The relationship between the actual and ideal leadership styles of high school assistant principals over selected district instructional objectives

T. Brock Morris

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The relationship between the actual and ideal leadership styles of high school assistant principals over selected district instructional objectives

Morris, T. Brock, Ed.D.

University of Nevada, Las Vegas, 1990
THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE ACTUAL AND IDEAL LEADERSHIP STYLES OF HIGH SCHOOL ASSISTANT PRINCIPALS OVER SELECTED DISTRICT INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

by

T. Brock Morris

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Education

in

Educational Administration and Higher Education

Department of Educational Administration and Higher Education
University of Nevada, Las Vegas
May, 1990
The Dissertation of T. Brock Morris for the degree of Ed.D. in Higher Education is approved.

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University of Nevada
Las Vegas, Nevada
May, 1990
ABSTRACT

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE ACTUAL AND IDEAL LEADERSHIP STYLES OF HIGH SCHOOL ASSISTANT PRINCIPALS OVER SELECTED DISTRICT INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

T. Brock Morris

The problem this study focused on was, what was the relationship between the actual and ideal leadership styles of high school assistant principals over selected district instructional objectives. In completing the research for this study, the situational leadership style and readiness theories of Paul Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard were used.

Their theories regarding the relationship between a leader's actual and ideal leadership styles were applied to the assistant principals and teachers of nine high schools of the Clark County School District in Southern Nevada. A random sampling of these teachers were given the Readiness Style Match survey developed by Hersey and Blanchard. The results provided actual and ideal style data for three objective from the district's Performance Criteria Log. An attached questionnaire regarding the moderating variables of teacher age, sex, length of experience, and length of tenure was also given.
Using a Partial Correlation analysis, the data was processed to provide partial correlation coefficients on the relationship between actual and ideal styles of assistant principals for three selected objectives, while controlling for the above mentioned moderating variables.

The results indicated that there was no positive relationship between the actual and ideal leadership styles of high school assistant principals for the selected objectives. However, frequency data indicated that a linear situation, necessary for satisfactory correlations, did not exist. Therefore, partial correlation procedures proved to be less than reliable for analysis.
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Whatever contribution this study makes to the advancement of knowledge about actual and ideal leadership style of high school assistant principals, there are many individuals who must be recognized for their invaluable assistance in the completion of this project. First I would like to give a special thanks to my advisor, Dr. Carl Steinhoff, and my committee members, Dr. Anthony Saville, Dr. George Samson, and Dr. Gary Jones for their advice and guidance in completing this project.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Human productivity was a major issue for the modern organization. In looking at both the quality and quantity of the work done, productivity reflected the effectiveness and efficiency with which organizational goals were attained. The responsibility for organizational productivity rested with its leadership. Researchers spent a great deal of time, energy, and money to find out how leaders could be more effective in accomplishing the organization's goals through its human resources. Effective leadership separated successful organizations from unsuccessful ones (Hersey and Blanchard 85). It was one of the most fundamental, yet scarcest elements of any organization, and there was a continual search for those individuals with the necessary skills and abilities to be effective leaders. The search was not limited to a particular class of organization, but extended through business, industry, education, and every other form of organization.

In education, leaders had to be prepared to deal with subordinates who could withdraw their support at any time. Teachers could quit, seek transfers, or reduce their effort. The inability of administrators to deal with such problems,
or the fact that administrators were the cause of the problem, was precisely what sparked the present-day need for leadership in public schools (Owens 31).

Situational leadership was one of the major theories that shaped the modern view of the leadership process. It required leaders to behave in a flexible manner and to adjust their style according to the situation (Hersey and Blanchard 106).

One of the major variables of situational leadership was subordinate readiness to accomplish a particular goal or task in the organization (174). This readiness, which was a combination of subordinate ability and willingness, provided a preferred or ideal leadership style that when used by an administrator, would be considered as the most effective style in getting followers to accomplish objectives. The level of match between an administrator's actual and ideal leadership styles would then have a significant impact on the effectiveness or ineffectiveness of the human resources to accomplish the organization's goals (135). The level of this match would, therefore, be one indication of organizational effectiveness and a measure of the internal state of that organization.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The purpose of this study was to determine the relationship between the actual situational leadership style
of Clark County high school assistant principals as measured by the *Readiness Style Match* survey (Hersey and Blanchard 186) and the ideal situational leadership style for these individuals as measured by the *Readiness Style Match Matrix*, (Hersey and Blanchard 300-301), for three objectives from the Performance Criteria Log used by the Clark County School District for standardized evaluation of teachers.

The following sub-problems guided research:

1. Determine the relationship between the actual situational leadership style of high school assistant principals as measured by the *Readiness Style Match* survey, and the ideal style for these individuals as measured by the *Readiness Style Match Matrix*, using objective three of the Performance Criteria Log, with adjustments made for teacher age, sex, length of experience, and length of tenure.

2. Determine the relationship between the actual situational leadership style of high school assistant principals as measured by the *Readiness Style Match* survey, and the ideal style for these individuals as measured by the *Readiness Style Match Matrix*, using objective four of the Performance Criteria Log, with adjustments made for teacher age, sex, length of experience, and length of tenure.

3. Determine the relationship between the actual situational leadership style of high school assistant principals as measured by the *Readiness Style Match* survey, and the ideal style for these individuals as measured by the
Readiness Style Match Matrix, using objective five of the Performance Criteria Log, with adjustments made for teacher age, sex, length of experience, and length of tenure.

DELIMITATIONS

This study was restricted to the following:
1. The leadership styles practiced by high school assistant principals of the Clark County School District, Las Vegas, Nevada.
2. Readiness behaviors of a random sampling of high school teachers of Clark County.
3. The use of a quasi-experimental research design to determine the degree of the relationship between the actual and ideal (based on teacher readiness) leadership styles of high school assistant principals, for three objectives from the Performance Criteria Log; as measured by a partial correlation analysis.
4. The concept of Effectiveness as defined by Hersey and Blanchard.
5. The levels of match of Situational Leadership and Readiness as defined by Hersey and Blanchard.

LIMITATIONS

This study was limited to the following:
1. The responses of teachers from nine high schools in the Clark County School District.
2. The use of Partial Corr to analyze data.
3. The use of the Alpha Test as a determiner of reliability.
4. The use of teacher responses only when individuals or schools were not identified.

DEFINITIONS

**Leadership**: the process of influencing the activities of an individual or a group in efforts toward goal achievement in a given situation (Hersey and Blanchard 86).

**Task Behavior**: the extent to which the leader engages in spelling out the duties and responsibilities of an individual or group (172).

**Relationship Behavior**: the extent to which the leader engages in two-way communication (172).

**Situational Leadership**: an interplay in the amount of task behavior and relationship behavior a leader provides according to the readiness level of followers. This will be measured by the **Readiness Style Match** instrument (170).

**Ability**: the knowledge, experience, and skill that an individual or group brings to a particular task or activity (175).

**Willingness**: the extent to which an individual or group has the confidence commitment, and motivation to accomplish a specific task (175).

**Readiness**: the extent to which a follower has the ability and willingness to accomplish a specific task. This will be
Effectiveness: describes the internal state, or predisposition of an individual or group to accomplish goals (129).

METHOD OF RESEARCH

The preferred or ideal style, based on teacher readiness levels, for the three Performance Criteria Log Objectives, served as the independent variable for the study. The dependent variable for the study was the actual leadership style used by the assistant principal, as perceived by the teacher, for each of the Performance Criteria Log Objectives. The moderating variables included teacher: age, sex, length of experience, and length of tenure.

The Readiness Style Match, developed by Hersey and Blanchard, provided the necessary information on the readiness levels of teachers for each objective and the leadership style of assistant principals for each objective. Added to this, was a data sheet on the moderating variables discussed above.

The Readiness Style Match survey and a form for moderating variables was sent to a random sampling of high school teachers in Clark County. For each objective, teachers were asked to identify their readiness level, and the leadership style of their immediate supervisor, that is, the individual who did their classroom performance...
evaluation. They were then asked to respond appropriately to the moderating variables.

The situational leadership of assistant principals was the focus of attention for this study because these individuals generally had responsibility for the classroom performance evaluation of certified staff.

There were six evaluation objectives on the Performance Criteria Log of the Clark County School District. The three that were used for this survey were selected because of their more direct relationship with teacher and student interaction in the classroom.

When the data were returned and processed, they were analyzed statistically through a Partial Correlation Analysis to verify the relationships and their significance for independent and dependent variables, while controlling for moderating variables.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The concept of Contingency Leadership, or Situational Leadership as described by the studies of Paul Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard, indicated that the focus in the situational approach was on observed behavior, not on any proposed inborn or acquired ability or potential for leadership. Three main components of the leadership process were identified: the leader, the follower, and the situation (Hersey & Blanchard 115). Situational approaches examined
the interplay among these variables in order to identify what relationships led to what predictable kinds of behavior. In developing their model, Hersey and Blanchard combined these three elements with the concepts of task behavior and relationship behavior that were identified from the Consideration and Initiating Structure theories of the Ohio State Studies (116). From the combination of these concepts, they designed four basic leader behavior quadrants and labeled them: High task and low relationship, high task and high relationship, high relationship and low task, and low relationship and low task (Hersey and Blanchard 116).

To these quadrants they added an effectiveness dimension to integrate the concepts of leader style with the situational demands of a specific environment. This suggested that when the style of a leader was appropriate to a given situation, it was termed effective; when the style was inappropriate to a given situation, it was termed ineffective.

If the effectiveness of a leader behavior style depended on the situation in which it was used, it followed that any of the basic styles could be effective or ineffective, depending on the situation. The difference between the effective and ineffective styles was often not the actual behavior of the leader but the appropriateness of this behavior to the situation in which it was used.

From these basic concepts, Hersey and Blanchard designed
their model. It identified the four leadership quadrants as telling (high task/low relationship), selling (high task/high relationship), participating (low task/high relationship), and delegating (low task/low relationship). A bell-shaped curve moved through the quadrants indicating the leadership style to be used according to the readiness level of followers (182). When a leader behavior was used appropriately with its corresponding level of readiness, it was termed a High Probability Match and therefore, effective (117). When a less appropriate style was used, the probability match moved along a continuum away from effective and toward ineffective. This had an effect on the internal state of the organization and ultimately on the ability of that organization to accomplish the goals it required from its human resources.

NULL HYPOTHESES

1. There will be no significant positive relationship between the actual situational leadership style of high school assistant principals as measured by the Readiness Style Match survey, and the ideal style for these individuals as measured by the Readiness Style Match Matrix, for objective three of the Performance Criteria Log, with adjustments made for teacher age, sex, length of experience, and length of tenure; using a significance level of .05.

2. There will be no significant positive relationship
between the actual situational leadership style of high school assistant principals as measured by the Readiness Style Match survey, and the ideal style for these individuals as measured by the Readiness Style Match Matrix, for objective four of the Performance Criteria Log, with adjustments made for teacher age, sex, length of experience, and length of tenure; using a significance level of .05.

3. There will be no significant positive relationship between the actual situational leadership style of high school assistant principals as measured by the Readiness Style Match survey, and the ideal style for these individuals as measured by the Readiness Style Match Matrix, for objective five of the Performance Criteria Log, with adjustments made for teacher age, sex, length of experience, and length of tenure; using a significance level of .05.

RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

1. There will be a significant positive relationship between the actual situational leadership style of high school assistant principals as measured by the Readiness Style Match survey, and the ideal style for these individuals as measured by the Readiness Style Match Matrix, for objective three of the Performance Criteria Log, with adjustments made for teacher age, sex, length of experience, and length of tenure; using a significance level of .05.

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ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY

Chapter one of this study included a brief introduction, an outline of the purpose of the study, and the procedures followed. In addition, it contained hypotheses, delimitations, and questions that guided data collection and analysis.

Chapter two was a review of related literature involving Situational Leadership, leadership effectiveness, and the leadership responsibilities and effectiveness of assistant principals.
Chapter three detailed the procedures and statistical designs necessary to collect and analyze data.

Chapter four discussed the findings of the data as a result of the statistical processes used.

Chapter five presented conclusions and recommendations relative to the study along with a brief restatement of the problem and a summary.
CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

LEADERSHIP: HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

Until fairly recent, it was generally assumed that the world was divided into leaders and followers, the leaders being a select few who could drive or inspire other men to achieve more than they would ordinarily (Filley and House 39). This view quickly disappeared, but still left much to learn about the nature of leadership. Filley and House, in the book, Managerial Process and Organizational Behavior, summed it up this way, "One of the most researched and least understood variables of the management process is leadership" (391).

Early work in leadership research was directed toward identifying and distinguishing the characteristics, or traits of leaders, with leader being defined as any person holding an office (393). Interest in this trait approach grew from practical necessity during World War I. The U.S. Army was interested in efficiently screening and selecting persons for military service. Help from the American Psychological Association was sought and a group of researchers was assembled. They worked together to produce such noteworthy
accomplishments as the Army Alpha Intelligence Test and a rating scale of officers' qualifications for service (Stogdill 35-65). These fulfilled a pragmatic demand for tests of leadership that could be administered easily and scored quickly and quantitatively. With the conclusion of the war, industry continued the research for use in screening new personnel.

The trait studies were designed to determine the leader's intellectual, social, emotional, physical, and personal makeup in order to discover if there existed any universal traits in effective leaders that would distinguish them from less effective leaders. Trait Theory asserted that there were a finite number of identifiable characteristics or traits of successful and effective leaders, and that these traits differentiated those successful leaders from those that were considered unsuccessful (Filley and House 394).

