 leadership style and is in agreement with current leadership

literature. Whereas High Task, High Relationship behavior may be desirable to the population as a whole, Hersey and Blanchard (1977; 1982) have disagreed with Blake and Mouton (1964) that it is the one best style. Hersey and Blanchard contended that the leadership style should be married to the maturity level of the subordinate.

The prevalent leadership style range for all principals of the exemplary elementary schools in North Carolina in 1986 according to the perceptions of the principals was the Style 1, Style 2, Style 3, and Style 4 range, while male teachers and the principal of school 0 maintained the Style 2 and Style 3 range. The remaining categories addressed in this study--teachers, total respondents, teachers of school 0, teachers of school 1, principal and teachers of school 2, principal and teachers of school 3 and teachers over 55--all perceived the Style 1, Style 2, Style 3 range of leader behavior. Furthermore, the same results held true in each of the demographic categories -- female, male, Caucasian, non-Caucasian, age 25-35, age 36-45, age 46-55, over 55, teaching experience between 1-10 years, 11-20 years, and over 20 years of teaching experience.

The average leadership style adaptability score for all principals of the exemplary elementary schools in North Carolina in 1986, according to the perception of the principals of those schools, was a +15.5 on an effectiveness scale of -24 to +24. Consistent with all principals, all

male teachers perceived principals as exhibiting an adaptability score of +13.

The major disagreement in relation to style adaptability was the perceptional difference between principals and males, as compared with all other subgroups. Once again, it was not possible to make a definite statement based on the available data. One possible explanation may have been the fact that the majority of principals were male. The male teachers may have perceived a higher style adaptability because of being the same gender as the principals.

Chapter V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This research study has involved an examination of the leadership behavior of elementary school principals administering those elementary schools which were designated by the United States Department of Education's Elementary School Recognition Program in 1986. The research was designated to identify the prevalent leadership styles, leadership style range, and leadership style adaptability of these principals according to the perceptions of both principals and teachers. The leadership styles, style range, and style adaptability were further investigated by each individual school according to the perception of the principal of that school as well as the perceptions of the teachers who taught in that school at the time that it was named an exemplary elementary school. Additionally, the exemplary elementary school principals' leadership style, style range, and style adaptability, according to the perceptions of the teachers of those schools , were investigated to determine whether these dependent variables were different when compared to gender of teachers, race of

teachers, age of teachers, and teaching experience of teachers.

Summary of Findings

Based upon a review of the literature, one finds leadership theory proceeding toward a more situational approach. Blake and Mouton (1964) integrated the research of Likert, Argyris, McGregor, and others into an easily understood tool for analyzing and attempting to change organization and management styles based on the balance between concern for production and concern for people.

Reddin's Three Dimensional Theory (1970), was based on the Ohio State Leadership Studies which was concerned with consideration and structure. Reddin in his Three Dimensional Theory assumed the possibility of both factors being present at once. Reddin maintained that each of his four basic leadership styles is effective under the right circumstances or situations.

The Situational Model of Leadership as developed by Hersey and Blanchard (1977) is an outgrowth of Reddin's Tri Dimensional Leader Effectiveness Model. Hersey and Blanchard proposed a third dimension to be the environment in which the leader is operating. They further stated that the maturity level of the group members in the environment is a critical factor that determines leadership style.

As a result of the investigation, it was postulated that this research would provide information concerning the leadership behavior of elementary school principals of exemplary elementary schools within North Carolina in 1986. The research would also provide information concerning the difference between this leadership behavior and selected demographic variables.

Validated leadership research instruments, the LEAD-Self/Other, were purchased and used so that an accurate measurement of the principals' leadership behavior would be insured. A simple demographic research instrument, a Personal Data Form, was developed for the purpose of acquiring critical demographic information. The research survey focused on four principals and 114 teachers of elementary schools within North Carolina which were selected as exemplary elementary schools by the United States Department of Education's Elementary Schools Recognition Program in 1986. The Elementary School Recognition Program office, a branch of the Excellence in Education Division, in Washington, D.C, provided the names of and mailing list for these schools.

The LEAD instruments were scored and interpreted using Hersey and Blanchard's (1977) prescribed procedures. The LEAD results along with the Personal Data Form, were input into the Asheville City Schools' IBM main frame computer

using the Microtest Survey from the National Computer Systems (1986).

There were six primary questions in this study, along with four secondary research questions. This researcher investigated four additional questions as they related to selected demographic variables. Findings based on those questions follow. The primary research questions of this study were the following:

Question 1: What was the prevalent leadership style among all principals of the exemplary elementary schools in North Carolina in 1986 according to the perceptions of the principals of those exemplary schools?

The research data revealed that according to the principals' perceptions, the prevalent leadership style among all principals in the selected North Carolina exemplary elementary schools during the 1986 school year was Style 2 -- High Task, High Relationship -- with 22 (or 45.8%) of the responses of all principals of those schools exhibiting this type of leader behavior.

