

To the Graduate Council:

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A STUDY OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE LEADER  
BEHAVIOR OF COLLEGE OF EDUCATION DEANS AND  
THE ROLE CONFLICT AND ROLE AMBIGUITY  
EXPERIENCED BY DEPARTMENT HEADS

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## DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to Mom and Dad, and my loving wife, Karen. I am forever indebted to Mom and Dad, who by example taught me the power of perseverance and love. Karen, my sweetheart, my best friend, and my wife, without her patience, love, and many hours of work, this project could never have been completed.

For all my future accomplishments, they deserve the honor.

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## ABSTRACT

Individuals in complex educational organizations are exposed to a variety of role expectations. The behavior of the leader has been cited as an important contributing factor to subordinate role perception. And, since the leader's behavior may be inappropriate for a given situation, the subordinate may experience role difficulties, namely, role conflict and role ambiguity. In professional, bureaucratic institutions of higher education, the influence of the dean's behavior on the department head's role perception in terms of role conflict and role ambiguity is of particular importance. The major purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between the leader behavior of college of education deans and the role conflict and role ambiguity experienced by department heads.

To investigate this relationship, a random sample of 234 department heads in colleges of education in public universities located in the Southern Regional Education Board (SREB) states with National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) approved programs was selected. Each department head provided a description of his or her dean's behavior and an evaluation of their personal role conflict and role ambiguity.

The analysis of variance procedure indicated a significant relationship between the dean's behavior and the department head's role conflict and role ambiguity. The department head's total educational experience was also significantly related to the department head's role

conflict and role ambiguity. The multiple comparison techniques found that the department heads whose dean was low in Consideration and low in Initiating Structure experienced the highest degree of role conflict and role ambiguity.

The analyses provided the basis for the following conclusions:

1. The behavior of college of education deans is a major factor influencing the department head's role perception. As a result, the evaluation of the leadership style of candidates for dean positions should be considered.

2. The department head's total educational experience appears to moderate the relationship between the dean's behavior and the department head's role conflict and ambiguity.

3. Lower department head role conflict and ambiguity would result from a dean with a high Initiating Structure and high Consideration behavior style.

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

The administrative relationships which exist in institutions of higher education are similar to the subordinate-superordinate relationships found in many other organizations. The organizational premise that administrators accomplish the goals of the organization through their ability to influence the behavior of subordinates is generally accepted by organizational theorists. The behavior an administrator displays in this process, often labeled "leadership behavior," is a significant source of influence for the subordinate.

Modern organization theory has given much emphasis to the subject of organizational leadership. Some theories have advocated that leaders should be task-oriented, directive, and distant in their relations with subordinates. On the other hand, some theorists encourage the leader to be person-oriented, participative, and non-directive in their interaction with subordinates. More recently, a middle ground approach has been developed which encompasses both concerns. Paul Hersey (1967) stated the concept of effective leader behavior as follows:

The more managers adapt their style of leader behavior to meet the particular situation and the needs of their followers, the more effective they will tend to be in reaching personal and organizational goals. . . .

Research in industrial organizations has cited the subordinate-superordinate relationship as an important factor in organizational

effectiveness. Specific emphasis has been given to the behavior of the administrator in this relationship. The administrator's behavior has been shown to be a significant factor in relation to subordinate effectiveness. Grant (1945) described the importance of this relationship:

Both experimental studies and employee-attitude surveys provide convincing evidence that the quality of supervision is a major force in stimulating production, influencing attitudes, and in satisfying the needs of workers. . . .

Leadership, like other social phenomena, is socially constructed through interaction of both leaders and followers (Berger and Luckman, 1966). Tannenbaum, Weschler, and Massarik (1961) described this interaction as "interpersonal influence." That is, the leader is involved in an influence process in which he/she is attempting to modify the behavior of people toward the attainment of organizational goals.

Administrative theorists would agree that leader behavior is an important variable related to organizational effectiveness. Leader behavior often aids in directing the action of subordinates and in the clarification of organizational expectations. As a result, the subordinate's perception of his/her role in the organization is partially constructed through the behavior of the leader toward the subordinate.

Of the many dimensions of leader behavior, Halpin and Winer (1957) found Initiating Structure and Consideration to be related to the subordinate's psychological structure and performance. Initiating Structure is described as those leader behaviors which define

relationships, specify subordinate role expectations, establishes channels of communication, and emphasizes task completion.

Consideration consists of those leader behaviors which are indicative of mutual trust, respect, and friendship. The combination of these two leader behaviors contributes to the subordinate's perception of his/her role in the organization.

The Path-Goal theory of leadership developed by House (1971) has attempted to situationally define leadership behavior and its influence on subordinate behavior and role perception. The Path-Goal theory posited that the functions of the leader are to assure the subordinate's rewards for achieving goals by clarifying the paths to these goals and removing any barriers to goal achievement, and to show support and consideration for subordinates as they participate in the organization. These two functions approximate the two dimensions of leader behavior proposed by Halpin and Winer (1957). It can be inferred from the Path-Goal theory that the subordinate's role perception is partially dependent on the leader's ability to fulfill these functions.

Yukl (1981) recognized the importance of subordinate role perception. The primary determinants of subordinate role perception are the task structure and role formalization. The leader is actively engaged in both functions. The leader provides information to the subordinate regarding work responsibilities and defines the reward system in the organization. As a result, the leader's definition of the role influences the subordinate's role perception.

### Statement of the Problem

Individuals in complex organizations are exposed to a variety of expectations as they occupy roles within the organization. The functional requirements of an organization link each individual to certain other members; the expectations of these others, the role set, in turn influences the focal person, that is, the role incumbent (Katz and Kahn, 1978). Ambiguity of expectations from others or conflicting expectations between or within any organizational member may result in the role occupant experiencing role tension or stress (Kahn et al., 1964; Lyons, 1971; Rizzo et al., 1970; Keller, 1975; Valenzi and Dessler, 1978).