The trait approach, like most personality theories, produced some interesting questions about the origin of leadership traits. For example, what caused some people to develop traits of leadership while others did not (Adams and Yoder 3)? The result from such questions was that personality theorists became caught in the nature-nurture controversy. The basic question that confronted them was whether the traits of leadership were the result of inherent (nature) or learned (nurture) capabilities (3)? Many researchers began to feel that there was no conclusive
findings in favor of the trait theory and they started looking in other directions (Miller 10).

Several theorists of the time advanced the view that the emergence of a great leader was the result of time, place, and circumstances (Boucher 5). Although this theoretical approach in itself was not conclusive in explaining the leadership phenomena, it marked the first recognition of environmental factors as being important to successful leadership.

Influenced by trends in psychology, particularly behaviorism and operant conditioning, researchers shifted their focus to the behavior of the leader, i.e. "the kinds of activities that the leader engages in when fulfilling a leadership role" (6). They looked at traits such as intelligence, emotional stability, adaptability, and tolerance of uncertainty (Filley and House 394).

The difference in trait and behavioral theory was that trait theory attempted to explain leadership on the basis of what the leader was in terms of the personality characteristics or traits which they had internalized, whereas the behavior or style theorists attempted to explain leadership on the basis of what they did when they led (Adams and Yoder 4).

In a classic study of leadership style done in 1939, Lewin, Lippit, and White identified three fundamental styles of leadership: autocratic, democratic, and laissez-faire
Autocratic leaders centralized power in themselves and dominated the decision-making process of the group (272). The group succeeded or failed according to the effectiveness of the autocratic leaders themselves.

Leaders who exhibited a democratic style shared their power and responsibilities with group members (Lewin et al. 272). Their leadership required strong open lines of communication so that all group members participated fully in group activities. Decision making was slow with this style because the ideas of all group members had to be solicited and discussed before decisions were made.

In contrast, laissez-faire leadership was like no leadership at all. No one formally or informally shouldered the responsibility of leadership, and the group often floundered when it was forced to make a decision (272-73).

To this list, other researchers added more behavioral leadership styles, all attempting to pinpoint the specifics of leadership behavior. For example, the supportive leader was one who endeavored to create a social climate in which each person wanted to do his best and not need compulsion. He also provided general rather than close supervision, and encouraged his subordinates to use their own initiative in handling the details of their jobs (Filley and House 395).

The instrumental leader planned, organized, controlled, and coordinated the activities of his subordinates. Taken
together, these activities were described as instrumental leadership activities, since they were viewed as functions that the leader performed in order to achieve group accomplishment of organizational objectives (395-96).

The "great man" was one showing both instrumental and supportive leadership behaviors and was an effective leader in any situation (Filley and House 396).

The representative leadership style was one where the leaders acted as spokesmen and representatives of the group (Stogdill 143).

The persuasive leadership style used persuasion and argument effectively and exhibited strong convictions (143).

The important point here was that behavioral theories of leadership style, because they focused on leaders themselves, stressed the power or influence of leaders. The type of influence described was flowing downward from powerful leaders to followers. The problem, however, was that leadership style did not exist in isolation, but it interacted with the situation and the followers, and this made up the complete group picture. The behaviorists, despite their efforts, failed to account for this and the fact that leaders really did not behave in standard and predictable ways (Roueche and Baker 50).

The theories of traits and behavioral leadership style did not address the questions of how leaders emerged and maintained their positions. These approaches also ignored
the interaction of leaders with followers and hence failed to contribute in these areas. Both perspectives envisioned a one-way flow of power from leader to follower (Bass-Stogdill 81).

From these beginnings the most extensive and rigorous leadership studies in the world were done at Ohio State University in the late 1940's and early 1950's (Reddin-Managerial 20). This research attempted to determine what behavior the leader exhibited when directing the activities of the group toward a common goal. On the basis of job analysis studies and other practical and theoretical information, the research staff defined nine descriptive items or dimensions of leader behavior. They were:

1. Initiation
2. Membership
3. Representation
4. Integration
5. Organization
6. Domination
7. Communication
8. Recognition
9. Production (Shartle 116)

In the statistical analysis it was found that many of the dimensions of leader behavior were not unique and were closely related to each other. Thus, the original nine were condensed into the following three:

1. A maintenance of membership factor -- behavior that increases a leader's acceptability to the group. It is heavily loaded with low domination and high membership dimension.
2. Objective attainment -- behavior high in the production and organization dimensions.
3. Group interaction facilitation -- behavior or acts stressing the mechanics of effective interaction of group members. Loadings high were organization and communications (Shartle 117).
This work was later refined considerably into two dimensions rather than three: 1. Consideration and 2. Initiating Structure (121).

Consideration was associated with behavior indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect, and a certain warmth in the relationship between administrator and staff. It was concerned with the extent to which the executive, while carrying out his leadership functions, was considerate of his subordinates (Shartle 121).

Initiating Structure was when the executive organized and defined the relationship between himself and the members of his staff. He defined the role which he expected each member of the staff to assume and endeavored to establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and ways of getting jobs done (122).

To date, most leadership research has been based on the Ohio State Studies and the theory of Initiating Structure and Consideration. They described leader behavior on two separate axes, rather than on a single continuum (McMurray and Bentley 4). They found that these task and relationship behaviors, as they became known, were separate dimensions and not mutually exclusive. The major contribution of the studies was in defining and describing the behavior and roles displayed by leaders (Boucher 6).

Roles were expectations about how all people in a given position should think or act, and they did not exist within
individuals as traits did, but arose from the social context in which they took place (Adams and Yoder 11). The leadership role was not static but changed with the situation and differed among groups and within a specific group over time (11). It was upon these differences in groups and situations that caused the research in leadership to focus on the study of leadership roles and on situations. Parsons and Bales, for example, observed two types of leader roles that emerged in certain groups: instrumental and socioemotional, or expressive (Parsons and Bales 46-47). The instrumental role concentrated on task elements of the group, whereas the socioemotional role dealt with member satisfaction, morale, and group atmosphere (46-47). Note that these positions were not created by qualities that a leader brought to the group; rather they were developed by the group itself as necessary functions to be combined with suitable individuals.

In researching the situational element in which leadership took place, it was found to be divided into three aspects: interpersonal, organizational, and societal (Adams and Yoder 12-13). The interpersonal component was reflected in thinking of leadership as a role, about how people should think and act in a given position (12).

Leadership also occurred within a given organization and, was in turn, shaped by the characteristics of that organization. It asked questions about whether the organization was flat or hierarchical, centralized or

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Leadership was practiced within specific societal or cultural contexts and hence was influenced by norms. Norms, in contrast with roles, were expectations about how all people should think and act in all positions (Adams and Yoder 13).

The idea began to develop that effective leadership was not determined by what the leader was, or how the leader behaved, but by the situation, and that effective leadership was a situational or "contingency" event requiring different behaviors for different situations or environments (Roueche and Baker 50). Accordingly, leadership research conducted within this perspective did not seek to identify universal leadership characteristics; but was directed toward discovering situational variables that either allowed or caused certain kinds of leader characteristics and behaviors to be effective.

Effective leadership, then, resulted from the right combination of situational favorability and leadership style. The key to effective leadership was the degree to which the leader's style and the properties of the situation were well matched.

Since the initial research of the Ohio State Studies, numerous authors have used Initiating Structure and
Consideration as the foundation for their work, or in support of the situational or contingency leadership approach. Some of the most prominent authors that have used initiating structure and consideration, or contingency approaches, were presented here.

HALPIN

Andrew W. Halpin, one of the original researchers on the Ohio State Studies, created four quadrants according to the various combinations of consideration and initiating structure (Figure 1).

The leaders described in Quadrant I are evaluated as highly effective, whereas those in Quadrant III, whose behavior is ordinarily accompanied by group chaos, are characterized as most ineffective. The leaders in Quadrant IV are the martinet and the "cold fish" so intent upon getting a job done that they forget they are dealing with human beings, not with cogs in a machine. The individuals described in Quadrant II are also ineffective leaders. They may ooze with the milk of human kindness, but this contributes little to effective performance unless their consideration behavior is accompanied by a necessary minimum of initiating structure behavior (Halpin 98-99).

LIKERT

Rensis Likert developed a management system instrument designed to collect data about the operating characteristics of an organization, such as leadership, motivation, communication, interaction, decision making, goal setting, and control process (Likert-Human 4-10).
Figure 1
HALPIN'S LEADERSHIP QUADRANTS

Consideration

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Initiating Structure</th>
<th>Mean of Consideration Scores</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C - S +</td>
<td>(IV)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C + S +</td>
<td>(I)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C - S -</td>
<td>(III)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C + S -</td>
<td>(II)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The instrument was set up to describe the various aspects of the above mentioned organizational variables under four separate categories or systems. They represented a continuum with System 1 as a task-oriented, highly structured style and System 4 as a relationship-oriented style; with Systems 2 and 3 as intermediate stages between the two extremes (62).

**MCGREGOR**

Douglas McGregor's "Theory X" and "Theory Y" looked at leadership style as a function of how the leader saw those that worked under him or her (McGregor-Human 33-57).

In Theory X the average person had an inherent dislike for work and therefore had to be controlled, directed, and threatened in order to achieve organizational objectives. People wanted to be controlled and wanted to avoid responsibility. They had little ambition and above all sought security (33-43).

In Theory Y the effort toward work was as natural as that toward leisure, and people could be self-directing and self-motivated without being coerced or threatened. People under Theory Y could be committed to objectives with the ultimate reward being the satisfaction of ego and self-actualization. The average person not only accepted but sought responsibility and was imaginative and creative within the organization (45-57).
Getzels and Guba advocated three leadership dimensions: Nomothetic, Idiographic, and Transactional (Getzels et. al. 56-150). A leader was nomothetic (task oriented) to the extent that he or she was influenced by institutional or organizational expectations (56-65).

The leader was idiographic (relationship oriented) to the extent that he or she was influenced by personal need dispositions (Getzels et. al. 65-77).

The leader was transactional to the extent that he or she recognized that social system goals must be carried out and he or she made explicit the roles and demands required to achieve those goals (148-150). Since roles and expectations were implemented by real people, with needs to be met, the personalities and need dispositions of those people had to be taken into consideration.

The transactional style was not a matter of just steering a middle course between what was expected and what was needed. Instead, the aim was to get a thorough awareness of the limits and resources for both individuals, and the institution within which administrative action occurred, as well as to make intelligent application of the two as a specific problem demanded.
In 1985, Robert Blake and Jane Mouton presented their revised Managerial Grid III to identify leadership style. They provided a self-assessment survey which allowed the individual to determine their leadership style according to the following:

1. **Country Club Management: (1,9)** - This is described as giving thoughtful attention to the needs of people and satisfying relationships. It leads to a comfortable friendly atmosphere and work tempo.

2. **Impoverished Management: (1,1)** - This style is characterized by leaders exerting minimum effort to get the required work done in order to sustain organizational membership.

3. **Organization Man Management: (5,5)** - This style provides adequate organization performance that is possible through balancing the necessity to get out work while maintaining the morale of people at a satisfactory level.

4. **Authority-Obedience: (9,1)** - This style provides that the efficiency in operations results from arranging conditions of work in such a way that human elements interfere to a minimum degree.

5. **Team Management: (9,9)** - This style is where work is accomplished from committed people; Interdependence is through a common stake in the organization and leads to a relationship of trust and respect (Blake and Mouton 12-13).

While the above represent general identifications for leadership behaviors, the Grid itself was broken into a nine point scale. The horizontal scale represented the initiating structure or task orientation. The vertical scale
represented the consideration or relationship orientation (11-12). Thus a nine indicated a maximum concern, a five an intermediate or average amount of concern, and a one a minimum amount of concern (11-12). The numbers two through eight denoted degrees of concern on each scale.

TANNENBAUM AND SCHMIDT

Robert Tannenbaum and Warren H. Schmidt were among the first to propose a situational or contingency approach to leadership. Their Continuum of Leadership Behavior proposed seven possible leader behaviors (Tannenbaum and Schmidt 96). Each type of action was related to the degree of authority used by the leader and the amount of freedom available to subordinates. On one extreme was the democratic or relationship-oriented leader characterized as releasing a high degree of control to subordinates. On the other extreme was the authoritarian or task-oriented leader characterized as one who maintained a high degree of control. The leader behaviors were listed along the continuum from leader-centered to subordinate-centered.

Tannenbaum and Schmidt suggested that the leader, in selecting one of these leader behaviors must be keenly aware of the forces which were most relevant to his/her behavior at the time (101). They must accurately understand themselves and the individuals or group they were dealing with.

They further proposed that in selecting one of the
leader behaviors, the manager must also have considered the present readiness for growth of subordinates, the social environment, and the organization itself. The leader must also be able to adapt to any of the behaviors on the continuum in light of his perceptions and diagnosis of the situation (Figure 2). Therefore the successful manager...

...is neither a strong leader nor a permissive one. Rather he is one who maintains a high batting average in accurately assessing the forces that determine what his most appropriate behavior at any given time should be and in actually being able to behave accordingly (101).

FIEDLER

Fred Fiedler was considered one of the leading authorities on the Contingency Theory of Leadership. He developed the Leadership Contingency Model which suggested three major situational variables in determining whether a given situation was favorable to leaders: (1) their personal relations with the members of their group, (2) the degree of structure, and (3) the power and authority that the given position provided (Fiedler and Garcia 81). Fiedler defined the favorableness of a situation as, "the degree to which the situation enables the leader to exert his influence over his group" (Hersey and Blanchard 108).