Question 2: What was the prevalent leadership style range among all principals of the exemplary elementary schools in North Carolina in 1986 according to the perceptions of the principals of those exemplary schools?

The research data obtained from the principals who participated in this study further revealed that the prevalent leadership style range, self-perceived by the

principals, was the Style 1, Style 2, Style 3, and Style 4 range. The principals who participated in this study perceived themselves as exhibiting the complete range of leadership behavior.

Question 3: What was the average leadership style adaptability among all principals of the exemplary elementary schools in North Carolina in 1986 according to the perceptions of the principals of those exemplary schools?

The research data revealed that the average leadership style adaptability score according to the perceptions of the principals was +15.5 on an effectiveness scale of -24 to +24. The principals, therefore, perceived themselves as being on the upper end of the effectiveness scale.

Question 4: What was the prevalent leadership style among all principals of the exemplary elementary schools in North Carolina in 1986 according to the perceptions of the teachers of those exemplary schools?

The research data obtained from teachers participating in this study revealed that the teachers' perceptions agreed with the perceptions of the principals in regard to leadership style. The data revealed the prevalent leadership style to be Style 2 -- High Task, High Relationship -- with 517 responses (or 45.4%) of the responses of all teachers perceiving this particular behavior.

Question 5: What was the prevalent leadership style range among all principals of the exemplary elementary schools in North Carolina in 1986 according to the perceptions of the teachers of those exemplary schools?

The research data revealed a slight difference between the perceptions of the teachers and principals in regard to the prevalent leadership style range. Whereas the principals had perceived the leadership style range to be Style 1, Style 2, Style 3, and Style 4, the teachers perceived the principals to exhibit a more narrow range. The teachers perceived the principals as having a Style 1, Style 2, and Style 3 range. The teachers perceived predominantly a Coaching (S2) style with 517 responses (or 45.4%), second, a Supporting (S3) style with 334 responses (or 29.3%), and a Directing (S1) style with 239 responses (or 21%).

Question 6: What was the average leadership style adaptability among all principals of the exemplary elementary schools in North Carolina in 1986 according to the perceptions of the teachers of those exemplary schools?

The research data revealed an average adaptability score of +7.5 on an effectiveness scale of -24 to +24 according to the perceptions of the teachers participating in this study, although the principals perceived themselves as having a high adaptability score of +15.5.

In addition to examining the six primary research questions, the researcher also examined the following four secondary research questions:

Question 1: What was the prevalent leadership style, style range, and average style adaptability of the principal of school 0 as perceived by the teachers of school 0?

The self-perceived leadership styles of the principal of school 0 were Style 2 (66%), Style 3 (25%), Style 4 (9%), and no perception of Style 1. The teachers also perceived the principal as exhibiting Style 2 with 200 teachers' responses (or 49%), Style 3 with 97 teachers' responses (or 23.8%), and Style 4 with 15 teachers' responses (or 3.7%). Although agreement existed between teacher and principal as to the prevalent leadership style, there did exist a difference in perception as to the existence of the Style 1 or the Directing style of leadership behavior as perceived by the teachers of school 0.

As for the style range perceived by school 0, the principal perceived himself as having a Coaching and Supporting style range, but teachers further perceived him as having a Directing style.

In considering the leadership style adaptability score, the principal perceived himself as having an adaptability score of +15 whereas the teachers perceived the principal as having an average adaptability score of only +6.7 on an effectiveness scale of -24 to +24.

Question 2: What was the prevalent leadership style, style range, and average style adaptability of the principal of school 1 as perceived by the teachers of school 1?

The self-perceived leadership styles of the principal of school 1 were Style 2 (52%), Styles 1, 3, and 4 (16%), whereas the teachers of school 1 perceived the principal as having Style 2 with 172 teachers' responses (or 43.4%), Style 3 with 147 teachers' responses (or 37.1%), Style 1 with 51 teachers' responses (or 12.9%), and Style 4 with 26 teachers' responses (or 6.6%). The data show that agreement was found between the perceptions of the teachers and the principal of school 1, as was the case in school 0, in relation to the prevalent leadership style perceived.

As for the style range perceived by school 1, the principal perceived himself as having a Coaching, Directing, Supporting, and Delegating range, whereas the teachers perceived only a Coaching, Directing, and Supporting range as part of the principal's leader behavior.

In considering leadership style adaptability, the principal perceived himself as having an adaptability score of +13, whereas the teachers perceived him as exhibiting an average score of +8.4 on an effectiveness scale of -24 to +24.

Question 3: What was the prevalent leadership style, style range, and average style adaptability of the principal of school 2 as perceived by the teachers of school 2?