In classical organization theory, the principle of unity of command states that an employee should receive instructions from one superior only, and that there should be only one leader and one plan for a group having the same objective. The principle of unity of command infers that the behavior of the superior is a significant factor in subordinate role development. More recent studies and theories (e.g., Rizzo et al., 1970; House, 1971; House and Dessler, 1974; Schriesheim et al., 1976) support the importance of the leader's behavior in influencing subordinate role perception. The influence of the leader's behavior on the subordinate's role perception, then, would be dependent on the situation according to current contingency theories of leadership (Fiedler, 1964; Reddin, 1967; House, 1971; and Hersey and Blanchard, 1977). Since the leader behavior may be inappropriate for

the situation, it is entirely possible that the subordinate will experience role conflict and/or role ambiguity.

Previous research findings concerning role ambiguity and role conflict suggest that both are related to negative organizational factors (Kahn et al., 1964; Rizzo, House and Lirtzman, 1970; Greene and Organ, 1973; Keller, 1975). A number of findings (House, 1971; Weed et al., 1976) suggest that role ambiguity may moderate the relationship between leader behavior (initiating structure and consideration) and subordinate satisfaction.

Institutions of higher education, as complex socioeconomic organizations, expose members to an assortment of role requirements and expectations. The members of institutions of higher education are characterized by a high level of knowledge and skill which approaches or exceeds that of the administrator. As a result, the influence of the behavior of college deans on department heads' role perception is of particular importance. Angona and Williams (1981) described the conflict which can easily arise in such a professional, bureaucratic organization when the administrator's behavior is inappropriate. The problem under investigation in this research focused on the role conflict and role ambiguity experienced by college of education department heads and its relationship to the behavior of college of education deans.

#### Purpose of the Study

While the study of the effects of leader behavior on subordinate performance is important, it was not the focus of this

study. This study concentrated on the relationship between leader behavior and subordinate role perception. More specifically, the purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between the behavior of college of education deans and the role conflict and ambiguity experienced by college of education department heads.

The first objective was to categorize the department heads into four groups according to the degree of Consideration and Initiating Structure behavior the department head perceived in his/her interaction with the respective dean. After the four primary groups were identified, the focus of this research was to determine the role conflict and role ambiguity experienced by each department head and to determine if there was a significant difference in the role conflict and role ambiguity experienced by the department heads in each of the four groups. Additional analyses of the data were undertaken to specify the existence of a significant relationship between the role conflict and role ambiguity of each department head with selected demographic characteristics.

This research provided a better understanding of the influence of leader behavior on subordinate administrators. Particular emphasis was placed on this relationship in the institution of higher education and how it affects the administration of higher education. Therefore, the investigation of existing administrator-administrator relationships within the hierarchial structure of higher education should contribute to the endeavor of education to become a more effective organization.

A secondary purpose of this study was to add current information to the body of literature already existing concerning administrator-administrator relationships in higher education.

### Importance of the Study

A significant body of research has developed which indicates the importance of role ambiguity and role conflict for understanding the behavior and attitudes of people in organizations (e.g., Kahn, et al., 1964; Rizzo, et al., 1970; Keller, 1975; and Valenzi and Dessler, 1978). The concentration of much of this research has been on the relationship between the leader behavior of a supervisor and the role perception of a subordinate. Research considering the leader behavior of an administrator and its influence on the role perceptions of other administrators is limited.

The vast majority of research with role conflict and role ambiguity has been conducted in non-educational work settings. Kahn and his colleagues (1964) conducted a series of case studies and a national survey of persons in various industrial settings. Roethlisberger (1965) investigated role pressures of foremen in industrial organizations. The electronics industry was the setting for the work of Valenzi and Dessler (1978). Lyons (1971) used nurses as the subjects of his research on role clarity. The subjects participating in Keller's (1975) study were professional employees of an applied science department in a large government research agency. Therefore, research involving leader behavior and role conflict and

ambiguity in professional, bureaucratic educational organizations is much needed.

The work of Rizzo, House, and Lirtzman (1970) found both role conflict and role ambiguity to be associated with low job satisfaction and dysfunctional behavior. Their data suggested a stronger negative relationship between role ambiguity and job satisfaction than between role conflict and job satisfaction (1970). A later analysis by House and Rizzo (1972) confirmed that role ambiguity was more negatively correlated to job satisfaction than was role conflict. They concluded that role ambiguity was the more powerful role-related variable (1972).

Since the findings of the House and Rizzo study were published in 1972, many studies involving role-related variables have focused on role ambiguity (e.g., Greene and Organ, 1973; Ivancevich and Donnelly, 1974; and Wright and Thomas, 1982). However, the prior works of Tosi and Tosi (1970) and Tosi (1971) found that the opposite was true. Role conflict was significantly related to low job satisfaction and there was no significant relationship between satisfaction and role ambiguity. The relative importance of role conflict versus role ambiguity is, therefore, unclear.

This study proposed to examine role conflict and role ambiguity simultaneously with equal emphasis for both variables. By investigating both role conflict and role ambiguity simultaneously, it was possible to research the influence of leader behavior on both variables within the same situations. This method allowed the results to be analyzed without any prejudice as to which variable was more powerful.

A review of the previous literature (e.g., Kahn, et al., 1964 and Rizzo, et al., 1970) indicated that both role conflict and role ambiguity are related to negative organizational consequences. Therefore, it was anticipated that this study would provide additional information on the significance of the relationship between the behavior of college of education deans and the role conflict and role ambiguity of college of education department heads.