The model described eight possible combinations of these three situational variables. As a leadership situation changed from high to low on these variables, it fell into one
Figure 2
CONTINUUM OF LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR
(Tannenbaum and Schmidt)

Boss-Centered Leadership

Use of Authority by the Manager

Area of Freedom for Subordinate

Manager Makes "Sells" Decisions
Manager Presents Ideas and Tentative Problems
Manager Invites Questions to
Manager Defines Subject
Manager Permits Suggestions, Group
Manager Limits; Subordinates
Manager to Make
Manager to Make
Manager limits
Manager defined by
Manager Superior

of the eight combinations or situations. These combinations or "octants" categorized groups into those with high or low leader-member relations (LMR), high or low task structure (TS), and high or low position power (PP) (Fiedler and Garcia 82).

The most favorable situation for leaders to influence their group was one in which they were well liked by the members, had a powerful position, and were directing a well-defined job (63). The most unfavorable situation for leaders was one in which they were disliked, had little position power, and faced an unstructured task (63-64).

Fiedler then attempted to determine what the most effective leadership style, task oriented or relationship oriented, seemed to be for each of the eight situations. He concluded that first, task-oriented leaders tended to perform best in group situations that were either favorable or very unfavorable to the leader; and second that relationship-oriented leaders tended to perform best in situations that were intermediate in favorableness (Fiedler 187-88) (Figure 3).

REDDIN

One of the major proponents of situational leadership, William J. Reddin, studied Initiating Structure and Consideration in terms of Task Orientation and Relationship Orientation respectively (Reddin-Managerial 11). By combin-
Figure 3

THE CONTINGENCY MODEL
(Fred Fiedler)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LMR</th>
<th>High</th>
<th>Low</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TS</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PP</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8

High Control Moderate Control Low Control

Situational control Scale determined by high or low leader-member relations, task structure, and position power.

ing these two orientations in various degrees he identified four basic leadership styles which he labeled as: the separated manager, the related manager, the dedicated manager, and the integrated manager (30).

The separated manager was concerned about correcting deviations. His time perspective tended to be with the past and how it was done last time (31). Thus, he identified with the organization as a whole rather than with individual members of it. To keep things on an even keel he took great interest in the rules and procedures and judged others on how well they adhered to them. He avoided non-routine work because he did not enjoy it. When things went wrong his usual reaction was to propose more controls (Reddin Managerial 31).

The related manager accepted others as he found them (31). He enjoyed long conversations as a way of getting to know others better. He saw organizations primarily as social systems and he judged his subordinates on how well they understood others. When faced with stress he tended to become dependent on others and depressed. His weakness was sentimentality and a fear of being rejected by others (31).

The dedicated manager tended to dominate others (31). He gave many verbal directions to subordinates. His time perspective was immediate and when he had the choice he preferred to do it now. He emphasized the demands of the technological rather than the human system. He judged
subordinates on the degree to which they produced and superiors on their skill in using power. He dealt with conflict by suppression or domination and he believed punishment was the best way to stop people from doing things they should not. His weaknesses were that he argued when matters could be solved another way, and he feared the loss of power (31-32).

The integrated manager liked to become a part of things. He was a joiner and liked to communicate with others in a group setting. He used meetings frequently. His orientation was always to the future. There was no real concern for power differentials so he identified strongly with co-workers and emphasized teamwork. He judged subordinates by their willingness to join the team, and his superiors by their skill in teamwork. In highly stressful situations he tended to postpone making decisions. He controlled others by proposing common ideals or settling for a compromise. His greatest fear was that he would become uninvolved and that others might become dissatisfied (Reddin Managerial 32).

To the task and relationship orientation, Reddin added the third dimension of managerial effectiveness. He explained that effectiveness was the extent to which a manager achieved the output requirements of his job (9). The effectiveness of the leadership styles described above depended on the situation in which they were used. Reddin contended that each one of the four basic styles had a less
effective equivalent and a more effective equivalent, resulting in eight managerial styles: compromiser, deserter, autocrat, missionary, executive, bureaucrat, benevolent autocrat, and developer (39-40). These were not eight additional kinds of behavior. They were simply the names given to the four basic styles when used appropriately or inappropriately. The eight managerial styles were thus arranged around the four basic styles, creating the THIRD dimension of effectiveness (12) (Figure 4).

HOUSE

The Path-Goal Theory had its roots in a more general motivational theory called expectancy theory. Briefly, expectancy theory stated that an individual’s attitudes or behaviors were predicted from (1) the degree to which the job, or behavior, was seen as leading to various outcomes, and (2) the evaluation of these outcomes (House and Mitchell 81). Thus, people were satisfied with their job if they thought it lead to things that were highly valued, and they worked hard if they believed that effort lead to these things. This type of theoretical rationale was used to predict a variety of phenomena related to leadership, such as why leaders behaved the way they did, or how leader behavior influenced subordinate motivation.

The first proposition of the Path-Goal Theory was that leader behavior was acceptable and satisfying to subordinates...
Figure 4

MANAGERIAL EFFECTIVENESS 3D
(William J. Reddin)

to the extent that the subordinates saw such behavior as either an immediate source of satisfaction, or as instrumental to future satisfaction (84).

The second proposition of the theory was that the leader's behavior motivated or increased effort, to the extent that 1. such behavior made satisfaction of subordinates needs contingent on effective performance and 2. such behavior complemented the environment of subordinates by providing the coaching, guidance, support and reward necessary for effective performance (84).

The motivational function of the leader consisted of increasing the number and kind of personal payoffs to subordinates for work-goal attainment and made the paths to these payoffs easier to travel by clarifying the requirements, reducing road blocks and pitfalls, and increasing the opportunities for personal satisfaction en route.

Therefore, leaders did better according to when they supplied what was missing from the situation. House and Mitchell proposed that if followers were performing highly structured tasks, the most effective leader behavior style was one that was high on supportive (relationship) behavior and low on instrumental (task) behavior. They based this on the assumption that highly structured tasks were inherently less satisfying and a source of frustration and stress for followers. Leader relationship behavior would help reduce
the frustration and mitigate the dissatisfying nature of highly structured tasks.

If followers were performing relatively unstructured tasks, the Path-Goal Theory proposed that a leadership style high on task behavior and low on relationship behavior would be more effective. It was assumed that required activities and performance expectations were unclear and leader task behavior was needed to provide direction and role structuring. Unstructured tasks, however, were assumed to be more challenging, more intrinsically satisfying, and less frustrating and stressful. Under these conditions, leader relationship behavior was less important (Figure 5).

The Path-Goal Theory thus not only suggested what type of style would be most effective in a given situation, it also attempted to explain why it was most effective.

VROOM-YETTEN

The Contingency Model developed by Victor Vroom and Phillip Yetten was based on the assumption that situational variables, interacting with personal attributes or characteristics of the leader, resulted in leader behavior that affected organizational effectiveness (Hersey and Blanchard 112). This change in the organization, because the organization was part of the situation, in turn, affected the next leadership intervention. Vroom and Yetten's model assumed that situational variables such as followers, time,
THE PATH-GOAL THEORY
(Robert J. House and Terrence R. Mitchell)

and job demands, interacting with the personal attributes of the leader such as experience and/or communication skills, resulted in leader behavior like the directive style of leadership (113). This influenced organizational effectiveness which was also influenced by other situational variables outside the control of the leader.

In using the model, the leader first diagnosed the situational variables. Vroom and Yetten identified seven questions the leader should use for decision-making. The leader worked through a decision tree from left to right asking the seven questions. Such questions as "Do I have sufficient information to make a high-quality decision? Is the problem structured" (Hersey and Blanchard 115)? When the response indicated a type of decision, the manager then turned to the "Types of Managerial Decision Styles" for a description of that style (113-16).

This model was a contingency model because the leader's possible behaviors were contingent upon the interaction between the questions and the leader's assessment of the situation in developing a response to the questions.

HERSEY AND BLANCHARD

In the leadership model developed by Paul Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard, the terms task behavior and relationship behavior were used to describe concepts like the
Consideration and Initiating Structure of the Ohio State Studies. They developed four basic leader behavior quadrants and labeled them: high task and low relationship; high task and high relationship; high relationship and low task; and low relationship and low task (Hersey and Blanchard 117).

The high task and low relationship they labeled as telling or S1 style. It was characterized by above-average amounts of task behavior and below-average amounts of relationship behavior (113).

The high task and high relationship they labeled as selling or S2 style. It was characterized by above-average amounts of both task and relationship behavior (173).

The high relationship and low task they labeled as participating or S3 style. It was characterized by above-average amounts of relationship behavior and below-average amounts of task behavior (Hersey and Blanchard 173).

The low relationship and low task they labeled as delegating or S4 style. It was characterized by below-average amounts of both task behavior and relationship behavior (173).

Hersey and Blanchard continued their model development by indicating that there was no one best way to influence people. Which leadership style a person used with individuals or groups depended on the readiness level of the people the leader was attempting to influence.

They defined readiness as, "the extent to which a
follower has the ability and willingness to accomplish a specific task" (174). They further explained that people tended to be at different levels of readiness depending on the task they were asked to do.

Willingness they defined as, "the extent to which an individual or group has the confidence, commitment, and motivation to accomplish a specific task" (175). Ability they defined as, "the knowledge, experience, and skill that an individual or group brings to a particular task or activity" (175).

The readiness levels described by Hersey and Blanchard were then established as a result of various combinations of ability and willingness that people brought to a task. This they connected with the four leadership styles described above, which then became the readiness level-style match (Hersey and Blanchard 177).

Readiness Level 1 they characterized as those who were unable and unwilling to perform a task. They lacked commitment and motivation. Hersey and Blanchard said that the appropriate leadership style to use with this individual or group was telling (177-78). It was high task/low relationship and followers needed to be told what, when, where, and how to do tasks (178).

Readiness Level 2 was characteristic of those who were unable but willing. They lacked ability but were motivated and made an effort. The appropriate leadership style to use
with this individual or group was selling (178). This style was high task/high relationship and followers needed to be persuaded to "buy into" what the leader wanted (178).

Readiness Level 3 was characteristic of those who were able but unwilling. They had the ability to perform the task but were not willing to use that ability. The appropriate leadership style to use with this individual or group was participating (178). This style was low task/high relationship and followers needed to be part of the decision-making process (178-79).

Readiness Level 4 was characteristic of those who were able and willing. They did not need directions about where, what, when, or how to do a task because the followers already had the ability and motivation. The appropriate leadership style to use was delegating (179). This style was low task/low relationship. The follower could be given major responsibility for tasks with only minimal task selection by the leader (Hersey and Blanchard 179).

It should be noted that in previous editions of their work, Hersey and Blanchard referred to "readiness" as "maturity", but the intent was the same (200).

The authors also suggested a high-probability leadership style for the various readiness levels discussed. In further development, they indicated the likely success of the other style configurations if a leader was unable to use the desired style. The probability of success of each style for
the four readiness levels depended on how far the style was from the high-probability style along the prescriptive curve of the model (Figure 6). Hersey and Blanchard suggested the following:

For R1 S1 high, S2 2nd, S3 3rd, S4 low probability
R2 S2 high, S1 2nd, S3 2nd, S4 low probability
R3 S3 high, S2 2nd, S4 2nd, S1 low probability
R4 S4 high, S3 2nd, S2 3rd, S1 low probability
(Hersey and Blanchard 179).

The above information suggested that the further a leader was from the high-probability style, the less likely he/she was of being successful or effective on the job.

TRANSACTIONAL LEADERSHIP

Researchers in recent years also began looking at the questions of how leaders emerged, maintained their status, or related to changing group processes. It was from these ideas that transactional leadership began (Adams and Yoder 26).

The transactional leader motivated followers by exchanging with them rewards for services rendered, like jobs for votes (Bass-Leadership 11). Such transactions comprised the bulk of the relationships among leaders and followers, especially in groups. The transactional leader:

1. Recognizes what it is we want to get from our work and tries to see that we get what we want if our performance warrants it.
2. Exchanges rewards and promises of reward for our effort.
3. Is responsive to our immediate self-interests if they can be met by our getting the work done (11).
Figure 6
SITUATIONAL LEADERSHIP MODEL
(Paul Hersey and Kenneth Blanchard)
(Copyrighted Material from Leadership Studies, Inc.)

Leader Behavior

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Supportive Behavior</th>
<th>Relationship Behavior</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Participating</td>
<td>S3</td>
<td>S2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selling</td>
<td>S1</td>
<td>Telling</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Task Behavior

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FOLLOWER READINESS</th>
<th>High</th>
<th>Moderate</th>
<th>Low</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>R4</td>
<td>Able and willing</td>
<td>Able but unwilling</td>
<td>Unable and unwilling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R3</td>
<td>Able but unwilling</td>
<td>Unable but willing</td>
<td>Unable and unwilling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R2</td>
<td>Unable but willing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R1</td>
<td>Unable and unwilling</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These criteria indicated that leadership was a dynamic process of mutual influence between the leader and his followers, and was directed toward the attainment of mutually established goals that maximized benefits and minimized costs for each party. This exchange process provided for a sense of direction in the subordinate as well as some degree of energization (13).

TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

Transformational leadership took the transactional concept one step further. Here the leader not only pursued an economic exchange to meet subordinates current needs in return for services rendered, but the transformational leader also sought to arouse and satisfy higher needs, to engage the full person of the follower (Bass-Leadership 14).

Transformational leaders attempted to raise the subordinate's level of awareness about the issues of consequence. This heightening of awareness required a leader with vision, self-confidence, and inner strength to argue successfully for what he or she saw as right or good, not for what was popular or acceptable according to the established norms of the times.