The self-perceived leadership styles of the principal of school 2 were Style 2 (33%), Styles 1 and 3 (25%), and Style 4 (17%), whereas the teachers perceived the principal as exhibiting Style 2 with 85 teachers' responses (or 47.2%), Style 3 with 59 teachers' responses or (32.8%), Style 1 with 32 teachers' responses (or 17.8%), and Style 4 only four teachers' responses (or 2.2%). The data show that agreement existed as to the prevalent leadership style being Style 2. Furthermore, there was general agreement as to the second and third most perceived styles as being Style 3 and Style 1, although there was difference noted in perception regarding Style 4.

As for the style range of the principal of school 2, the principal's self-perception was in agreement with that of the teachers in that they both perceived the principal as exhibiting the Coaching, Supporting, and Directing range of leader behavior, although the principal perceived himself as possessing the delegating style within the range.

In considering the leadership style adaptability score, the principal perceived himself as having an adaptability score of +16 while the teachers perceived the average adaptability score of the principal to be +10.1 on an effectiveness scale of -24 to +24.

Question 4: What was the prevalent leadership style, style range, and average style adaptability of the principal of school 3 as perceived by the teachers of school 3?

The self-perceived leadership styles of the principal of school 3 were Style 3 (50%), Style 2 (33%), Style 1 (17%), and no perception of Style 4, whereas the teachers of school 3 perceived the principal as having Style 2 with 58 teachers' responses (or 37.1%), Style 3 with 31 teachers' responses (or 19.8%), and Style 1 with only 56 teachers' responses (or 35.9%). The data show a disagreement between the perceptions of the principal and teachers of school 3 in relation to the prevalent leadership style exhibited by the principal. The principal perceived himself as exhibiting the Style 3 or Supporting style, whereas the teachers perceived him as exhibiting the Coaching style followed within 3 percentage points by the Directing style of leader behavior.

As for the leadership style range, the principal as well as the teachers of school 3 perceived the principal as having a Style 1, 2, 3 range of leader behavior. One hundred percent of the principal's responses fell into the Style 1, 2, 3 range, while 145 (or 92.8%) of the teachers' responses exhibited the Style 1, 2, 3 range of leader behavior.

In considering the leadership style adaptability score, the principal of school 3 perceived himself as having an adaptability score of +18, whereas the teachers of school 3 perceived an average adaptability score of only +5 on an effectiveness scale of -24 to +24. This difference in

adaptability score perception constitutes a greater difference in perception than in any other school in this study.

This study further examined the following four questions as they related to demographic variables:

Question 1: Was there a difference between the leadership style, style range, and style adaptability of principals of exemplary elementary schools in North Carolina in 1986 as perceived by the teachers of those schools when one considers the variable of gender?

This researcher investigated the perceptions of both female and male teachers who were teaching in North Carolina elementary schools chosen to be exemplary during the 1986 school year. The data revealed that the female teachers perceived the leadership styles of principals to be Coaching, Style 2 with 496 teachers' responses (or 44.9%), Supporting, Style 3 with 322 teachers' responses (or 29.2%), Directing, Style 1 with 236 teachers' responses (or 21.3%), and the Delegating, Style 4 leadership receiving only 50 teachers' responses (or 4.6%). The male respondents revealed a similar perception of the principals' leadership styles with 21 (or 58%) of the responses exhibiting Coaching, Style 2, 12 teachers' responses (or 33%) exhibiting Supporting, Style 3, three teachers' responses (or 9%) exhibiting Directing, Style 1, while the Delegating, Style 4 was not perceived as a principal leadership style.

In regard to the leadership style range, the female teachers perceived a range of Styles 1, 2, and 3, whereas the male teachers perceived only a Style 2, 3 range. Agreement failed to exist concerning the perceptions of leadership style adaptability scores. The females perceived an average adaptability score of only 7.4, whereas the males perceived the score to be +13 on an effectiveness scale of -24 to +24.

Since the ratio of female to male participants of this study was so unevenly divided, ninety-two females compared to three males, it was decided not to consider the difference in perception based on the variable of gender.

Question 2: Was there a difference between the leadership style, style range, and style adaptability of principals of exemplary elementary schools in North Carolina in 1986 as perceived by the teachers of those schools when one considers the age of teachers?

In order to obtain information regarding the demographic variable of age of teacher, the researcher divided the age of teachers into the following four categories: Age 25-35, Age 36-45, Age 46-55, and over 55. Agreement was held in all four categories with the prevalent leadership style being Coaching, Style 2, followed closely by Supporting, Style 3.

When one considers the teachers' perception of leadership style range it was found that all categories

perceived principals as having the Style 1, Style 2, and Style 3 range of leader behavior.

The teachers' perception of the principals' leadership style adaptability score further agreed when one considered the age of teachers.

Question 3: Was there a difference between the leadership style, style range, and style adaptability of principals of exemplary elementary schools in North Carolina in 1986 as perceived by the teachers of those schools when one considers the race of teachers?