#### Assumptions

1. Role ambiguity and role conflict are independent of each other and can be identified.
2. Some degree of role ambiguity and role conflict exists in all organizations.
3. The effectiveness of leader behavior is contingent upon the situation.
4. It is possible to describe and identify leader behavior patterns.

#### Limitations and Delimitations

This study was limited to the extent that the subjects have had prior exposure to the research questionnaires and this exposure has in some way influenced their responses. The instruments utilized in this study were originally developed for use in industry; each was altered for use in this study to make item wording apply to higher educational institutions. This study was limited, therefore, to the extent to which these altered instruments are applicable.

The study was delimited to a random sample of National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) approved public universities in the 14 Southern Regional Education Board (SREB) states. The population included all department heads within colleges of education in universities which met the above requirements. The findings can be generalized to other public institutions in this region.

#### Definition of Terms

1. Administrator-Administrator Relationship. The interaction between administrators at various levels in an organization.
2. College of Education. The unit of a large university which consists of various departments for the purpose of training individuals for careers in education or related fields.
3. Consideration. The extent to which a leader exhibits concern for the welfare of other members of the group.
4. Dean. The individual responsible for the administration of a college unit within a large university.
5. Department Head. The individual responsible for the management of a specific department within a college.
6. Initiation of Structure. The extent to which a leader initiates activity in a group, organizes it, and defines the way the work is to be done.
7. Leader Behavior. The particular acts in which a leader engages in the course of directing and coordinating the work of group members.

8. Role. A status position occupied by an individual in various institutions and organizations including the expectations of the position.

9. Role Ambiguity. The lack of the necessary information available to a given organizational position, including the behavioral requirements which serve to guide behavior and provide knowledge that the behavior is appropriate.

10. Role Conflict. The dimensions of congruency-incongruency or compatability-incompatability in the requirements of a role, where congruency or compatability is judged relative to a set of standards or conditions which impinge on role performance.

### Procedures

#### Sample

The sample included in this study consisted of subjects randomly selected from the population (N=1109) of department heads in colleges of education in public universities located in the 14 Southern Regional Education Board (SREB) states and with National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) approved programs. The total number of subjects in the sample was 339.

#### Instrumentation

In an effort to adequately assess the dimensions of the administrator-administrator relationship in higher education and to describe that relationship, instruments were chosen that demonstrate significant validity and reliability.

To ascertain the leader behavior of college of education deans, the Ohio State Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) was used (1957). The LBDQ was chosen for its extensive use in prior leader behavior research and the questionnaire's reliability and validity. The internal consistency of the LBDQ for Consideration and Initiation of Structure are .90 and .78, respectively. The estimated reliabilities for the LBDQ are .93 for Consideration and .86 for Initiation of Structure. That is, items on the consideration behavior scale of each instrument correlate highly with all other Consideration items and do not correlate to such an extent with Initiation items. Conversely, items on the Initiation of Structure scale, somewhat independent of the consideration items, are highly correlated with the other Initiation of Structure items. To improve the valid measurement of leader behavior, a variety of additionally factored scales were constructed providing missing information of consequence about leader behavior. The inter-describer agreement for the LBDQ ranged from .39 to .73 for female describers and -.02 to .53 for male describers. Stodgill (1969), after developing scenarios for each scale and having the scenarios rated, concluded that the scales measured what they purported to measure. Brown (1967) found that two factors accounted for 76 percent of the variance in the LBDQ. One factor clustered around production emphasis, structure and representation; tolerance of uncertainty, tolerance of freedom and consideration clustered around the second factor. The two-factor framework for describing leader behavior, Consideration and Initiation of Structure, emerge consistently from factor analyses when no additional constraints are placed on the analysis (Bass, 1981).

The scale used for measuring role ambiguity and role conflict was developed by Rizzo, et al. (1970). Extensive research was conducted to develop the role conflict and role ambiguity scale. Definitions for each factor were specified and behavior descriptions were then developed. The two factors of role ambiguity and role conflict account for 58.3 percent of the common variance of the scale. Role conflict and role ambiguity were also noted to be independent of each other. Internal consistency reliabilities, using the Kuder-Richardson method, revealed reliability coefficients ranging from .816 to .820 for role conflict and coefficients ranging from .780 to .808 for role ambiguity.

#### Data Collection

The research package, consisting of the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire, the role conflict and role ambiguity scale, and a demographic questionnaire, were mailed to the department heads within colleges of education in selected public institutions of higher education in the southeastern United States. It was stressed that the questionnaire responses were confidential, anonymity of respondents was guaranteed, and participation was voluntary. Those research packages returned with missing Leader Behavior Description Questionnaires or role conflict and role ambiguity scales were eliminated from the data analyses.

#### Data Analyses

The Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire was used to categorize the subjects into four groups according to the leader behavior of the respective deans. Role conflict and role ambiguity

scores were calculated for each subject in each of the four groups. A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed to test for a relationship between leader behavior and role ambiguity, and between leader behavior and role conflict. Since the analysis of variance was found to be statistically significant, multiple comparison (contrast) tests were calculated to determine the location of the group difference or differences.

A multifactor analysis of variance design was used to examine the relationship between leader behavior and role ambiguity with selected demographic factors, and between leader behavior and role conflict with selected demographic factors. Multiple comparison (contrast) tests were used to determine the location of the group difference or differences when the analysis of variance implied significance. In addition to the analysis of variance and the multiple comparison techniques, two t-tests were calculated. The first t-test examined the role conflict and role ambiguity means for male and female respondents. The second t-test compared the role conflict and role ambiguity means of early and late respondents.