Simply put, the transformational leader motivated followers to do more than they originally expected to do. This original performance expectation was based on the follower's original level of confidence in reaching desired
outcomes by means of their performance. Such a transformation could be achieved in any of three interrelated ways:

1. By raising our level of awareness, our level of consciousness about the importance and value of designated outcomes, and ways of reaching them.
2. By getting us to transcend our own self-interest for the sake of the team, organization, or larger polity.
3. By altering our need level on Maslow's (or Alderfer's) hierarchy or expanding our portfolio of needs and wants (20).

LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS

William Reddin said that leadership effectiveness was the extent to which the leader influenced his followers to achieve group objectives (Reddin-Journal 9). He further suggested that effectiveness was a function of the match between style and situation (16). This meant that the manager's style, his combination of task and relationships orientation, should fit the style demand of the situation he was in.

Fred Fiedler conceptually defined effectiveness in terms of (1) the group's output, (2) its morale, and (3) the satisfactions of its members (Fiedler 9). He further stated that the leadership style, for maximum group performance, was contingent upon the situation (147).

In their discussion of effectiveness, Hersey and Blanchard proposed that effectiveness was a function of: 1.
Output variables (productivity/performance), 2. Intervening variables (the condition of the human resources), 3. Short-range goals, and 4. Long-range goals (Hersey and Blanchard 135). They indicated that effectiveness was actually determined by whatever the manager and the organization decided their goals and objectives were. As with Reddin and Fiedler, Hersey and Blanchard also supported the argument that all the basic leader behavior styles may be effective or ineffective depending on the situation (142).

From the above definitions, it was clear that much of the criteria for measuring effectiveness was included in its definition. It was here that some authors disagreed on which element should be the center of focus to determine effectiveness. Fiedler, for example, evaluated leader effectiveness in terms of group performance on the group’s primary assigned task, even though he recognized that effectiveness was also affected by such events as personality clashes, bad luck, or unfavorable circumstances (Fiedler 9). He proposed group performance as the primary indicator of effectiveness for two main reasons. First, the primary goal of work groups and organizations was the accomplishment of a task assigned by the parent organization or by the group members themselves. Second, the success or failure of a group or organization was generally defined by its progress toward achieving these primary goals (Fiedler 4). Nevertheless, Fiedler did acknowledge that morale, job
satisfaction, absenteeism, and safety were clearly important in helping the group do its job (Fiedler and Garcia 5).

Reddin agreed with Fiedler's primary focus on group performance by proposing that effectiveness was the extent to which a manager achieved the output requirements of his position (Reddin-Managerial 3). This concept was the central issue in management. The manager needed to think in terms of performance, not personality. It was not so much what a manager did but what he achieved (3).

On the other hand, when McGregor looked at the conditions of effective leadership, he centered his attention on the satisfaction of vital subordinate needs. Especially the security that doing what was expected of them helped satisfy those needs. Among the conditions influencing the subordinate's feelings of security were: 1. an atmosphere of approval, 2. knowledge of what was expected of him and of how well he was measuring up to those expectations, 3. forewarning of changes that may affect him, and 4. consistent discipline in the form of both backing when he was right and punishment when he was wrong (McGregor-Leadership 65).

Hersey and Blanchard saw the focus on group performance as only part of the whole story of effectiveness. When Fiedler and Reddin focused on group performance as the central point of effectiveness, Hersey and Blanchard called this successful as opposed to effective leadership (Hersey and Blanchard 128-29). For example, when a manager attempted
to influence an individual to do a certain job, the manager was considered successful or unsuccessful depending on the extent to which the individual accomplished the job. This was depicted on a continuum ranging from very successful to very unsuccessful (129). Success, they said, had to do with how the individual or the group behaved. On the other hand, effectiveness described the internal state, or predisposition of an individual or group, and thus was attitudinal in nature (130). As a result, it was possible to be successful and not effective. It was this very concept that often explained why many supervisors got a satisfactory level of output only when they were right there looking over the worker's shoulder.

Hersey and Blanchard based their concept of effectiveness on three variables identified by Rensis Likert; causal, intervening, and end-result (Likert-New 26-29).

Casual variables were those factors that influenced the course of developments within an organization. They were variables that could be altered by the organization, such as leadership strategies and skills, management's decisions, and the policies and structure of the organization (Hersey and Blanchard 131).

Intervening variables represented the current condition of the internal state of the organization. They reflected the commitment to objectives, motivation, and morale of members and their skills in leadership, communications, conflict resolution, decision making, and problem solving
Output or end-result variables reflected the achievement of the organization. They showed production, costs, sales, earnings, management-union relations, turnovers, etc. (Hersey and Blanchard 132). In evaluating effectiveness, more than 90 percent of managers looked at measures of output alone (131). Thus the effectiveness of business leadership was often determined by net profits; the effectiveness of college professors was determined by the number of articles and books published; and certainly the effectiveness of a basketball coach was decided by the win-lose record.

Hersey and Blanchard proposed the relationship between the three classes of variables as stimuli (causal variables) acting on the organism (intervening variables) and creating certain responses (output variables) (132).

Most efforts to improve the end-result variables attempted to modify the intervening variables, which were usually less effective than changing the causal variables. Changing causal variables, however, would influence intervening variables and therefore modify the end-result variables (Hersey and Blanchard 132).

One of the major problems that Hersey and Blanchard identified was that many leaders came into an organization for a short time and increased production, which usually put increased pressure on subordinates. They were then promoted out of that situation and new leadership came in, only to...
discover that the intervening variables such as commitment and morale had deteriorated. The result was that the new leadership was in trouble even before starting. Yet short-term production had been achieved.

Many organizations chose this path because the results were more immediate. If this process continued, which usually meant the use of an inappropriate leadership style, there would be a further decline in intervening variables. Some of the indications of these deteriorating intervening variables, according to Hersey and Blanchard, included turnover, absenteeism, increased accidents, and numerous grievances (Hersey and Blanchard 133). A continued decline in the intervening variables would ultimately lead to a significant decrease in output as well (133). Therefore, effectiveness was not only a measure of the internal state of an organization, but ultimately an indication of productivity and success as well.

LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS AND THE ASSISTANT PRINCIPAL

It was often reported that successful organizations had one major attribute that set them apart from unsuccessful organizations, dynamic and effective leadership (Hambleton and Gumpert 225). There was no lack of people to fill administrative or leadership positions but there appeared to be a shortage of people who knew how to lead effectively when placed in leadership positions. Therefore, the concept of
effective vs ineffective leadership and what caused each, was the subject of much study. Hersey and Blanchard stated that when the leadership style was appropriate, the leader was effective; when the style was inappropriate the leader was ineffective (Hersey and Blanchard 117).

In an *NASSP Bulletin*, John W. Arnn said that effective schools had effective leaders (Arnn 2). In fact he suggested that effective schools may simply reflect, in various ways, the impact of effective leadership upon followers.

Many times when the literature talked about effective school leadership they were talking about instructional leadership and the interaction between principal and teacher (Rallis 643). However, in another *NASSP Bulletin*, Hallinger proposed that it was very difficult for secondary school principals to schedule the uninterrupted time to deal with instructional leadership activities such as curriculum planning, teacher observations, and teacher conferences (Hallinger 85). The solution he said, was that most principals delegated much of their instructional leadership responsibilities among a team of administrators (85).

In a study of the secondary school principalship, Leonard O. Pellicer, et. al., conceptualized the principalship as not embodied in a single person or even in a list of tasks on a position description, but as all the tasks and all the persons involved in organizing and administering a school (Pellicer, et. al. 37). They saw the assistant
principal as an integral part of the principalship as a whole.

In 1987 Pellicer and his associates conducted a national survey in which both principals and assistant principals were asked to respond to comprehensive questions about the duties and responsibilities of assistant principals. The respondents were asked to review 65 duties traditionally delegated to assistant principals. These duties were grouped into the following categories: school management, staff personnel, community relations, curriculum and instruction, student activities, and student services (Pellicer, et al. 37).

The respondents were asked to indicate the degree of responsibility assistant principals had for each delegated administrative duty, and to assess the importance of each duty to the proper functioning of the school. Thirty duties or responsibilities remained after a 50 percent responsibility criterion was applied to select those duties for which respondents felt the assistant principals had the most responsibility (39).

One of the findings that resulted from this process indicated that the top three duties for which assistant principals felt responsible were, 1. student discipline, 2. school policies, and 3. evaluation of teachers (41). This was a major change from a similar survey done in 1965 in which evaluation of teachers was ranked 23 by the assistant
principals (41). This indicated that the assistant principals responding in 1987 felt they were given more responsibility for teacher classroom performance.

In another interesting development, it was found that about 25 percent of assistant principals had full responsibility for preparing the school master schedule (Pellicer et. al. 47).

In general, principals who participated in the survey agreed with assistant principals about the importance of delegated duties to the proper functioning of the school (48).

In conclusion, Pellicer and his associates stated that:

The assistant principal is a vital part of the school administrative team. As schools attempt to serve a more complex student population, the assistant principal may well assume an increasingly important role in the functioning principalship (51).

To further demonstrate how important the assistant principal has become, Graham Kelly proposed that most of the duties and responsibilities attributed to the principalship were in fact carried out by assistant principals (Kelly 13). Yet the literature on secondary school administration provided few books or articles that made even a passing reference to the assistant principal. As a result, Kelly called the assistant principal the "Rodney Dangerfield" of the teaching profession; that is, they didn't get much respect (13). Yet these individuals brought just as much
educational, academic, and professional experience in school administration to the job as the principal, and in some cases more (Panyako and LeRoy 7).

Because of this increasing role, the assistant principal's position was identified as a training position for the principalship, but there were also those who had made a career of their position as assistant principal (Wood et al. 182). In either case the nature of the responsibilities was the same. The assistant principal assisted the principal in the administration of the school and over the years began to assume more duties which had a direct impact on the school's effectiveness.

The principal, according to R. John Paskey, should play a key role as mentor in helping the assistant principal develop his or her leadership skills and in adjusting to the numerous leadership styles (Paskey 95). He suggested that the assistant principal must be trained in all areas of the school's operation including hiring, supervision, evaluation, and placement of staff (96). Only then, he said, "would the future of the principalship be ensured" (98).

In addition to the duties listed above, many larger high school principals delegated such responsibilities as facilities, grounds, lunchroom, and transportation among assistant principals (Ubben and Hughes 185).

In the high schools of the Clark County School District one assistant principal was assigned when student enrollment
reached five hundred, a second when it reached thirteen hundred, and a third when it reached twenty-two hundred students (CCSD-Budget 157). Nine of eleven high schools with grades 9 through 12 or 10 through 12 had a student population sufficient to allocate three assistant principals (CCSD-Budget 257). The formally assigned responsibilities for the assistant principal, according to the district were:

1. Assist in implementing the identified goals of the district and the school.
2. Supervise and evaluate staff, curriculum, programs, and departments as assigned.
3. Represent the principal upon request in interpreting the district's educational program to the community.
4. Counsel with students, parents, and teachers when an individual student's academic and behavioral problems are involved.
5. Maintain effective relationships with representatives of law enforcement and social welfare agencies.
6. Supervise assigned aspects of the extracurricular program, including athletic and social activities, student government, assemblies, contests, etc.
7. Supervise certain school auxiliary services which may include safety programs, library service, audiovisual supplies, and textbooks.
8. Assist in supervising the preparation of such school communications as bulletins, handbooks, annuals, and newspapers.
9. Perform other duties as assigned (SIOD-CCDS Appendix B).

As a result of number two above, much of the direct contact that teachers had in an instructional leadership setting was with the assistant principal. At least it was through these individuals that teachers were evaluated and had much of their instructional direction given. It was, therefore, through the assistant principal that some measure
of effective school leadership was determined, since there was less direct classroom contact with the principal.

SUMMARY

This chapter provided a review of the literature on leadership style and situational leadership. It also discussed leadership effectiveness, as well as leader effectiveness and the assistant principal.

The first part of the chapter dealt with the early theories on leadership and some of the factors that lead to further development and refinement of the leadership concept. The Ohio State Studies were discussed as some of the most significant studies leading to many of the present leadership theories, including situational leadership. Experts, with their various models of leadership, were discussed, including various visual representations to portray their design.

The next section of this chapter dealt with leadership effectiveness. Experts were cited defining effectiveness and how leadership style influenced it. Further discussion showed the differing views on how effectiveness should be measured. Some authors suggested that effectiveness was a measure of output alone, while others proposed a broader view in order to have a complete picture of effectiveness. Hersey and Blanchard proposed that output was a measure of success, while effectiveness was the result of output variables, intervening variables, and causal variables. They further
proposed that to improve output, attention should be placed on causal variables and not so much on intervening variables. Leadership effectiveness was then identified as the condition that resulted from using the appropriate style for the given situation.

The final section of this chapter dealt with the assistant principal and effective school leadership, with special emphasis on the assistant principals of Clark County High Schools. The literature indicated that an increasingly important role for the assistant principal in the overall operation of the school and its effectiveness was developing. It also indicated that it was through the assistant principal that much of the instructional leadership was given. This was because the assistant principal had been given the responsibility for classroom observations and teacher evaluations.
CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND COLLECTION OF DATA

INTRODUCTION

Situational Leadership applied to every kind of organizational setting. The concepts were used in any situation in which people were trying to influence other people. Since there was no one best way to influence others, any leader behavior could be more or less effective, depending on the readiness level of the person the leader was attempting to influence.

A major responsibility of leaders was to insure that organizational goals were effectively met. Yet if a manager's leadership style was at one level, and the ideal style, based on follower readiness, was at another level, the manager was less effective in accomplishing the organization's objectives.

REVIEW OF THE PROBLEM

The purpose studied in this project was to determine the relationship between the actual situational leadership style of Clark County high school assistant principals, as measured by the Readiness Style Match survey, and the ideal style for these individuals as measured by the Readiness Style Match
Matrix, for three objectives from the Performance Criteria Log of the Clark County School District.