The researcher divided the race of the teacher respondents into Caucasian and non-Caucasian categories. The results of the investigation produced similar results. Research data revealed that Caucasian and non-Caucasian teachers perceived the leadership styles of the principals to be primarily Coaching, Style 2, followed by Supporting, Style 3. The third style perceived by both races, Directing, Style 1, was perceived by the teachers as having considerable importance, whereas Delegating, Style 4, was perceived by only a few of both races.

In relation to the leadership style range both the Caucasian and non-Caucasian teachers perceived the principals as having the Style 1, Style 2, and Style 3 range. Neither Caucasian nor non-Caucasian teachers perceived the principals as exhibiting the Delegating or Style 4 range of leader behavior to any great extent.

A slight contrast can be seen in an examination of the difference in the leadership style adaptability scores when one considers the race of teachers. In investigating the leadership style adaptability scores, it was found that Caucasian teachers perceived principals as exhibiting an average adaptability score of +7.8, whereas non-Caucasian teachers perceived principals as having an average adaptability score of only +5.9 on an effectiveness scale of -24 to +24. This difference in perception was not deemed to be significant.

Question 4: Was there a difference between the leadership style, style range, and style adaptability of principals of exemplary elementary schools in North Carolina in 1986 as perceived by the teachers of those schools when one considers the years of teaching experience of teachers?

In order to obtain information regarding the demographic variable of teaching experience of teachers, the researcher divided teaching experience into the following three categories: 1-10 years 11-20 years, and over 20 years teaching experience. The investigation revealed similar results through the variable. Data from all three categories revealed that the teachers perceived the primary leadership style of the principals to be Coaching, Style 2, followed by Supporting, Style 3, and Directing, Style 1. The Delegating style of leader behavior, Style 4, was

perceived by only a few of the teacher respondents regardless of years of teaching experience.

Furthermore, agreement was found in relation to the perceived leadership style range. The respondents in all three categories of teaching experience of the teachers employed in the selected exemplary elementary schools perceived the principals to exhibit the Style 1, Style 2, and Style 3 leadership style range.

Likewise, some consistency was found in relation to the principals' leadership style adaptability scores as perceived by the teachers of all experience categories. In both categories 1-10 Years and 11-20 Years teachers perceived an average adaptability score of +8.4 and +7.5 respectively, whereas those teachers with over 20 years teaching experience perceived principals as having an average adaptability score of only +5.6 on an effectiveness scale of -24 to +24. Likewise, this difference in perception was not deemed significant.

The researcher has presented data related to the perceptions of the total respondents. The total respondents perceived the leadership styles of the principals of exemplary elementary schools in North Carolina in 1986 to be primarily Coaching, Style 2, followed by Supporting, Style 3, Directing, Style 1, and last Delegating, Style 4.

The leadership style range perceived by the total respondents of this study was the Style 1, Style 2, and

Style 3 range, with an average +7.8 leadership style adaptability score perceived by the total respondents.

General Conclusions

The following conclusions are drawn from the findings of this study:

1. The prevalent leadership style among principals of exemplary elementary schools in North Carolina in 1986 was the Style 2--High Task, High Relationship--type of leadership behavior.

2. The prevalent leadership style range among principals of exemplary elementary schools in North Carolina in 1986 was Coaching, Supporting, Directing, and Delegating range of leader behavior.

3. The average leadership style adaptability, or effectiveness score, among principals of exemplary elementary schools in North Carolina in 1986 ranged between +5 and +18 on an effectiveness scale of -24 to +24.

4. Agreement between teachers' perceptions of leadership style, style range, and style adaptability was not found when one considered the variable of gender. It was decided not to draw any conclusions because of the disproportionate percentage of female and male participants.

5. Agreement was found between teachers' perceptions of leadership style when one considered the variables of

teachers' age, teachers' race, and teachers' length of teaching experience. The prevalent leadership style was Coaching, followed closely by Supporting, and to a smaller degree Directing.

From the findings of this study one could conclude that the leadership behavior of principals administering exemplary elementary schools in North Carolina is affected very little by demographics, as there was only a slight difference evident in the study.

With a prevalent leadership style of Style 2, the Coaching type of leader behavior, perceived by both principals and teachers of those exemplary elementary schools, these principals attempt to persuade their teachers to accept psychologically and perform operationally the behaviors desired by the principal. The followers of these principals are confident and willing to take responsibility but are unable to do so for the moment because of lack of skill. However, it should be kept in mind that the style depends on the individuals' maturity level. These principals of exemplary elementary schools who maintain the second most prevalent leadership style, Style 3, or Supporting leader behavior, involve their followers in participatory decision-making and play the basic roles of facillitator and communicator. Their followers tend to be very capable, but reluctant, to assume responsibility.

With a prevalent leadership style range of Style 1, Style 2, and Style 3, perceived throughout the study, these principals of exemplary elementary schools are perceived to exhibit a reluctance to delegate authority to a great extent to teachers, as required by Style 4 leader behavior. Based on Situational Leadership Theory, the maturity of the followers reporting to these principals should range from immature to a level of moderately high maturity. This may or may not actually be the case in their schools, although a leader is only as effective as he is perceived to be.