### Organization of the Study

Chapter I presents an introduction to the study. Included in Chapter I is information relative to the nature of the problem and purpose of the study. Definitions of terms, limitations and delimitations, and assumptions are also denoted. The chapter concludes with a

description of the procedures used in the study and an organization of the study.

A review of the literature and research which concerns the problem is presented in Chapter II. The review of the literature on leader behavior is presented from a historical perspective while role theory is described in terms of its relationship to leader behavior.

Chapter III is directed toward a description of the subjects, instrumentation, and methods employed in the study.

The results of the statistical analyses are examined in Chapter IV. Procedures used include t-test, analysis of variance (ANOVA), and multiple comparisons.

Chapter V contains a summary of the results of the study, conclusions derived from the results, and implications for additional research in education.

## CHAPTER II

## REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

## Introduction

Organizations are involved in a continuous process of locating individuals who possess the necessary skills, knowledge and abilities to be effective leaders. The ability to lead others, that is, to direct the work of others toward the attainment of organizational goals is an essential function of all administrators. The indispensable nature of effective leadership applies to not only business organizations, but to all socioeconomic organizations, including educational organizations.

Leadership, by its nature, involves the interaction of people. As such, the interaction between the leader and other organizational members is a primary factor to consider in organizational effectiveness. Many studies and theories have been offered to explain the nature of leadership including trait theories, behavior theories, and situational theories. While a thorough understanding of all leadership studies was beyond the capacity of this review, the review was designed so as to focus on the dynamics of the leadership process. Special attention was given to studies related to the interaction of leader behavior and subordinate role perception.

## A Historical Perspective

Organizational leadership has long been a topic of research and discussion with scholars, practitioners, and laymen. Since Biblical times (e.g., the selection of Saul as king of Israel), theories have been offered to explain the phenomenon of leadership. Answers were sought for questions regarding the perplexing nature of leadership. Why do certain leaders inspire such fervor and dedication? Why are certain leaders suddenly disposed, despite their apparent success? Why do some leaders have loyal followers, and why are some leaders despised by their followers?

As societies evolved from simple family-centered and small-group based organizations to more complex organizations and encompassing systems, the study and theorization of leadership also moved from the simple to the complex. The "great man" or trait approach was abandoned for leadership theories which reflect interpersonal relationships and situational variables. As a result, a great body of literature concerning leadership has developed which reflects the increase in leadership complexity in the large-scale organization.

Attempts to develop systematic approaches to the study of leadership are relatively recent events. The Industrial Revolution and the rise of large, complex economic systems required the

development of new theories and practices in leadership. As industrialization encompassed the European and American continents, the new ideas concerning the nature of leadership in complex economic organizations were codified into separate and identifiable areas of study.

The evolution of leadership theory has been paralleled with the progression of organizational theory since the late nineteenth century. The trait or characteristic approach to leadership was the focus of early efforts attempting to define leadership. This approach was soon superseded by the classical theory which provided the major concepts for the structure and management of organizations during the early twentieth century. The changing environment of America during the 1920's and 1930's toward an "inescapable proximity and dependency on one another" (Scott, 1972, p. 48) resulted in an entirely new human relations perspective of leadership and organizations. The swift changes in the first quarter of the century were followed by even greater changes in communications, transportation, economic growth, and organizational complexity in the second quarter of the century. These developments and the work of several research groups emphasized the need for a situational or contingency view of leadership and organizational theory in which the organizational structure and leadership system are contingent on internal and external environmental conditions.

## The Definition of Leader, Leader Behavior, and Leadership

The concept of leadership is usually defined according to the individual's unique perspective. As a result of the defining and redefining of this concept, an ambiguity of meaning and an enormous assortment of literature has developed. Bennis (1952, p. 259), noted this "endless proliferation of terms . . . ." Nonetheless, most definitions of leadership have two common denominators. The first is the assumption that leadership involves the interaction between two or more people. The second factor follows after the first, in that, the interaction between the leader and the group involves an influence process whereby intentional influence is exerted by the leader over the group. The following definitions are exemplary:

1. Leadership is the process of influencing the activities of an individual or a group in efforts toward goal achievement in a given situation. (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982, p. 83)
2. The leader is a member of the group who helps it to develop ways of interacting that facilitate achieving the goals that the individuals share. . . . (Fleishman and Harris, 1962, p. 43)
3. Leadership is an influence process that enables managers to get their people to do willingly what must be done, do well what ought to be done. . . . (Cribbin, 1981, p. 13)
4. Leadership is interpersonal influence, exercised in a situation, and directed through the communication process, toward the attainment of a specified goal or goals. (Tannenbaum, Weshler and Massarik, 1961, p. 24)
5. In general, leadership may be viewed as a process, a process through which others are influenced to achieve goals in a specific situation. . . . (Owens, 1981, p. 151)

6. Leadership is the behavior of an individual when he is directing the activities of a group toward a shared goal. (Hemphill and Coons, 1957, p. 7)

The leader of an organization may be an official (formal) office holder in the organization's hierarchy, or he/she may be an unofficial (informal), yet highly regarded group leader. The source of power that a leader exercises is an important variable to consider when identifying the leader of a group. A leader is an individual whose power is voluntarily granted by the group and whose direction and influence is followed by group members. This distinguishes leader power from vested power. The position occupied by the individual does not insure power to influence people. Nonetheless, it is entirely possible for an individual to be both an official office holder and a leader. Etzioni (1964; p. 61) has described this type leader as a formal leader.