**INSTRUMENT SELECTION**

A Situational Leadership Sampler was purchased from University Associates Inc. It contained 24 instruments for potential use in measuring leadership style and readiness. The **LEAD Self** (Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description) was one of the instruments reviewed. It described the perceptions leaders had of themselves in terms of telling, selling, participating, and delegating. The **LEAD Other** was also reviewed. It described the perceptions the leader's followers or associates had of his or her leadership style with respect to telling, selling, participating, and delegating.

The **Readiness Scale** Staff Member Rating form and the **Readiness Scale** Manager Rating form were reviewed for potential use in measuring staff readiness. The purpose of these instruments was to determine the ability and willingness of a person to direct his or her own behavior while working on a particular objective or responsibility. The staff rating form allowed the individual staff member to rate his or her own readiness, while the manager's rating form evaluated employee readiness from the leader's perspective.

The instrument selected for this study, however, was the
Readiness Style Match Staff Member Rating form. It provided staff perceptions of leadership style and self perceptions of readiness on the same form. It also provided the matrix from which the ideal leadership style was determined, based on individual readiness responses.

The staff rating form was used over the manager rating form in determining the leadership style of assistant principals because it allowed for a larger population from which to draw a sampling. Each of the 9 participating high schools had 3 assistant principals for a total population of 27. On the other hand, total participating teachers from the 9 high schools provided for a population of more than 700 from which to draw a sample.

TEST INSTRUMENT OVERVIEW

The Readiness Style Match Staff Member Rating form was composed of four parts. In Part I, spaces were available for up to six objectives or responsibilities. The staff member was given four leader behaviors and asked to select, for each identified objective, the one set of characteristics that described the manager's usual or Primary Style; the one that the manager tended to use most often. The individual then put a "P" for Primary Style in the appropriate box for that leadership style and objective. The staff member also had the option of putting an "S" for Secondary Style for each objective. That is, the style other than the primary one
that the manager may have often used. However, this was done only if the staff member felt the manager had a secondary style.

The leader behavior categories from which participants could select the primary style of their assistant principal were described as follows:

The assistant principal who was identified as providing close supervision with detailed instructions was given a category 1 style. The assistant principal described as one who explained and clarified was given a category 2 style. The assistant described as one who shared ideas and decisions was given a category 3 style. The assistant described as one giving responsibility for decision making and implementation was given a category 4 style.

Part II of the instrument asked the staff member to determine his/her own readiness level. The individual was provided two scales for each of the objectives or responsibilities as listed in Part I. One scale indicated the person's ability (knowledge and skill) for that objective. The other scale indicated the person's willingness (confidence and motivation) for the same objective. Both scales ranged from .5, or a little readiness, to 4.5, a great deal of readiness. The staff member was to rate his/her readiness on each objective independently by circling a number, or a dot on either side of the number, on each of the two scales.
In Part III there was a Situational Leadership Model for each objective that the staff member had been analyzing in Parts I and II (Hersey and Blanchard 287). The individual was to use the numbered model that corresponded to each objective and do the following:

1. Transfer the designations from Part I for primary style (P) and secondary style (S), if selected, and enter them in the appropriate boxes of the Situational Leadership Model. The style descriptor numbers correspond to the style numbers of the model. Descriptor 1 was S1 - Telling. Descriptor 2 was S2 - Selling. Descriptor 3 was S3 - Participating. Descriptor 4 was S4 - Delegating (177-179).

2. Transfer the readiness ratings of each objective in Part II and recircle them in the appropriate part of the numbered Situational Leadership Models of Part III.

Part IV provided the Readiness Style Match Matrix. It indicated, based on readiness ratings, the most appropriate or ideal style to use with the staff member for each objective or responsibility. The person located on the matrix, the ability score on the horizontal axis, and the willingness score on the vertical axis. An imaginary line was drawn for each until they intersected. The box where they met indicated the appropriate or ideal style or styles that should be used with that staff member in terms of that specific objective. This procedure was then repeated for each remaining objective.
Thus, using this instrument indicated the perceptions staff members had of the actual leadership style of their assistant principal, the readiness levels they perceived for themselves, and the ideal leadership style, based on teacher readiness, for each of the selected district objectives.

DISTRICT PERFORMANCE OBJECTIVES

The Clark County School District established objectives and supporting criteria to serve as standards for the operation of its schools. These performance objectives were known as The Elements of Quality. The first six Elements of Quality defined the standards for effective teaching practice and became the evaluation criteria on the Teacher Performance Criteria Log. They were as follows:

1. Adopted curriculum guides and course syllabi serve as the basis for classroom instruction.
2. Student achievement is commensurate with established expectancies.
3. Instruction is planned, organized, and adjusted to meet identified instructional needs of students.
4. A classroom climate conducive to the teaching-learning process is established and maintained.
5. Instruction includes the elements of a good lesson and the basic principles of learning.
6. Processes of assessment, priority planning, and evaluation are effectively utilized (CCSD-Elements iii-iv).

Objectives three through five were selected for this study because they were considered to have the most direct impact on students on a daily basis. In addition, assistant

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principals were not as likely to observe teacher behavior for objectives one, two, or six during their classroom evaluation visits.

RELIABILITY AND CONSTRUCT VALIDITY

There were two main theoretical concepts upon which this study was based, situational leadership style and follower readiness. The first of these, leadership style, was extensively researched by Paul Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard at the Center for Leadership Studies. The results of their efforts and of individuals like Joseph W. Keilty, produced such instruments as The Readiness Style Match Staff Rating Form and the Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description (LEAD). They were specifically developed for the process of Contracting for Leadership Style and were supported by more than a decade of research with over twenty thousand leadership events from fourteen different cultures (Hersey and Blanchard 270, 286).

The concept of readiness was similarly scrutinized and validated through the Center's involvement with managers and employees of such corporations as Xerox, which not only allowed the participation of many of their managers and employees, but also provided financial support for the development and validation of this concept (200).

To determine the reliability and validity of the Readiness Style Match survey as a measure of leadership style
and readiness, the following steps were taken.

RELIABILITY

First, instrument reliability, as generally defined, represented the level of internal consistency or stability of a measuring device over time (Borg and Gall 257). The level of reliability required for research purposes depended on the nature of the research conducted. For purpose of this study the reliability of the Readiness Style Match survey was established through the use of Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha. It was a general form of the K-R 20 formula and was used because the multiple-choice nature of the survey allowed for several possible answers, each of which was given a different weight. Therefore, the Alpha was the most appropriate method for computing survey reliability.

There were 197 survey cases computerized for the Alpha. They contained six items from dependent and independent variables as represented by the following.

- Actual leadership style of assistant principal for objective 3
- Actual leadership style of assistant principal for objective 4
- Actual leadership style of assistant principal for objective 5
- Ideal leadership style for objective 3
- Ideal leadership style for objective 4
- Ideal leadership style for objective 5

It must be noted that the ideal leadership style was
determined by the readiness levels that teachers perceived of their own ability and willingness to accomplish the stated objectives.

The survey provided a leadership style and ideal style number that corresponded to: 1-telling, 2-selling, 3-participating, and 4-delegating. Computerizing 197 cases for each of the six categories represented above, provided a numerical matrix to which Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha was applied. The resulting reliability coefficient was an alpha equal to .6343. While this was not particularly high, it must be recognized that test or survey decisions about individuals required a higher reliability than decisions regarding the average characteristic of a group, as was the case for this study, which determined an actual and ideal leadership style for assistant principals as a group over three selected objectives (Dyer p. 120). Therefore, the alpha of .6343 was acceptable.

CONSTRUCT VALIDITY

Construct validity was defined as the extent to which a particular test measured a hypothetical construct, or theoretical construction about the nature of human behavior (Borg and Gall 255). As was mentioned earlier, the two major constructs identified in the Readiness Style Match were leadership style and readiness. They were hypothetical constructs because they were not directly observable, but
rather were inferred on the basis of their observable effects on behavior. In order to gather evidence on construct validity, hypotheses about the characteristics of persons who would obtain high scores, or fall into particular categories on test or survey instruments, had to be identified.

Hersey and Blanchard proposed several characteristics that were common to achievement-motivated people or those that they would expect to be identified at the higher levels of not only leadership style, but job readiness.

First, these individuals had the capacity to set high but obtainable goals and were achievement motivated. They looked for feedback on how well they were doing, rather than how well they were liked. A person with high job willingness thought that his/her responsibility was important, and they did not need extensive encouragement to get them to do things in their area (Hersey and Blanchard 183).

Second, such people had relevant readiness through education and/or experience. One source was through formal classroom experience and the other involved learning on the job. A person with high ability had the knowledge and experience to perform the job without much direction from others (183).

In transferring these construct characteristics to the teacher/administrator setting, Hersey and Blanchard suggested that because of the level of education and experience of many teachers, they did not need their principal or department
chairperson to initiate much structure. Thus, in responding to survey readiness questions, teachers would perceive themselves as needing a participating or delegating leadership style to be most effective (193).

Such characteristics as described above were demonstrated in the Clark County Schools. For example, in the 1987-88 school year, 45.7% of the total teaching staff had received their Masters + 32 hours of education (Budget - CCSD 244). Since this level of achievement was not attained overnight, this not only indicated high levels of educational attainment, but also a number of years of experience as well.

If these construct characteristics held true, then it would be expected that the majority of teachers responding to The Readiness Style Match, would indicate participating, or delegating as the ideal style most appropriate for assistant principals to use with them. Keeping in mind that ideal style was based on readiness. The full results in support of these theories was presented in chapter four of this study.

REVIEW OF HYPOTHESES

For this study it was hypothesized that:

1. There will be a significant positive relationship between the actual situational leadership style of high school assistant principals as measured by the Readiness Style Match survey, and the ideal style for these individuals as measured by the Readiness Style Match Matrix, for
objective three of the Performance Criteria Log, with adjustments made for teacher age, sex, length of experience, and length of tenure; significance being measured at the .05 probability level.

2. There will be a significant positive relationship between the actual situational leadership style of high school assistant principals as measured by the Readiness Style Match survey, and the ideal style for these individuals as measured by the Readiness Style Match Matrix, for objective four of the Performance Criteria Log, with adjustments made for teacher age, sex, length of experience, and length of tenure; significance being measured at the .05 probability level.

3. There will be a significant positive relationship between the actual situational leadership style of high school assistant principals as measured by the Readiness Style Match survey, and the ideal style for these individuals as measured by the Readiness Style Match Matrix, for objective 5 of the Performance Criteria Log, with adjustments made for teacher age, sex, length of experience, and length of tenure; significance being measured at the .05 probability level.

SAMPLE POPULATION

The Clark County School District covered a large portion of the southern tip of the state of Nevada. Its schools were
represented in both rural and urban settings with a total student population of 105,176 students K through 12 (Budget - CCSD 24). This required a total certified and unified staff for the district of 5,548 individuals K through 12 (p. 241).

The population selected in which the survey was conducted included secondary teachers in all nine through twelve and all ten through twelve high schools of Clark County. This provided a total of eleven high schools from which sampling could be done. District permission to conduct the research was obtained through the Comprehensive Senior High School Director, the Associate Superintendent for Secondary Education, and the Director of Curriculum Services. The principals of the high schools were also contacted with regard to their permission to survey a sampling of their staff. Nine of the eleven high schools consented to participate in the survey process.

A copy of the Nevada School Districts Licensed Staff Directory 1988-89 was obtained from which a consecutively numbered list of all staff in the participating schools was generated. Librarians, counselors, or other certified staff who would not have direct daily contact with students in a formal classroom setting were excluded from the list.

A random sampling procedure to obtain 395 teachers was then conducted by arbitrarily placing the point of a pencil on a page of random numbers (Dyer 396-97). Three hundred and ninety-five teachers were then selected by reading down the
list of random numbers and matching that number with the number of the teacher from the previously generated list.

DATA COLLECTION PROCESS

The teachers from the randomly generated list were then sent Part I - Leadership Style and Part II - Readiness, of the Readiness Style Match survey. The three previously identified objectives from the Performance Criteria Log were attached to the survey in the appropriate places on both parts of the survey.

Along with the survey there was a cover letter of explanation, a district letter of support, and a brief questionnaire concerning the moderating variables of teacher age, sex, length of experience, and length of tenure.

These materials were sent, with permission, through the school mail to the randomly selected teachers. This was done on May 9th and 10th, 1989, with a return request date of May 19, 1989. Contained in the survey packet, along with the above mentioned materials, was a self-addressed stamped envelope in which survey participants were to mail their responses directly to the researcher's address.

Upon receipt of the surveys, the researcher checked them for completeness in preparation for data analysis. Parts III and IV of the survey, summarizing responses given on parts I and II, were then completed by the researcher from the data returned by teachers. These parts were completed by
the researcher rather than by participants so that a less
time consuming response situation for survey participants
would be achieved, and therefore provide for a greater return
potential.

DATA

The following data were compiled from the surveys that
were returned:

1. Actual leadership style of assistant principals for
   objective 3 of the Criteria Log.
2. Actual leadership style of assistant principals for
   objective 4 of the Criteria Log.
3. Actual leadership style of assistant principals for
   objective 5 of the Criteria Log.
4. Readiness levels of teachers for objective 3 of the
   Criteria Log.
5. Readiness levels of teachers for objective 4 of the
   Criteria Log.
6. Readiness levels of teachers for objective 5 of the
   Criteria Log.
7. Demographic data on teacher age, sex, length of
   experience, and length of tenure.