What is significant about these findings is that a variety of leadership styles are needed for the effective administration of our public elementary schools. Regardless of gender, age, race, or years of teaching experience of the teachers, school administrators who maintain and practice a variety of leadership styles are those most likely to be successful. They prove to be highly effective leaders exhibiting superior abilities in adapting their leadership style to given situations. Their basic leadership style is the Style 2--High Task, High Relationship--type of leadership behavior referred to as the Coaching style of leadership.

Implications

The effective leader characteristics revealed in this study support and strengthen the profile found in a review of the literature.

Situational Leadership studies investigated in a review of the literature indicate that a positive relationship exists between leadership style effectiveness and high relationship behavior as perceived by subordinates. The researchers revealed that an agreement exists between subordinates in relation to perceived leadership behavior. Based on the findings of this study it was concluded that effective leaders should exhibit a high relationship behavior. They should lead the organization into a type of symbolic clan where the clan's values are pondered, new goals are envisioned, and plans for achieving them are laid. Following this plan of action, subordinates may buy into the organization and allow the organization to begin operating as a team.

It was further concluded that effective leadership requires far more extensive teacher participation in decision-making than the traditional hierarchial setting affords. Leaders should give teachers a strong sense of importance by making it possible for them to exercise professional judgment and to make important decisions that

enhance student learning. Based on the perception of a strong supporting style, this seems to be taking place.

Motivational studies investigated in the literature revealed leadership moving from a Theory X toward a Theory Y approach. Researchers have found a need for superordinates to provide for higher order needs or motivation as they lead the organization toward a team approach. This study added support to the literature by finding effective principals being perceived by their subordinates as exhibiting primarily the High Task, High Relationship behavior of Coaching, followed closely by the High Relationship, Low Task behavior of Supporting.

Related studies in the literature also reveal a concern by effective leaders to structure the working environment to provide for the satisfaction of subordinates higher order needs. Although few researchers concluded that job performance leads to satisfaction rather than satisfaction leading to job performance, the majority of researchers found that leader behavior affects subordinates' job satisfaction. It was further revealed in the literature that no one leader behavior is related to all subordinates' need areas. This study, by indicating a need for multiple leadership styles, gave support to the literature in the area of Situational Leadership and subordinates' need satisfaction.

The need and significance of this study was to provide a description of the leadership styles used by principals in exemplary elementary schools in North Carolina. This information should be of great value to the principals involved in the study and to all principals in elementary schools as they strive for excellence. The impact of this study should be significant as school administrators attempt to increase their effectiveness by adapting their leadership styles to the situation.

Recommendations For Further Study

Based upon the findings and conclusions of this research, the following recommendations for further research are made:

1. Further research should be conducted on elementary principals' perceptions of leadership styles of all principals of selected exemplary elementary schools in the United States.

2. Further research should be conducted to determine the differences between the leadership styles of principals of selected exemplary elementary schools and principals of schools determined to be significantly inferior.

3. Further study should be conducted to determine whether the leadership styles of the principals of selected

exemplary elementary schools support the higher order needs as proposed by Maslow.

4. Further research should be conducted to determine the differences between the leadership behavior of principals of exemplary elementary schools and principals of exemplary secondary schools.

5. Further research should be conducted which could support the development of a complete administrative profile for exemplary elementary school principals.

Recommendations To Educators

Based upon the findings and conclusions of this research, the following recommendations are made:

1. Educators should identify and become familiar with their personal leadership styles.

2. Educators should identify and broaden the extent of their leadership style range.

3. Educators should determine and increase their adaptability of leadership styles.

4. Educators should take into consideration the maturity level of their staff and attempt to increase this maturity level.

5. Educators should structure the organization in such a manner as to allow for more participative decision-making on the part of their staff.

6. Educators should utilize the team approach to organizational leadership, thereby allowing the staff to develop "ownership" within the organization.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

LEAD SCORING AND ANALYSIS

APPENDIX B

LEAD-SELF

APPENDIX C

LEAD-OTHER

APPENDIX D

PERSONAL DATA FORM

VANCE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

98 SULPHUR SPRINGS ROAD
ASHEVILLE, NORTH CAROLINA 28806
CHARLES CUTSHALL, PRINCIPAL

PERSONAL DATA FORM

Directions

You are requested as a participant in the study to respond to each of the items applicable to you on this form. Please respond by making a cross or by writing in the space the appropriate response that will describe you and your profession. This information will be seen only by me the person conducting the study. Anonymity is assured through codification of this form. No school or person involved will be referred to directly or indirectly. Your cooperation is sincerely needed in order to conduct the study.