Although the group is an important element contributing to the power of the leader, the leader also exerts considerable influence on the members of the group. The interaction between the leader of a group and the group members results in a psychological, social, and behavioral influence. The psychological influence is demonstrated by subordinate attitude information, role conflict and role ambiguity, and job satisfaction (Hemphill, 1949; Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn and Snoek, 1969). The function of organizational structure is to establish patterns of human interaction which accomplish organizational goals (Owens, 1981). This concept can be equated to Halpin's (1966) initiating structure

behavior of a group leader. This would suggest that leader behavior is an important factor in determining the social interaction patterns of group members. Likert (1967) suggested leadership practices in combination with appropriate technical functions would result in a high level of group performance (behavior) in achieving organizational goals. James McGregor Burns (1978; p.19) described this influence process:

Some define leadership as leaders making followers do what followers would not otherwise do, or as leaders making followers do what the leaders want them to do; I define leadership as leaders inducing followers to act for certain goals that represent the values and the motivations--the wants and needs, the aspirations and expectations--of both leaders and followers. . . Leadership, unlike naked power wielding, is thus inseparable from the followers' needs and goals. The essence of the leader-follower relation is the interaction of persons with different levels of motives and of power potential, including skill, in pursuit of a common or at least joint purpose. . . .

The manner in which the leader interacts with the group for the specific purpose of influencing the members of the group is called leader behavior. The behaviors of a leader are those observable acts in which the leader engages in order to bring about the desirable group response. These individual leader behaviors combine with the behavior of the followers and the environment of the organization to produce the process known as leadership (Owens, 1981).

### The Trait Approach

The theory of nativism, as presented in the writings of Immanuel Kant (Ed., 1922), provided the foundation for the trait approach to

leadership. The issue of nativism stressed that an individual's perception and behavior were not entirely dependent on experience or learning, but were native or inborn. This was interpreted to mean a significant portion of one's behavior was dependent on hereditary factors such as native talents or capacities, as opposed to pure learning.

The philosophical influence of nativism is evident in the nineteenth-century evolutionary writing of Charles Darwin. In his book, The Origin of Species by Means of Natural Selection (1897), Darwin pointed out that those species which were best suited for their environment would survive. In order to be "fit," the organism must be capable of nourishing itself and fighting off its predators. These capabilities were for the most part instinctive. This led Darwin to conclude that natural selection, that is, a natural variation in offspring, would result in a new superior species.

The 1869 publication of Hereditary Genius by Sir Francis Galton, Darwin's cousin, applied the nativistic and evolutionary thinking more specifically to leadership. In his book, Galton attempted to show that an individual's greatness would follow certain family lines with such consistency that environmental influences were of no importance. His idea for this was taken from his studies of eminent leaders and their families in nineteenth-century England (Lundin, 1972).

Carlyle's (1841) essay on heroes and Galton's (1869) Hereditary Genius influenced many early theorists. The rulers of fourteen nations were studied by Woods (1914) who concluded that the

brothers of kings also tended to be men of power and influence. The principle of survival of the fittest was used by Wiggam (1931) to ensure an adequate supply of leaders. Many additional studies have been conducted to explain leadership from a trait approach (e.g., Bernard, 1926 and Kilbourne, 1935). In fact, Stogdill (1974) reviewed 163 studies related to the trait explanation of leadership.

Prior to 1954 it was not uncommon to use a trait approach in the study of leadership. However, the review by Stogdill in 1948 did much to discourage leadership researchers from studying leader traits. Stogdill found that the early studies failed to support the basic premise of the trait approach that an individual must possess a specific set of traits in order to become a successful leader.

In his 1974 review, Stogdill noted the great variety of measurement procedures used between 1948 and 1970 to classify leader traits. Stogdill suggested that a trait profile could be developed for the effective leader. He emphasized that this was not a return to the original trait approach, but a recognition that certain traits increase the likelihood of leader effectiveness and the relative importance of such traits is dependent on the situation.

### The Behavior Approach

The trait approach proved to be unsatisfactory in explaining and predicting successful leader behavior. As a result, many researchers abdicated the trait approach to leadership study and turned to a systematic perusal of leadership in the context of group structure

and function. The focus of this research was the investigation of behavior displayed by leaders in various organizational situations.

### Ohio State Leadership Studies

In 1945, researchers in the Bureau of Business Research at The Ohio State University began a series of studies designed to test hypotheses relating to the situational nature of leadership. At the time the Ohio State Leadership Studies began, there was no concise definition of leadership and the vast majority of previous research was related to the trait approach, already found to be unsatisfactory.

The first phase of the work at Ohio State was to develop a working definition of leadership. Hemphill and Coons (1957) defined leadership as the behavior of an individual when he is directing the activities of a group toward a shared goal. The researchers in the Bureau of Business Research took the definition and proceeded in developing methods of describing leader behavior. An interdisciplinary team composed of psychologists, sociologists and economists found considerable difficulty in determining common dimensions of leader behavior. The group eventually decided on nine items ranging from integration to domination for a description of leader behavior (1957). To adequately represent each dimension, 150 items or statements were used to describe different aspects of leader behavior. These items were used to develop the first Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (Hemphill, 1950; Hemphill and Coons, 1957 and Stogdill, 1974).

Andrew Halpin and James Winer (1957) modified the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire and used it in a study of Air Force personnel. Factor analysis of item inter-correlations produced four factors identified as Consideration, Initiating Structure, Production Emphasis, and Social Awareness (1957). Consideration and Initiating Structure accounted for 83 percent of the total factor variance and consistently emerged in additional testing. Thus, it was concluded that subordinates perceive their leader's behavior primarily in two distinct categories. A shorter form of Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire, consisting of fifteen scored items for Consideration and fifteen scored items for Initiating Structure, was developed and found to be reliable in measuring these two dimensions (1957).