DATA ANALYSIS

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences Expanded
(SPSS-X) was used in the analysis of the data collected.
This particular software package was specifically designed for the statistical analysis of data gathered in performing social science research. The mainframe version of the package provided for the convenient analysis of many different types of data.

To measure the relationship between the two variables identified here, a Partial Correlation Analysis statistical design, or Partial Corr, was used (Fitz-Gibbon and Morris 138). This type of statistical method was selected because it produced partial correlation coefficients that described the relationship between two variables while adjusting for the effects of one or more additional variables. When one such variable was held constant, it was called a "first-order partial correlation" (Guilford and Fruchter 312). Since the moderating variables to be adjusted for in this study were teacher: age, sex, length of experience, and length of tenure, it was considered a fourth-order partial correlation.

From the surveys a numerical matrix was generated consisting of ten categories for each completed survey. The categories included the following:
1. The actual situational leadership style for Criteria Log Objective 3.
2. The actual situational leadership style for Criteria Log Objective 4.
3. The actual situational leadership style for Criteria Log Objective 5.
4. Teacher age.
5. Teacher sex.
7. Length of teacher tenure in Clark County.
8. Ideal leadership style for Criteria Log Objective 3, based on the readiness matrix.
9. Ideal leadership style for Criteria Log Objective 4, based on the readiness matrix.
10. Ideal leadership style for Criteria log Objective 5, based on the readiness matrix.

When the matrix was completed, it was processed into SPSS-X computer files and run on the mainframe computer at the University of Nevada Las Vegas.

Demographic information was obtained first. This was done to provide accurate information on who responded to the survey, and how they responded to survey items.

Next, a full correlation analysis using Pearson correlation coefficients was obtained. These provided values on actual and ideal leadership styles of assistant principals without adjusting for teacher age, sex, length of experience and length of tenure. This was done to compare with later results on partial correlations to see what changes took place after controlling for moderating variables.

Partial correlation coefficients were then generated for the assistant principal's actual and ideal leadership styles, while adjusting for moderating variables.
CHAPTER 4

ANALYSIS OF DATA

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter was to take the statistics generated by the surveys and present them in both written and graphic form in an effort to answer the following question: "What relationship existed between the actual situational leadership style of Clark County high school assistant principals and the ideal style for these individuals?"

The first step in this analysis was to identify the age, sex, and experience characteristics of those teachers responding to the survey. The second step was to determine how these individuals responded to survey questions. The third step was an analysis of the full correlation results. The final step was to partial out each of the moderating variables until all four had been controlled for in each of the selected district objectives. The results provided the partial correlation data relative to study hypotheses.

RESPONDENT DEMOGRAPHICS

There were 395 surveys sent to a random sampling of teachers in the 9 participating high schools. Of these, 50 percent or 197 surveys were returned. The results produced the following characteristics about respondents.
The ages of respondents ranged from twenty to plus sixty years old. These were distributed over a clearly identifiable bell-shaped curve in nine categories of five years each. The largest number of responses, forty-four of the 197 responding teachers or 22.3 percent, came from teachers forty-one to forty-five years old. This same group also represented the mean and median age groups, with a standard deviation of 1.92. An additional note of interest was that the fourteen year age span from 36 to 50 years of age, accounted for 58.9 percent of all respondents (Figure 7).

FIGURE 7

AGE OF SURVEY RESPONDENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Number of responses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20-25</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26-30</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-35</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36-40</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-45</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46-50</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51-55</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>56-60</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>over 60</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
SEX

It was found that 53.3 percent, or 105 responses to the survey, were from men, while 86, or 43.7 percent, were from women. There were also six individuals, making up the remaining 3 percent, that declined to respond to this part of the survey. These figures indicated that nearly 10 percent more men responded to the survey than women (Figure 8).

Figure 8
SEX OF RESPONDENTS

DISTRICT EXPERIENCE

District experience represented the number of years of post-probationary teaching in the Clark County School
District. In this category it was found that the highest number of responses to the survey, forty-seven individuals, or 23.9 percent, came from teachers with one to five years of post-probationary district experience. This was closely followed by teachers with eleven to fifteen years of experience. They totalled forty-one in number at 20.8 percent. Eleven to fifteen years also represented the mean and median years of district experience. The standard deviation was 1.59. The full range of all responses was represented in figure 9.

Figure 9

DISTRICT EXPERIENCE OF RESPONDENTS

Number of Responses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years of Experience</th>
<th>0-5</th>
<th>6-10</th>
<th>11-15</th>
<th>16-20</th>
<th>21-25</th>
<th>26-30</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of Responses</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
TOTAL TEACHING EXPERIENCE

The final moderating variable identified the total years of teaching experience, whether in Clark County Schools or elsewhere. It was found that the highest number of responses to the survey in this area, fifty-two individuals, or 26.4 percent, came from teachers with sixteen to twenty years of total teaching experience. This represented a marked contrast from the information revealed in district experience, indicating that while many respondents were relatively new to Clark County Schools, they were not new to teaching. The next highest number of responses, forty or 20.3 percent, came from teachers with eleven to fifteen years of total experience and represented only one response more that teachers with twenty to twenty-five years of experience, which totalled 39 or 19.8 percent. The mean for total teaching experience was sixteen to twenty years as was the median. The standard deviation was 1.561 (Figure 10). (See appendix for moderating variable questionnaire).

SUMMARY OF ACTUAL LEADERSHIP STYLE RESPONSE

Since the results analyzed in this chapter were, for the most part, identified by the selected district objectives, it was appropriate to review those objectives from the school district's Elements of Quality.
Objective 3 - Instruction is planned, organized, and adjusted to meet identified instructional needs of students.

Objective 4 - A classroom climate conducive to the teaching-learning process is established and maintained.

Objective 5 - Instruction includes the elements of a good lesson and the basic principles of learning (CCSD-Elements iii-iv).

Figure 10
TOTAL TEACHING EXPERIENCE

As was previously mentioned, 197 surveys were returned from the 395 that were randomly selected. The following information represented how these individuals responded to survey questions.
OBJECTIVE 3

In this part of the survey it was found that 43.1 percent, or eighty-five of the responding teachers, perceived delegating as the actual leadership style used by their assistant principal for district objective three. It was further discovered that 29.9 percent, or fifty-nine teachers identified participating as the leadership style used by their assistant principal for objective three.

Only 15.2 percent of the responding teachers, or thirty individuals, indicated that selling was the leadership style used by their assistant principal for objective three. This was followed by even fewer teachers, 11.7 percent or twenty-three individuals, who felt that telling was the leadership style used by their assistant principal for objective three (Figure 11).

OBJECTIVE 4

In objective four a similar pattern was discovered as was identified in objective three. The leadership style with the highest number of teacher responses was delegating, with 49.9 percent, or ninety-eight teachers. In similar fashion, participating was second highest with 28.4 percent or fifty-six responses.

There were only twenty-seven teachers at 13.7 percent of the total who felt that selling was the leadership style
used by their assistant principal for objective four. This left 8.1 percent or sixteen individuals who perceived that telling was the style used by their assistant principals (Figure 12).

OBJECTIVE 5

In objective five the pattern of the previous two objectives continued. It was found that ninety-nine of the responding teachers, or 50.3 percent of all respondents identified delegating as the leadership style used by their assistant principal.
As before, the second highest number of responses was in the participating leadership style category with 27.4 percent or fifty-four individuals. At this point the pattern of the previous two objectives was broken because the number of responses for selling was found to be twenty-one, or 10.7 percent, while the number of responses for telling was twenty-three, or 11.7 percent. This represented a reverse order for these leadership styles from those presented in objectives three and four (Figure 13).
SUMMARY OF IDEAL LEADERSHIP STYLE PERCEPTIONS

The teacher readiness responses from the survey were an essential part in determining the ideal leadership style of assistant principals. It was by putting the readiness components of ability and willingness through the Readiness Style Match Matrix, that the Ideal Leadership Style was determined. Because of the nature of the matrix, the summary of responses included not only the four basic leadership styles, but also three additional style categories that used a combination of the four basic styles. These included the telling/selling, the selling/participating, and the
participating/delegating leadership style combinations. The summary of teacher responses in these areas were as follows.

OBJECTIVE 3

For this objective it was discovered that a great majority, 156 individuals, or 79.2 percent, perceived delegating as the ideal leadership style suggested as most effective for use by assistant principals for objective three. These numbers represented a higher total than for all other responses combined. Figure 14 illustrated this, as well as the totals for all ideal leadership style levels for objective three.

Figure 14

IDEAL LEADERSHIP STYLE RESPONSES
OBJECTIVE 3

Number of Responses
OBJECTIVE 4

While the number of teachers that suggested delegating as the ideal leadership style for objective four was not as high as that for objective three, there were still substantial numbers represented. It was found that 107 individuals, or 54.3 percent of respondents, identified delegating as the ideal leadership style most appropriated for use by assistant principals. As with objective three, this represented a higher total than for all other responses. Figure 15 illustrated.

Figure 15

IDEAL LEADERSHIP STYLE RESPONSES
OBJECTIVE 4

Number of Responses

OBJECTIVE 5

Objective five continued the pattern of the two previous objectives. Here it was found that 152 individuals, or 77.2
percent of respondents, identified delegating as the ideal leadership style suggested as most effective for use by assistant principals. Once again these numbers represented a higher total for the delegating leadership style than for all other responses combined (Figure 16).

**Figure 16**

IDEAL LEADERSHIP STYLE RESPONSES
OBJECTIVE 5

The sections below, focused on responses to the various leadership styles according to frequency totals from the moderating variables as they were distributed over the three selected district objectives.
OBJECTIVE 3

The first of these frequency distributions revealed actual leadership style totals for objective three with respect to men and women and their ages. It indicated that both men and women respondents felt that delegating was the actual leadership style of their assistant principal more often than any other style. It was also revealed that the most responses from men were found in the age category from thirty-six to forty, whereas for women, more responses were found in the age group from forty-one to forty-five (Table 1).

OBJECTIVE 4

This distribution provided similar results as those for objective three. It was found that both men and women respondents identified delegating as the actual leadership style of their assistant principal more often than any other style. The results also revealed that the most responses for men were found in the age category from thirty-six to forty, while the highest number of responses for women were found in the category from forty-one to forty-five years of age (Table 2).

OBJECTIVE 5

The actual leadership style distribution for this
Table 1

ACTUAL LEADERSHIP STYLE RESPONSES OF MEN AND WOMEN BY AGE GROUP: OBJECTIVE 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Tell</th>
<th>Sell</th>
<th>Part.</th>
<th>Del.</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Tell</th>
<th>Sell</th>
<th>Part.</th>
<th>Del.</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20-25</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26-30</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-35</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>12</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36-40</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
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<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-45</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
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<td>46-50</td>
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<td>20</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>14</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>51-55</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
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<tr>
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<td>9</td>
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<td>3</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61+</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Objective followed the same pattern as the previous two. It demonstrated that both men and women respondents identified delegating as the actual leadership style of their assistant principal more often than any other style. It also indicated, as did the objectives above, that the highest number of responses for men were from ages thirty-six to forty, while that for women were from forty-one to forty-five (Table 3).
Table 2

ACTUAL LEADERSHIP STYLE RESPONSES OF MEN
WOMEN BY AGE GROUP: OBJECTIVE 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Tell</th>
<th>Sell</th>
<th>Part.</th>
<th>Del.</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Tell</th>
<th>Sell</th>
<th>Part.</th>
<th>Del.</th>
<th>Total</th>
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<td></td>
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<td>12</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36-40</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>24</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>14</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-45</td>
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<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9</td>
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</tr>
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<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
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<td>7</td>
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</tr>
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<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>12</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>56-60</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61 +</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>10</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ACTUAL LEADERSHIP STYLE RESPONSES
FOR DISTRICT AND TOTAL YEARS
OF TEACHING EXPERIENCE

OBJECTIVE 3

This distribution presented leadership style responses based on the length of tenure and length of total teaching experience of respondents. It revealed that, whether
Table 3

**ACTUAL LEADERSHIP STYLE RESPONSES OF MEN WOMEN BY AGE GROUP: OBJECTIVE 5**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Men</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Women</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tell</td>
<td>Sell</td>
<td>Part.</td>
<td>Del.</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Tell</td>
<td>Sell</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>31-35</td>
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<td>14</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>20</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51-55</td>
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<td>4</td>
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<td>12</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>56-60</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
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<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61 +</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

respondents had only a few years of experience or many, delegating was the actual leadership style perceived for assistant principals more often than any other. The distribution remained consistent with what had already been discovered from demographic data about district and total teaching experience; that respondents had fewer years of in-district teaching than total teaching experience (Table 4).
Table 4

ACTUAL LEADERSHIP STYLE RESPONSES FOR DISTRICT AND TOTAL YEARS OF EXPERIENCE: OBJECTIVE 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yrs.</th>
<th>Tell</th>
<th>Sell</th>
<th>Part.</th>
<th>Del.</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Tell</th>
<th>Sell</th>
<th>Part.</th>
<th>Del.</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0-5</td>
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<td>11</td>
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<td>4</td>
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<td>13</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-15</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16-20</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-25</td>
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<td>10</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>41</td>
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<td>39</td>
</tr>
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<td>26-30</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>84</td>
<td>191</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>191</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

OBJECTIVE 4

The distribution results of this objective followed the same pattern as that for objective three. Delegating was the actual leadership style perceived for the assistant principal more often than any other, regardless of the years of district or total teaching experience. It also confirmed demographic data with respect to respondents having more total years of teaching experience than district experience (Table 5).
Table 5

ACTUAL LEADERSHIP STYLE RESPONSES FOR DISTRICT AND TOTAL YEARS OF EXPERIENCE: OBJECTIVE 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>District Experience</th>
<th>Total Experience</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yrs.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0-5</td>
<td>16 25 54 96 191</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10</td>
<td>16 25 54 96 191</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-15</td>
<td>16 25 54 96 191</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16-20</td>
<td>16 25 54 96 191</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-25</td>
<td>16 25 54 96 191</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26-30</td>
<td>16 25 54 96 191</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

OBJECTIVE 5

The distribution pattern for objective five identified the same results as those for objectives three and four. Thus, indicating a consistency of perceptions from respondents over all three objectives (Table 6).