Personal Data

1. Position: Principal _____ Teacher _____
2. Sex: Female _____ Male _____
3. Age: 25-35 _____ 36-45 _____ 46-55 _____ 56 or over ____
4. Race: Caucasian _____ Non-Caucasian ____
5. Principal's Length of Service as a Administrator: _____
6. Years of Experience: 1-10 ____ 11-20 ____ 21 or over ____
7. Classroom Teacher _____ Support Teacher or Assistant Principal ____

APPENDIX E

PERMISSION LETTERS

R E S P O N S E F O R M

To: James T. Hall
44 Brown Road
Asheville, North Carolina 28806

From: _____ School District

Research topic: "A Study of Leadership Style Range and Adaptability of Elementary School Principals in North Carolina Schools of Recognition."

_____ Permission is granted for you to use the selected elementary school named below in your study.

Name of Selected Elementary School _____

Address _____

_____

_____ Permission is not granted for you to use the above named elementary school in your study.

Signature _____
Superintendent

R E S P O N S E F O R M

To: James T. Hall
44 Brown Road
Asheville, North Carolina 28806

From: _____ School District

Research topic: "A Study of Leadership Style Range and Adaptability of Elementary School Principals in North Carolina Schools of Recognition."

_____ Permission is granted for you to use the selected elementary school named below in your study.

Name of Selected Elementary School _____

Address _____

_____

_____ Permission is not granted for you to use the above named elementary school in your study.

Signature _____
Principal

APPENDIX F

COVER LETTER

VANCE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

98 SULPHUR SPRINGS ROAD
ASHEVILLE, NORTH CAROLINA 28806
CHARLES CUTSHALL, PRINCIPAL

44 Brown Road
Asheville, North Carolina 28806

Dear Sir:

I am a doctoral student in the Department of Educational Administration at the University of North Carolina/Greensboro. My dissertation is being directed by Dr. H. C. Hudgins, Jr. I am in the research phase of my doctoral studies and therefore I need your help. I respectfully and sincerely solicit your permission and aid in collecting the data for my dissertation from an elementary school within your district.

My dissertation is entitled "A Study of Leadership Style Range and Adaptability of Elementary School Principals in North Carolina Schools of Recognition." Participation of the elementary school principal and teachers from selected schools is needed in order to complete the study.

The principal and selected teachers will be asked to complete the Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description (Lead) instrument. The LEAD instrument contains 12 items dealing with leadership situations. Completion of the instrument should not take more than ten minutes of the respondents' time. A copy of a "Personal Data Form" and LEAD-Self instrument (to be completed by the principal) are enclosed for your examination. The Lead-Self and LEAD-Other are the same except that the LEAD-Other (to be completed by the teacher) reflects the respondents' perceptions of the leader's style of leadership.

Your consideration and help is of the upmost importance for the completion of my dissertation. Please complete and return the enclosed "Response Form" as soon as possible. No school or person involved will be referred to directly or indirectly. Thank you for your help.

Sincerely yours,

James T. Hall

APPENDIX G

SUPPLEMENTARY INSTRUCTIONS - PRINCIPALS

VANCE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

98 SULPHUR SPRINGS ROAD
ASHEVILLE, NORTH CAROLINA 28806
CHARLES CUTSHALL, PRINCIPAL

Subject: Supplementary instructions

To: Elementary School Principals

From: James T. Hall
44 Brown Road
Asheville, N. C. 28806

Please do each of the following:

1. Please call all certified teachers together in order to complete the LEAD-Other questionaire at one time.
2. You may designate a responsible individual within the school to d istribute, collect, and return the data collecting instruments or you may choose to do this yourself.
3. Complete the "Personal Data Form."
4. Complete the LEAD-Self instrument.
5. Place the completed "Personal Data Form: and completed LEAD-Self instrument in the envelope labeled principal and seal it.
6. Give the sealed envelope to the individual assigned to return the completed data collection instruments to me.
7. If there are questions of clarification please call 704-667-8011 after 5:00 P. M.

Thank you for helping with this important research.

APPENDIX H

SUPPLEMENTARY INSTRUCTIONS - TEACHERS

VANCE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

98 SULPHUR SPRINGS ROAD
ASHEVILLE, NORTH CAROLINA 28806
CHARLES CUTSHALL, PRINCIPAL

Subject: Supplementary instructions for teacher participants

To: Elementary School Teachers

From: James T. Hall
44 Brown Road
Asheville, N. C. 28806

Please do each of the following:

1. Complete the "Personal Data Form."
2. Complete the LEAD-Other instrument.
3. Place the completed "Personal Data Form" and completed LEAD-Other instrument in the envelope that is labeled Teacher and seal it.
4. Give the sealed envelope to the individual assigned to return the completed data collection instruments to me.

No school or person participating will be identified in any way related to this study.

Thank you for participating in this important research study.