Both dimensions, Consideration and Initiating Structure, are broadly defined terms. Consideration reflects the extent to which a leader is likely to have relationships characterized by openness of communication, friendliness, consideration of subordinate interests and mutual support. This style or dimension of leader behavior focuses on the subordinate and his/her individual needs. Initiating Structure refers to the behaviors of a leader that stress definition and structure of individual roles, both of the leader and subordinate, in accomplishing organizational goals. This dimension of leader behavior is illustrated by planning, direction of subordinates, role clarification, scheduling, and clearly defined lines of communication. The Initiating Structure style of leader behavior is instrumental in efficient utilization of resources for the attainment of organizational goals. These two categories of leader behavior, Consideration and

Initiating Structure, have also been labeled "relationship oriented" and "task-oriented" behaviors, respectively, because of the bipolar focus (Yukl, 1981).

The work of the Ohio State researchers is conceptualized in Figure 1. This leadership grid depicts the consideration dimension of leader behavior as a continuum ranging from low to high on the horizontal axis. Initializing Structure is seen as a continuum from high to low on the vertical axis. By placing Consideration and Initiating Structure on a continuum and obtaining scores for both dimensions, it then becomes possible to place a leader's behavior in one of the four quadrants: (1) low Consideration--high Initiating Structure, (2) high Consideration--high Initiating Structure, (3) low Consideration--low Initiating Structure, and (4) high Consideration--low Initiating Structure.

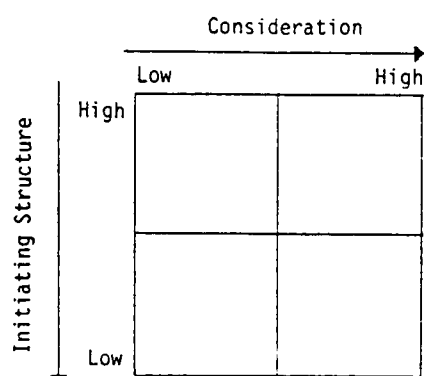


Figure 1. The Ohio State Leadership Grid.

Source: D. Hellriegel and J. Slocum.  
Organizational Behavior: Contingency Views.  
 New York: West Publishing Co., 1976

The work of Halpin and Winer (1957) indicated that commanders who were rated high on Initiating Structure by their subordinates also received high effectiveness ratings by their supervisors. Fleishman and Harris (1962) found that when supervisors were rated high on Initiating Structure and the subordinate's work task was routine, there were significant increases in turnover and grievances among subordinates. For Consideration, Halpin and Winer concluded that high scores were positively related to subordinate satisfaction. Leaders with high Consideration scores had fewer grievances and turnovers than leaders with low Consideration scores in the Fleishman and Harris study. Halpin (1957) as well as Fleishman and Harris (1962) concluded that when a leader uses a substantial amount of Initiating Structure behavior, he/she also needs to exhibit high Consideration. The work of Skinner in 1969 corroborated these results.

In his introduction to the research monograph published by The Ohio State University, Shartle (1957), stated "It was decided (1) that description and evaluation should be considered as separate research operations, and (2) that description should precede evaluation. . . ." In their first endeavor, the description of leader behavior, the researchers at Ohio State appear to have been successful as indicated by the enormous amount of literature supporting their assumptions. However, in trying to evaluate leader behavior, they have not enjoyed such success. Reviews of the literature show that neither behavior category is consistently related to subordinate performance and organizational effectiveness (Kerr & Schriesheim, 1974; Korman, 1966; Stogdill, 1974; Yukl, 1971).

### The University of Michigan Leadership Studies

While researchers at Ohio State were involved in the two step process of describing and evaluating leader behavior, another group of researchers with the Survey Research Center at the University of Michigan were engaged in a similar study of organizational leadership. The focus of the Michigan research was on identifying characteristics of leader behavior which appeared to be related to group processes and measures of organizational performance. In describing leader behavior as it relates to performance effectiveness, the Michigan researchers were able to identify two styles: employee-oriented and production-oriented.

The leader's concept of management responsibility is evident in his/her behavior. Numerous studies (Katz & Kahn, 1951; Katz & Kahn, 1952; Katz, Maccoby & Morse, 1950; Likert & Willitis, 1940) have shown that low producing work groups tend to be supervised by managers who concentrated on the technical aspects of the job, stressed specific work cycles and production standards. On the other hand, groups characterized by high production were frequently led by managers who emphasized interpersonal relationships and focused attention on human problems. The latter orientation has been labeled "Employee-Oriented"; while the former orientation has been given the name "Production Oriented" (Likert, p. 7. 1961). Figure 2 illustrates the results of one study in the Michigan research. In Figure 2, high-producing work groups are characterized by supervisors who are employee-centered while job-centered supervisors are frequently found in low-producing groups.

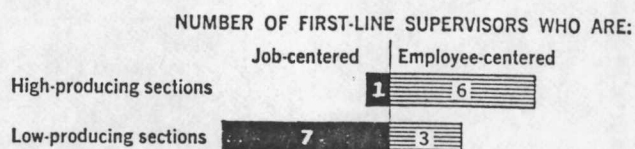


Figure 2. Supervisory Orientation and Production.

Source: R. Likert. New Patterns of Management. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1961.

Kahn (1956) found that in addition to the orientation of the leader, the performance goals developed and emphasized by the group leader were also an important factor influencing productivity. The research led Kahn to conclude that if a high level of performance was desired, the manager must be employee-centered and at the same time have goals for high performance and adequately communicate the importance of these goals to the employees. However, Seashore and Georgopoulos noted that excessive pressure to achieve would result in lower performance (Likert, 1961). Conflict between employees and supervisors has also been associated with low productivity (Georgopoloulos, 1957).

The University of Michigan Leadership Studies also examined the nature of the supervision exercised by group leaders. Where as the classical management theories advocate the close supervision of the employee and standardization, the research conducted by the University of Michigan investigators found that general supervision is more often associated with high production rather than low production. Likert (1961) went on to conclude that when departments are not highly standardized in their work, close supervision and technical knowledge contribute to group effectiveness. When departments have standardized the job, general supervision usually results in high levels of performance.