IDEAL LEADERSHIP STYLE RESPONSES OF MEN AND WOMEN BY AGE GROUP

This set of distribution results identified the ideal leadership style for assistant principals based on readiness response levels of men and women. For these tables it must be remembered that the nature of the survey matrix provided for not only the four basic leadership styles, but also a
telling/selling, a selling participating, and a participating/delegating combination of leadership styles.

Table 6

ACTUAL LEADERSHIP STYLE RESPONSES FOR DISTRICT AND TOTAL YEARS OF EXPERIENCE: OBJECTIVE 5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>District Experience</th>
<th>Tell</th>
<th>Sell</th>
<th>Part.</th>
<th>Del.</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Tell</th>
<th>Sell</th>
<th>Part.</th>
<th>Del.</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<td>6</td>
<td>9</td>
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<td>20</td>
<td>27</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-15</td>
<td>9</td>
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<td>11</td>
<td>19</td>
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<td>5</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>16-20</td>
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<td>97</td>
<td>191</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>191</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

OBJECTIVE 3

The distribution results for objective three indicated that there were a number of ideal style categories with no responses from men or women of any age group. On the other hand, delegating proved to be the ideal leadership style selected by more men and women than any other style, regardless of age. In addition, it was found that the greatest number of responses for men were in the age group from thirty-six to forty while the highest number of responses for women were found in the age group from forty-
one to forty-five (Table 7). The table identified only those styles in which responses were found.

Table 7

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yrs.</th>
<th>Sell Sell/</th>
<th>Part. Part/</th>
<th>Del. Total</th>
<th>Sell Sell/</th>
<th>Part. Part/</th>
<th>Del. Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>20-25</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26-30</td>
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<td>2</td>
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<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-35</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36-40</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-45</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46-50</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51-55</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55-60</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61 +</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>105</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

OBJECTIVE 4

The distribution results for this objective followed the same pattern as that for objective three. Both men and women found delegating to be the ideal style they selected most often across all age groups. There were also several ideal style categories with no responses. The pattern also continued from objective three regarding the highest number
of responses from men being in the age group from thirty-six to forty, while that for women was found in the forty-one to forty-five age group (Table 8).

Table 8

| IDEAL LEADERSHIP STYLE RESPONSES OF MEN AND WOMEN BY AGE GROUP: OBJECTIVE 4 |
|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|--------|
| Yrs.    |         |           |       |           |     |       |           |       |           |     |       |
| 20-25   | 1        | 1         | 2     | 1         | 1   | 2     | 1         | 1     | 1         | 1   | 2     |
| 26-30   | 1        | 1         | 1     | 1         | 4   | 1     | 3         | 1     | 1         | 1   | 3     |
| 31-35   | 3        | 2         | 2     | 5         | 12  | 1     | 3         | 1     | 5         | 10  |
| 36-40   | 1        | 1         | 8     | 4         | 10  | 24    | 1         | 4     | 9         | 14  |
| 41-45   | 3        | 4         | 4     | 9         | 20  | 6     | 4         | 14    | 24        |
| 46-50   | 2        | 3         | 4     | 11        | 20  | 3     | 2         | 9     | 14        |
| 51-55   | 2        | 1         | 2     | 1         | 6   | 12    | 1         | 2     | 9         | 12  |
| 55-60   | 1        | 1         | 1     | 6         | 9   | 2     | 1         | 5     | 5         | 2   |
| 61 +    | 1        | 1         | 1     | 6         | 2   | 2     | 2         | 2     | 2         |
| Total   | 8        | 9         | 21    | 16        | 51  | 105   | 2         | 15    | 16        | 53  | 86    |

OBJECTIVE 5

The distribution pattern for objective five proved to be the same as that for objectives three and four regarding the delegating leadership style selection by men and women, and regarding the zero response levels for other ideal style

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categories. It was also found that the thirty-six to forty year age group for men, and the forty-one to forty-five year age group for women followed the same pattern as objectives three and four (Table 9).

Table 9

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 9</th>
<th>IDEAL LEADERSHIP STYLE RESPONSES OF MEN AND WOMEN BY AGE GROUP: OBJECTIVE 5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Men</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sell/Part.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yrs.</td>
<td>Tell</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-25</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26-30</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-35</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36-40</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-45</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
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<td>46-50</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51-55</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55-60</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61+</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Women</th>
<th>Sell/Part.</th>
<th>Part.</th>
<th>Part/Del.</th>
<th>Del.</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tell</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yrs.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-25</td>
<td>1</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-35</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36-40</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>24</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-45</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46-50</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51-55</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>12</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55-60</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61+</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

IDEAL LEADERSHIP STYLE RESPONSES FOR DISTRICT AND TOTAL YEARS OF TEACHING EXPERIENCE

The final set of distribution tables provided district and total years of experience results for the various ideal leadership style categories. As with those listed above for
men and women, the style categories identified here also indicated not only the four basic styles, but also the style combinations of telling/selling, selling/participating, and participating/delegating.

OBJECTIVE 3

The distribution pattern for this objective indicated that delegating was the ideal style selected by the majority of respondents at all levels of both district and total years of teaching experience. The totals also confirmed those found in earlier demographic data; that the highest number of survey responses for district experience came from respondents with zero to five years of experience, while the highest for total teaching experience came from respondents with sixteen to twenty years of experience (Table 10).

OBJECTIVE 4

The distribution pattern for this objective was similar to that described for objective three, in that delegating was the ideal style selected most often by respondents at all levels of both district and total years of teaching experience. The highest number of responses for both district and total experience were found to be the same as for objective three (Table 11).
Table 10
IDEAL LEADERSHIP STYLE RESPONSES FOR DISTRICT AND TOTAL YEARS OF EXPERIENCE: OBJECTIVE 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>32</td>
<td>47</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>19</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>27</td>
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<td>39</td>
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<td>7</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>52</td>
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<tr>
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<td>23</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>191</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 11
IDEAL LEADERSHIP STYLE RESPONSES FOR DISTRICT AND TOTAL YEARS OF EXPERIENCE: OBJECTIVE 4

<table>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
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<td>9</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-15</td>
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<td>10</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6</td>
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<td>40</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-25</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26-30</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>191</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
OBJECTIVE 5

The distribution pattern for objective five repeated the same results as described above for objective three and four. Delegating was the ideal style of choice by respondents regardless of the number of district or total years of teaching experience. The highest number of responses also remained consistent with zero to five years for district experience and sixteen to twenty years for total teaching experience (Table 12).

PEARSON CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS

Before looking at partial correlation results with respect to the hypotheses, an understanding of the full correlation coefficients was necessary.

To accomplish this, a Pearson Product Moment Correlation was used. This statistical method measured the magnitude of relationship between actual and ideal leadership styles for assistant principals over the three selected district objectives, without controlling for any of the moderating variables. A correlation table was designed to show the relationship between every possible pair of variables that resulted from the analysis.

The findings showed a strong relationship when comparing actual leadership style to actual leadership style over the
Table 12

IDEAL LEADERSHIP STYLE RESPONSES FOR DISTRICT AND TOTAL YEARS OF EXPERIENCE: OBJECTIVE 5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Exp.</th>
<th>District Experience</th>
<th>Total Experience</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tell</td>
<td>Sell/Part.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0-5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-15</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16-20</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-25</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26-30</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

|      | 1 | 2 | 16 | 23 | 149 | 191 | 1 | 2 | 16 | 23 | 149 | 191 |

three district objectives. There was a particularly high correlation between the actual leadership style for objective four and the actual leadership style for objective five.

However, the correlations between the actual and ideal leadership styles of assistant principals for the three district objectives indicated very low, and for the most part, negative correlations. There were two exceptions to this generalization at .05 and .06 on objectives three and five respectively. While these relationships were still very low, a positive correlation did exist.

The final comparisons using the Pearson correlations revealed the relationship between ideal style and ideal style
for the three district objectives. There it was found that
the correlations were not particularly high, but were in a
positive direction (Table 13).

Table 13

PEARSON CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Actual Leadership Style</th>
<th>Ideal Leadership Style</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Obj.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objective 3</td>
<td>.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objective 4</td>
<td>.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objective 5</td>
<td>.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ideal Leadership Style</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objective 3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objective 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objective 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TEST OF HYPOTHESES

Three hypotheses guided the research for this study.
The first one stated that:

There will be a significant positive relationship
between the situational leadership style of high school
assistant principals as measured by the Readiness Style Match
survey, and the ideal style for these individuals as measured
by the Readiness Style Match Matrix, for objective 3 of the
Performance Criteria Log, with adjustments made for teacher
age, sex, length of experience, and length of tenure; significance being measured at the .05 level of significance.

The second hypothesis of the study stated that:

There will be a significant positive relationship between the situational leadership style of high school assistant principals as measured by the Readiness Style Match survey, and the ideal style for these individuals as measured by the Readiness Style Match Matrix, for objective 4 of the Performance Criteria Log, with adjustments made for teacher age, sex, length of experience, and length of tenure; significance being measured at the .05 level of significance.

The final hypothesis stated that:

There will be a significant positive relationship between the situational leadership style of high school assistant principals as measured by the Readiness Style Match survey, and the ideal style for these individuals as measured by the Readiness Style Match Matrix, for objective 5 of the Performance Criteria Log, with adjustments made for teacher age, sex, length of experience, and length of tenure; significance being measured at the .05 level of significance.

The partial correlation results testing the above hypotheses were presented in the tables below. Each table provided the relationship results as moderating variables were controlled.

The first of these tables, presented partial correlation results after controlling for teacher age. The results
indicated that the correlations were very low and, for the most part, in a negative direction.

The P value or significance level for the correlations, when controlling for the age variables, was found to be above the .05 level set by the hypotheses. There were two exceptions to this at .018 and .026. Their correlations, however, were still very low and negative, even though they were found to be significant (Table 14). Nevertheless, the results identified were not unlike those given for the Pearson correlations, which did not control for any variable factor.

The next table provided partial correlation results after controlling for teacher age and sex. Similar results were found as those identified when controlling for only one variable, which meant that the majority of the correlations were very low and in a negative direction. Those found to be positive, were the same as those found in table 14 above.

The P value or significance levels for the correlations were also found to be similar to those above, which meant all but two were above the .05 level set by the hypotheses. Those found to be significant were at .027 and .033 and in the same position as those found significant when controlling only for teacher age (Table 15).

The third table of partial correlations controlled for teacher age, sex, and length of tenure. While the numbers themselves varied, the trends were the same as for the two
previous sets of partial correlation results. This included the low and generally negative correlations, the significance levels above set limits, and the same two significant level exceptions (Table 16).

Table 14
PARTIAL CORRELATIONS CONTROLLING FOR AGE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Actual Leadership Style</th>
<th>Ideal Leadership Style</th>
<th>Objective 3</th>
<th>Objective 4</th>
<th>Objective 5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Objective 3</td>
<td></td>
<td>-.03</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>P=.300</td>
<td>P=.492</td>
<td>P=.269</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objective 4</td>
<td></td>
<td>-.06</td>
<td>-.15</td>
<td>-.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>P=.185</td>
<td>P=.018</td>
<td>P=.323</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objective 5</td>
<td></td>
<td>.05</td>
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<td>-.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>P=.234</td>
<td>P=.026</td>
<td>P=.242</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 15
PARTIAL CORRELATIONS CONTROLLING FOR AGE AND SEX

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Actual Leadership Style</th>
<th>Ideal Leadership Style</th>
<th>Objective 3</th>
<th>Objective 4</th>
<th>Objective 5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Objective 3</td>
<td></td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>P=.375</td>
<td>P=.397</td>
<td>P=.235</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objective 4</td>
<td></td>
<td>-.05</td>
<td>-.14</td>
<td>-.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>P=.238</td>
<td>P=.027</td>
<td>P=.357</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objective 5</td>
<td></td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>-.13</td>
<td>-.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>P=.189</td>
<td>P=.033</td>
<td>P=.263</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 16

PARTIAL CORRELATIONS CONTROLLING FOR AGE, 
SEX, AND LENGTH OF TENURE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Actual Leadership Style</th>
<th>Ideal Leadership Style</th>
<th>Objective 3</th>
<th>Objective 4</th>
<th>Objective 5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Objective 3</td>
<td>-0.02</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P = 0.389</td>
<td>P = 0.402</td>
<td>P = 0.217</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objective 4</td>
<td>-0.05</td>
<td>-0.14</td>
<td>-0.02</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P = 0.238</td>
<td>P = 0.027</td>
<td>P = 0.357</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objective 5</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>-0.13</td>
<td>-0.03</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P = 0.171</td>
<td>P = 0.032</td>
<td>P = 0.297</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The final set of partial correlations controlled for all moderating variables set forth in the study. They controlled for teacher age, sex, length of tenure, and length of experience. The results repeated those discussed above and provided the basis for responding to the hypotheses of the study regarding the actual and ideal leadership style of assistant principals for the three selected district objectives (Table 17).