APPENDIX I

LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

THE UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA
AT GREENSBORO
School of Education

October, 1987

Dear Sir:

Please accept this letter as an introduction of James T. Hall, who is working on his Doctor of Education degree in Educational Administration at the University of North Carolina/Greensboro. His doctoral dissertation is entitled "A Study of Leadership Style Range and Adaptability of Elementary School Principals in North Carolina Schools of Recognition." Mr. Halls' dissertation is being directed by Dr. H. C. Hudgins, Jr.

The study will require the participation of an elementary school principal and teachers from the same school. Thank you for assisting Mr. Hall in obtaining the data needed to complete his dissertation.

Sincerely,

H. C. Hudgins, Jr. M. Ed., Ed. D.
School of Education
University of North Carolina/
Greensboro

APPENDIX J

SUPERINTENDENT'S LETTER

VANCE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

98 SULPHUR SPRINGS ROAD
ASHEVILLE, NORTH CAROLINA 28806
CHARLES CUTSHALL, PRINCIPAL

44 Brown Road
Asheville, North Carolina 28806

Dear Superintendent:

Thank you for allowing me to conduct a survey of the elementary school principal's basic leadership style in the selected elementary school of your district. The survey was conducted in regard to my dissertation study at the University of North Carolina/Greensboro.

The principal and selected teachers did an excellent job of completing and returning the Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description (LEAD-Self and LEAD-Other) instruments and "Personal Data Form." Your cooperation and support is appreciated.

Annonymity of persons and place associated with this study is assured. Again, thank you, the principal, and participating teachers for a task well done.

Sincerely yours,

James T. Hall

APPENDIX K

PRINCIPAL'S LETTER

VANCE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

98 SULPHUR SPRINGS ROAD
ASHEVILLE, NORTH CAROLINA 28806
CHARLES CUTSHALL, PRINCIPAL

44 Brown Road
Asheville, North Carolina 28806

Dear Principal:

Your superintendent has granted permission for me to conduct a survey of your perceptions and the perceptions of selected teachers of your leadership style. I will need your cooperation and help in completing my study. Your elementary school is one of the four elementary schools selected in 1986 for recognition by The United States Department of Education.

My dissertation is being directed by Dr. H. C. Hudgins, Jr.. The dissertation is entitled "A Study of Leadership Style Range and Adaptability of Elementary School Principals in North Carolina Schools of Recognition."

You and all certified teachers within this school are asked to complete the Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description (LEAD) instrument. Completion of this instrument should not take more than ten minutes of your time or of the teachers' time.

Supplementary instructions and the instruments that are to be completed by you and the participating teachers are enclosed. Please complete and return the instruments and "Personal Data Forms" as soon as possible. No school or person participating will be identified in any way in the study. Thank you for helping me with this important study.

At the conclusion of this study, you will receive a confidential report of your leadership style range and adaptability, based on the perception of your teachers.

Sincerely yours,

James T. Hall

APPENDIX L

PERMISSION FROM PUBLISHER

VANCE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

98 SULPHUR SPRINGS ROAD
ASHEVILLE, NORTH CAROLINA 28806
CHARLES CUTSHALL, PRINCIPAL

February 8, 1988

Permissions Department
William Morrow and Company
105 Madison Avenue
New York, New York 10016

Dear Sir:

I am requesting permission to reproduce the following figures in my doctoral dissertation.

Documents extracted from Leadership and the One Minute Manager, by Kenneth Blanchard, Patricia Zigarmi, and Drea Zigarmi, 1985, Published by William Morrow and Company, Inc.

Figure:	page 56 Leadreship Styles Appropriate for the Various Development Levels
Figure:	page 68 Situational Leadership II

I used the LEAD - Self and the LEAD-Other instruments to evaluate the leadership behavior of principals of those exemplary elementary schools in North Carolina so designated by the U. S. Department of Educations Elementary School Recognition Programs in 1986.

The title of my disseration is: "A Study of Leadership Style, Style Range, and Style Adaptability of Elementary School Principals in North Carolina Schools of Recognition."

I am currently studying at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro in the area of Educational Administration. This information is necessary to clarify the measurement instrument used in my research and to document Hersey and Blanchard's theory of leadership in Chapter II, Review of the Literature. Thank you!

Sincerely yours,

James T. Hall, Assistant Principal

THE UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA
AT GREENSBORO

School of Education

January 15, 1988

Ms. Maureen Shriver
Center for Leadership Studies
230 West 3rd. Avenue
Escondido, California 92025

Dear Ms. Shriver:

I am requesting permission to reproduce the following documents, figures, and tables in my doctoral dissertation.

Documents extracted from the 4th. edition of Management of Organizational Behavior, by Paul Hersey and Kenneth Blanchard, 1982, published by Prentice-Hall.

Table 3-5	Page 66
Figure 4-10	Page 98
Figure 4-1	Page 99
Figure 13-1	Page 296
Figure 13-2	Page 297

Documents purchased from University Associates, Inc.
LEAD - Self
LEAD - Other

I used the LEAD-Self and LEAD-Other instruments to evaluate the Leadership behavior of principals of those exemplary elementary schools in North Carolina so designated by the U. S. Department of Education's Elementary School Recognition Programs in 1986.