The data gathered by the Survey Research Center at the University of Michigan show the importance of the quality of leader behavior. The general style of leader behavior in the organization is often very important in influencing organizational results. Likert (1967), in his book The Human Organization: Its Management and Value, expounded the findings of the Michigan studies and attempted to integrate the findings into a theory of management.

#### Rensis Likert - The Systems Approach

In chapters two, three, and four of New Patterns of Management (1961), Likert summarized the research of the Michigan Studies which indicated that the pattern of management behavior used by high-producing managers is in contrast to the pattern shown by low-producing managers. Likert argued that a new theory of organization and management could be stated by using the principles and

practices of managers whose behavior style had been identified with high-producing work groups. This new theory was designated "System 4" by Likert (1967) in The Human Organization: Its Management and Value.

Four discrete types of management were identified by Likert in 1961. These styles or categories of management were based on the research of leadership and organizational performance (e.g., Katz and Kahn, 1951; Mann and Dent, 1954; Katz, Maccoby, Gurin and Floor, 1951), communication (e.g., Milinger, 1956; Institute for Social Research, 1951; and Cartwright and Zander, 1960), and small group behavior (e.g., Hare et al., 1955; Thibaut and Kelley, 1959). The four different systems were initially labeled "exploitative authoritative", "benevolent authoritative", "consultative", and "participative group." However, the names were changed to "System 1", "System 2", "System 3", and "System 4", respectively. The change was made so that the categorical headings would reflect the systems approach to organizational theory emerging from research findings on management and organizational performance. The designation of the four categories is an oversimplification. In fact, the systems actually blend together and form a continuum composed of many intermediate patterns.

The "System 4" approach to management and organizational theory forms a continuum with the less complex System 1 on the lower end of the scale and the more complex System 4 on the higher end. System 2 and System 3 are categories between the two extremes. Research findings (Likert, 1967) support the perceptions of managers that management systems closer to System 4 are more productive and have a

more favorable attitude than those systems falling toward System 1. In fact, the converse appears to be true for those organizations approaching System 1. As an organization advances from the System 1 approach toward System 4, long-range improvements are seen in productivity, labor relations, and cost (Fleishman and Harris, 1962; Likert, 1961; Morse and Reimer, 1956; Seashore and Bowers, 1963). As organizations proceeded from System 1 to System 4, Likert and other researchers examined eight specific variables in each organization.

Likert (1967) included in his key organizational variables the variable of leadership (see Figure 3). Likert concluded that leadership was an important causal variable that must be included in a systems approach to organizational theory. He stated:

The leadership and other processes of the organization must be such as to ensure a maximum probability that in all relationships within the organization, each member in the light of his background, values, desires, and expectations, will view the experience as supportive and one which builds and maintains his sense of personal worth and importance. . . . (Likert, 1961, p. 103).

The Michigan Studies, according to Likert (1961), support the conclusion that certain leader behaviors and practices are more effective than others. Four primary factors in leader effectiveness are:

1. Supportive behavior. The behaviors of the manager are considered to be supportive when they contribute to the employee's sense of personal worth and importance (Likert, 1961). Behavior of this type includes showing trust and confidence, understanding and recognition.