As a result of the partial correlation findings above, which indicated a generally low correlation between actual and ideal leadership styles for all selected objectives and a significance level above the 0.05 set by the study, the research hypotheses were rejected. Even though two of the correlations were found to be significant, they were very low correlations and in a negative direction.
Table 17
PARTIAL CORRELATIONS CONTROLLING FOR AGE, SEX, LENGTH OF TENURE, AND LENGTH OF EXPERIENCE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Actual Leadership Style</th>
<th>Ideal Leadership Style</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Objective 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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FINDINGS FOR CONSTRUCT VALIDITY.

In chapter 3 it was proposed that an expected outcome from survey data would be that a high number of teachers would indicate a delegating style for their readiness level. These projections were made as a result of the descriptions the survey authors provided, based on their research, of the type of individuals that would respond to these readiness levels. They suggested that teachers would, because of higher levels of education and experience, be both able and willing to accomplish district objectives. The findings presented above for ideal style, which were based on teacher readiness, indicated that the expected outcomes held true. More than seventy percent of the teachers responded with a
delegating leadership style to each of the three selected district objectives used in the study for ideal leadership style.

SUMMARY

This chapter presented the findings of the data collected during the research in narrative and visual form. Included in the presentation was an introduction, an analysis of respondent demographics based on moderating variables, and the correlation results from both Pearson and Partial Correlation statistical procedures.

The results indicated that more teachers forty-one to forty-five years old responded to the survey than any other age group. It also indicated that more men than women responded to the survey. Respondents had fewer years of in-district experience than total teaching experience.

Actual leadership style responses identified delegating as the actual leadership style of assistant principals more often than any other. An even greater majority felt that delegating was the ideal style to be used by assistant principals with teachers. These findings were consistent over all three selected district objectives.

The analysis of the Pearson correlations, which did not control for any variable, found that actual leadership style correlations were high and positive, but that correlations between actual and ideal leadership styles were not only very

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low, but in a negative direction. Ideal style correlations
were found to be positive, but not particularly high. These
results were generally true for all selected objectives.

Partial correlations, which controlled for teacher age, sex, length of experience, and length of tenure, were found to be similar for all three objectives. They generally found little relationship between the actual and ideal leadership style of high school assistant principals. Those correlations that were positive, were consistently so for all three of the selected objectives, but were very low. The correlations found to be significant were negative and low, but consistently the same ones over all three objectives. These findings remained consistent regardless of the moderating variables controlled.
CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS
FOR FURTHER STUDY

SUMMARY

To determine the relationship between the actual and ideal leadership styles of Clark County high school assistant principals, a thorough review of the literature was conducted regarding leadership style, with special emphasis on situational leadership. A further review was conducted with regard to leader effectiveness, and how that effectiveness related to high school assistant principals and the increasing role they had in the everyday operation of the school. From this information, an appropriate survey and moderating variable questionnaire were identified and delivered to a sampling of high school teachers. The collected data was then organized, tabulated and the findings presented. The purpose of this chapter was to provide a summary, conclusions, and recommendations for further study, based on those findings.

The research used the theories of Paul Hersey and Kenneth Blanchard as the foundation upon which the study was based. These authors proposed that effective leadership was a function of the level of match between the leader's actual and ideal styles. They explained that the ideal style was
identified by the level of readiness of followers to accomplish specified organizational objectives. They defined readiness as a function of the follower's ability and willingness to accomplish the identified tasks. From their research on these concepts, Hersey and Blanchard developed the Readiness Style Match survey (Hersey and Blanchard 186) and the Readiness Style Match Matrix (300-301) to help leaders identify the level of match between the actual and ideal leadership styles. The results were then used to help leaders become more effective.

Using the above theories and instruments, the relationship between the assistant principal's actual and ideal leadership styles was surveyed. This was done with respect to three district objectives upon which teachers were evaluated. It was also done in connection with a questionnaire on the selected moderating variables of teacher age, sex, length of experience, and length of tenure.

The data collected from this work identified some important aspects concerning survey respondents as well as some interesting correlations regarding actual and ideal leadership style perceptions about assistant principals.

One such result identified that the highest number of responses from teachers came from those forty-one to forty-five years old. However, when this was broken down into men and women it was discovered that respondent men were younger, thirty-six to forty, than respondent women, who were
forty-one to forty-five. It was also discovered that more men responded to the survey than women.

An analysis of district and total teaching experience found that responding teachers had fewer years of district experience than total teaching experience.

The responses of teachers regarding actual leadership style were similar regardless of the objective reviewed. Approximately half of all respondents perceived delegating as the actual leadership style of their assistant principal.

Even larger percentages were found when ideal style responses were reviewed. For criteria log objectives three and five, it was found that 77 and 79 percent of respondents, respectively, perceived delegating as the most desired leadership style for assistant principals to use when working with teachers on these objectives. However, results for objective four indicated that only approximately 55 percent of responding teachers identified delegating as the leadership style most appropriate for assistant principals to use when working with them.

It was also discovered that regardless of the objective reviewed, more men and women at all levels of teaching experience selected delegating as both the actual and ideal leadership style for assistant principals.

Correlation results for actual and ideal leadership styles were found to be very low, and for the most part, negative. This was true whether selected variables
were controlled using partial correlation procedures, or whether they were not controlled, using Pearson Product Moment Correlation procedures. This indicated little or no relationship between the actual and ideal leadership styles of assistant principals.

CONCLUSIONS

Several important conclusions resulted from the analysis of the data collected in this study. Some of which focused on moderating variables while others resulted from the correlation analysis of actual and ideal leadership styles.

First, the rapid growth of the student population in the Clark County School District required the addition of new teachers, and those teachers were experienced veterans, at least at the high school level. The reason these teachers were attracted to Clark County was likely for some other reason than salary, since district policy would recognize only four years experience outside Clark County Schools (CCSD Handbook 4292). This would mean that some teachers would lose several years experience and, therefore, salary increases, by moving to Southern Nevada.

Because delegating was selected most often as the actual leadership style, it meant that responding teachers perceived assistant principals as allowing teachers great flexibility and control in the procedures they used to accomplish the identified objectives. In addition, assistant principals
turned much of the decision making over to teachers and provided little direct supervision.

Ideal style perceptions concluded that effective leadership situations for assistant principals resulted when they delegated much of the responsibility for objective accomplishment to teachers, and provided only general guidelines. This was true, however, only for objectives three and five. Objective four, which dealt with establishing and maintaining an appropriate teaching-learning classroom climate, concluded that responding teachers needed additional supervision and help in accomplishing this particular task because ideal style responses were much lower. Furthermore, an ineffective situation would result if assistant principals were to use the same leadership style for this objective as they did for the other two.

The construct validity concept proposed by the study was supported by the research findings. Because of their level of experience and education, teachers had the ability and willingness to accomplish district objectives. It was expected, then, that a high number of responding teachers would indicate a delegating leadership style. This proved to be true. On the average, for the three objectives, 73 percent of respondents identified delegating as the ideal leadership style most appropriate for assistant principals.

Neither full correlation analysis, using Pearson procedures, nor Partial Correlations, controlling for
selected variables found a significant positive relationship between the actual and ideal leadership styles of assistant principals. Yet it was concluded that some type of relationship existed because half or more of the survey respondents identified delegating as both the actual and ideal leadership style for assistant principals. The partial correlation analysis, used to determine correlation coefficients, was only satisfactory as an indicator of relationships if the relationships were more or less linear. The results of this study revealed that such a linear situation was not identified. Therefore, a partial correlation analysis was not the most appropriate procedure to use.

With little or no correlation between actual and ideal leadership styles, great potential for ineffective leadership situations existed in the participating high schools because of the high level of mismatch between the leadership style of the assistant principal and the ability and willingness levels of teachers. Greater school effectiveness would result if the level of match were brought closer together through inservice and training.

While correlation results did not support the hypotheses regarding actual and ideal leadership styles, such theories should not be abandoned. The possibility that the hypotheses may be accepted, using other statistical procedures, merits further investigation.
RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

As a result of this study, it was recommended that the following types of studies be conducted to broaden the findings and conclusions that were initiated in this project.

First was the need to statistically analyze the data gathered in this or replicated studies using other procedures than partial correlations to determine the relationship between actual and ideal leadership styles of high school assistant principals. The procedure used must pay particular attention to the fact that the data collected may not be linear. An analysis of covariance, conceptually similar to a partial correlation, provides one possibility. However, care must be taken so such a procedure does not mislead.

While identifying the relationship between the actual and ideal leadership styles of assistant principals was important because of the ever increasing responsibility these individuals have in the school environment, the principal is ultimately the instructional leader for the school. It would, therefore, be appropriate to identify the relationship between the actual and ideal leadership styles of high school principals in relation to not only teachers, but also to the principal's assistants, and his or her other support staff members. The relationship among all of these groups would have an effect on the effectiveness or ineffectiveness of any given principal.
The focus of this study was on personnel in the secondary schools. It would also be appropriate to identify the actual and ideal style relationship for elementary personnel and to determine if such results were similar to those found in secondary education.

Only three of the objectives or criteria for teacher evaluation were selected for use in this study. Yet it was found that respondents did not have as high a level of readiness for one of them as for the other two. It would be appropriate for study to determine if assistant principals, or other personnel doing teacher evaluations, identified different leadership styles for different objectives or whether they used the same style for all objectives without knowledge of teacher readiness levels. This would also involve identifying the readiness levels of teachers on all evaluation criteria and whether such readiness levels changed as the evaluation objective changed.

Since responding teachers suggested an ideal style at a somewhat lower level for objective four than for objectives three and five, it would be appropriate to study what factors brought about such perceptions on the part of responding teachers. Further, it would be important to determine if similar results would be achieved when replicating the survey process for the three objectives, with particular attention focused on objective four.

It would also be useful to determine if training
assistant principals and staff on leadership style and readiness levels would provide any significant change in the relationship between actual and ideal leadership style perceptions.

From the moderating variables it was found that responding teacher were being drawn to Southern Nevada as veterans of the teaching profession in spite of potential cuts in salary because of district policies regarding the number of years of experience allowed when they enter. Significant for the principal looking for new teachers, would be those factors that were bringing these individuals to the Clark County School District.

Since the results of this study indicated no significant relationship between the actual and ideal leadership styles of assistant principals, it would be appropriate to replicate this study using these, or other survey instruments, to measure this relationship. In addition, further study, in general, of the assistant principal and his or her relationship with teachers would be relevant, particularly as the role of the assistant principal in the administration of secondary schools grows.
APPENDIX 1

Letter of Support—Dr. Paul R. Goodwin
TO: Colleagues
FROM: Paul R. Goodwin
DATE: May 1, 1989
SUBJECT: Survey

The purpose of the attached survey is to help complete the dissertation work of Mr. Brock Morris. It is designed to identify characteristics of leadership style and readiness levels between you and your immediate supervisor.

Mr. Morris has discussed the use of this survey with me. It has also been reviewed and approved by Mr. Ralph Cadwallader and Mrs. Terry Mannion. We have also discussed the importance of obtaining proper results. I would, therefore, encourage your participation in this exercise to help in this process.

bh
Attachment
cc: Ralph Cadwallader
    Terry Mannion
    High School Principals
APPENDIX 2

Survey Cover Letter to Participating Teachers
Dear Colleague:

Your cooperation is requested in completing the attached survey, which is part of the data collection process for completing my dissertation. Its purpose is to determine your perceptions of the leadership style that is being used by your immediate supervisor (the person who is responsible for your performance evaluation). In Part I, please mark your responses with this individual in mind.

In Part II of the survey you will be asked to respond to your "Readiness", that is, your ability and willingness to complete various objectives.

Being a teacher myself, I understand the demands that are placed on your time. I have tried, therefore, to make this exercise as brief as possible.

While your name does appear on the initial mailing envelope, there are no names on the survey itself. The results will be anonymous and will be held in strict confidence. These results will be used only in completing the dissertation.

Because of the nature of the random selection process, it is very important that each individual respond to the survey so that proper results can be obtained. I therefore request your assistance in completing this information and returning it in the self-addressed, stamped, envelope. I would appreciate it if you could do this before May 19, 1989.

Thank you for your assistance.

Sincerely,

T. Brock Mori
APPENDIX 3

Moderating Variable Questionnaire
BACKGROUND INFORMATION
(Please Return with Survey)

Please put an "x" in the appropriate space for the items listed below. Mark only
one space for each of the categories.

A. Age:
1. 20 - 25
2. 26 - 30
3. 31 - 35
4. 36 - 40
5. 41 - 45
6. 46 - 50
7. 51 - 55
8. 56 - 60
9. over 60

B. Sex:
1. Male
2. Female

D. Total years of teaching experience:
1. 0 - 5 yrs.
2. 6 - 10 yrs.
3. 11 - 15 yrs.
4. 16 - 20 yrs.
5. 21 - 25 yrs.
6. 26 - 30 yrs.

C. Years of post-probationary teaching
with Clark County School District
1. 0 - 5 yrs.
2. 6 - 10 yrs.
3. 11 - 15 yrs.
4. 16 - 20 yrs.
5. 21 - 25 yrs.
6. 26 - 30 yrs.

Immediate Supervisor:
1. Principal
2. Assistant Principal
3. Other (position)

Ethnicity:
1. Asian/South Pacific
2. Black
3. Caucasian
4. Hispanic

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Readiness Style Match Survey
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These consist of pages:

128–131
APPENDIX 5

Follow-up Letter to Participants
May 15, 1989

Dear Colleague:

This is just a note to thank you for your participation in the Readiness Style Match survey on leadership style. I appreciate your cooperation. If you have not taken a few moments to complete this exercise, I would like to encourage you to do so and return it as soon as possible.

Thank you.

Sincerely,

T. Brock Morris
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   Issue

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212 Zion Drive
Las Vegas, NV 89107

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