The title of my disseration is: "A Study of Leadership Style Range and Adaptability of Elementary School Principals in North Carolina Schools of Recognition."

I am currently studying at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro in the area of Educational Administration. This information is necessary to clarify the measurement instrument used in my research and to document Hersey and Blanchard's theory of leadership in Chapter II, Review of the Literature.

If you desire to obtain more information on this subject, I recommend for your reading the work done by Paul Hersey and Kenneth Blanchard, Management of Organizational Behavior (4th Edition), Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1982.

Again, thank you for your participation.

Sincerely yours,

James. T. Hall, Assistant Principal
Vance Elementary School

LEADERSHIP
STUDIES

230 W. THIRD AVE.
ESCONDIDO,
CALIFORNIA
92025-4180

619/741-6595

January 25, 1988

Mr. James T. Hall
Assistant Principal
VANCE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL
44 Brown Road
Asheville, N.C. 28806

Dear Mr. Hall:

This refers to your letter dated January 15, 1988.

You have our permission to reproduce the documents extracted from the Management of Organizational Behavior per your above letter. However, for dissertation inclusion, please be sure the following words are conspicuously located on the top of the front page of the form: "Copyrighted Materials from Leadership Studies, Inc. All Rights Reserved. Used with Permission."

You may also use the LEAD-Self and LEAD-Other instruments in your doctoral dissertation -- provided they are acquired through the established process of purchase from University Associates. A *Resource Guide is enclosed for your review.*

Sincerely,

Donald A. Brown
Vice President

DAB/aae

Enclosure: Resource Guide

APPENDIX M

PRINCIPAL'S REPORT

VANCE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

98 SULPHUR SPRINGS ROAD
ASHEVILLE, NORTH CAROLINA 28806
CHARLES CUTSHALL, PRINCIPAL

February 15, 1988

Dear Principal:

Thank you for completing and returning the leadership research instrument. Your cooperation is greatly appreciated. This study of leadership behavior among the principals of the exemplary elementary schools of North Carolina could not have been done without your participation.

Your leadership behavior on the LEAD-Other instrument as perceived by your teachers was identified as:

LEADERSHIP STYLE	PERCENTAGES OF RESPONSES
Style 1 - High Task and Low Relationship	_____
Style 2 - High Task and High Relationship	_____
Style 3 - High Relationship and Low Task	_____
Style 4 - Low Task and Low Relationship	_____

These leadership style scores indicate that your basic leadership style is _____ with a secondary leadership style of _____.

Your LEADERSHIP ADAPTABILITY SCORE was: _____

For your information, 83 percent of the scores (nationwide) range from -6 to +6 on Hersey and Blanchard's leadership adaptability scale which ranges from -24 to +24.

Your leadership range, as indicated by your leadership style scores is the _____ range.

For comparison the prevalent leadership style indicated by the research population of elementary school principals was Style 2. The second most prevalent leadership style was Style 3. The mean leadership adaptability score for this research group was 12.5. The prevelant leadership range for these principals was the Style 1, Style 2, and Style 3 range. The Style 2 and Style 3 range was the second most prevalent leadership range indicated by these exemplary school teachers.

APPENDIX N

LEAD TECHNICAL INFORMATION

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY FOR THE LEAD-SELF MANUAL

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January 1980

The LEAD-Self measures specified aspects of leader behavior in terms of the Situational Leadership theoretical model. The LEAD-Self yields four ipsative style scores and one normative adaptability (effectiveness) score. The scale was originally designed to serve as a training instrument, and the length of the scale (12 items) and time requirement (10 minutes) clearly reflect the intended function. Recently, however, several researchers have requested technical information about the scale, and the LEAD-Self Manual addresses these requests.

The manual contains a discussion of the Situational Leadership Model, format of the scale, characteristics of ipsative measures, standardization procedures, item derivation and selection, estimates of reliability, logical validity, empirical validity, types of scores, and normative information. Administration and scoring procedures are also included.

The LEAD-Self was standardized on the responses of 264 managers constituting a North American sample. The managers ranged in age from 21 to 64; 30% were at the entry level of management; 55% were middle managers; 14% were at the high level of management.

The 12 item validities for the adaptability score ranged from .11 to .52, and 10 of the 12 coefficients (83%) were .25 or higher. Eleven coefficients were significant beyond the .01 level and one was significant at the .05 level. Each response option met the operationally defined criterion of less than 80% with respect to selection frequency.

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.

Several empirical validity studies were conducted. As hypothesized, correlations with the demographic/organismic variables of sex, age, years of experience, degree and management level were generally low, indicating the relative independence of the scales with respect to these variables. Satisfactory results were reported supporting the four style dimensions of the scale using a modified approach to factor structure. In 46 of the 48 item options (96%), the expected relationship was found.