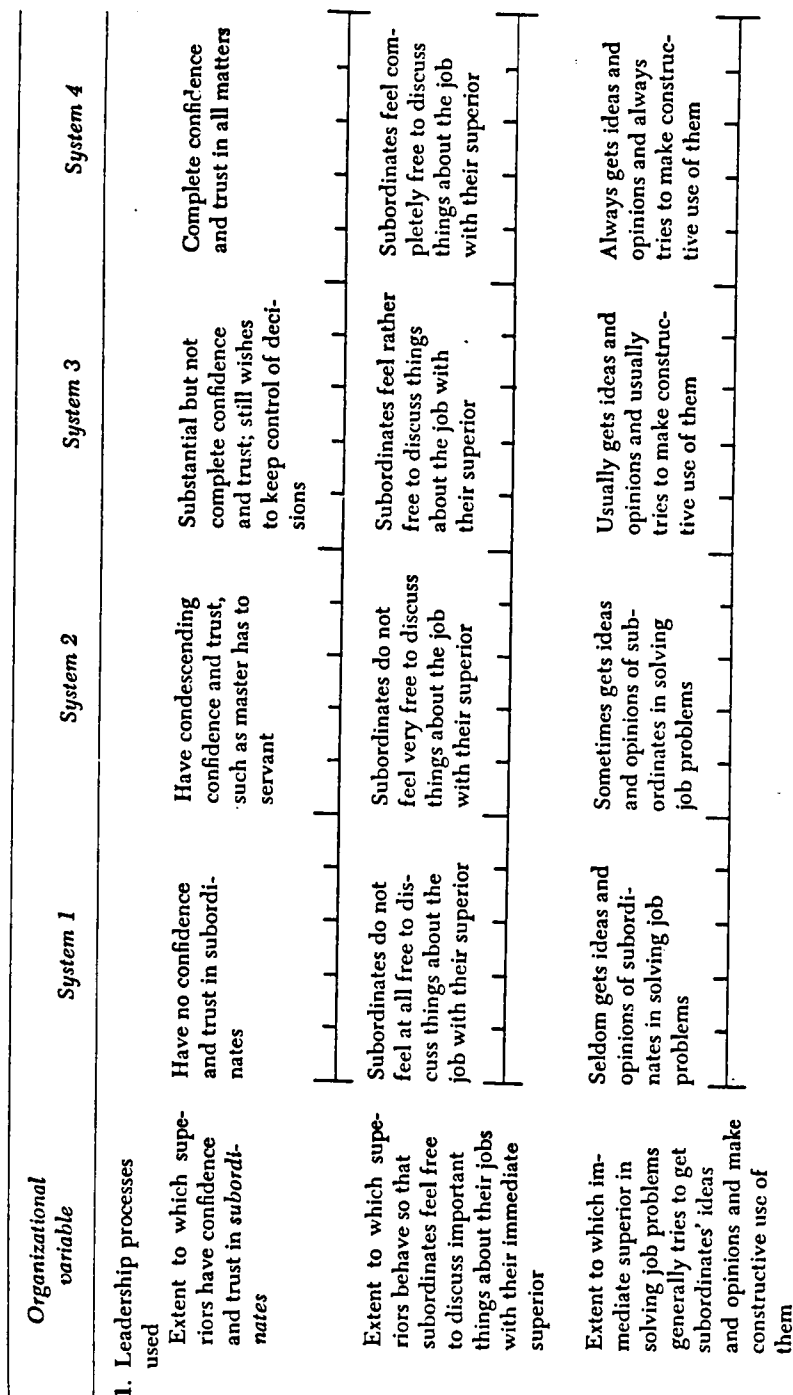


Figure 3. The Leadership Variable in the Systems Approach.

Source: R. Likert. The Human Organization: Its Management and Value. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1967.

2. Group Method of Supervision. General rather than close supervision is used. Managers should rely heavily on group meetings. The group meetings should facilitate participative decision making, communication, cooperation, and the resolution of conflicts. The leader should serve as guide in group interaction.

3. High-Performance Goals. Group decisions should lead to high goals. The leader should guide the group in setting goals which are high but realistic.

4. Linking Pin Functions. In order for a manager to adequately represent the interests of his work group, he/she must have upward influence with his superiors. A structure of overlapping units would serve this function well. Each manager would be a member of his/her own work group, a member of a group of managers, reporting to a superior, and sometimes as a member of a group serving in a lateral liaison capacity. The manager, therefore, is an important communication link for the subordinates.

The managerial practices recommended by Likert were explained with a model of causal processes. Causal variables include managerial behavior and aspects of the organization controlled by the manager. Intervening variables were reflected in the internal organizational environment. The end-result variables were the measurable outcomes of the causal and intervening variables. Figure 4 depicts this process.

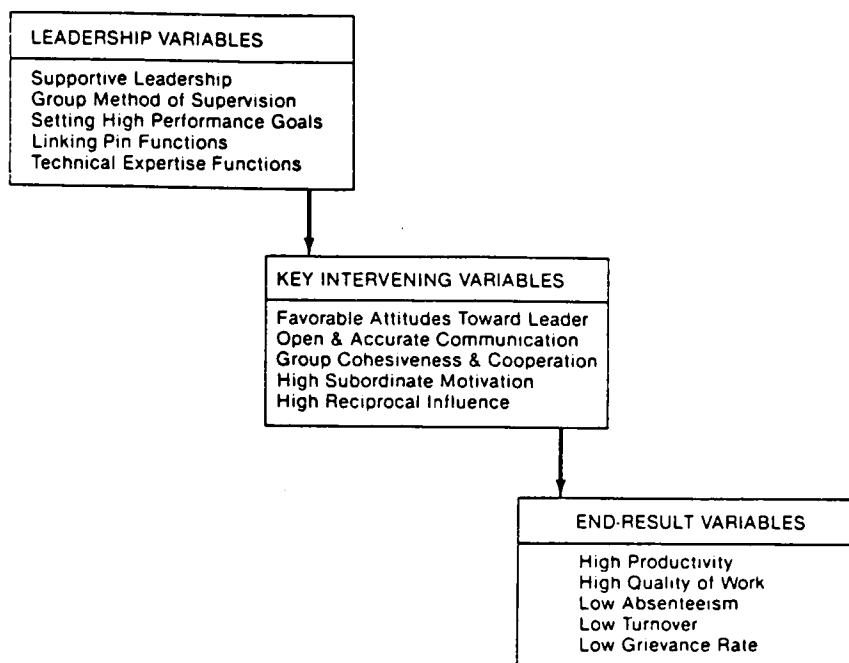


Figure 4. Causal Relationships in the Systems Approach.

Source: G. Yukl. Leadership in Organizations. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1981.

As a manager alters his/her behavior, the initial change will be reflected in the intervening variables. After a considerable period of time, the change will be seen in the end-result variable.

#### A Four-Factor Theory of Leadership

Bowers and Seashore (1966) proposed a theory of leadership explained by four categories of leadership behavior. The Four-Factor Theory of Leadership, as the theory became known, was based on a reconceptualization of earlier research on leadership, including the Ohio State studies and the Michigan studies. After an in-depth review of previous research related to the behavioral aspects of leadership, Bowers and Seashore defined four dimensions which appear to be common to the conceptual content of the surveyed research. The four factors listed and defined are (Bowers and Seashore, 1966, p. 247):

1. Support. Behavior that enhances an individual's feeling of personal worth and importance.
2. Interaction facilitation. Behavior that encourages members of the group to develop close, mutually satisfying relationships.
3. Goal emphasis. Behavior that stimulates an enthusiasm for meeting the group's goal or achieving excellent performance.
4. Work facilitation. Behavior that helps achieve goal attainment by such activities as scheduling, coordinating, planning, and by providing resources such as tools, materials, and technical knowledge.

Bowers and Seashore do not limit the performance of the above four factors to formally designated leaders. In fact, a positive consequence of describing leadership in terms of behavior is that it allows for anyone in a work group an opportunity to participate in the leadership process. However, the researchers (p. 249) do not mean to imply that formal leadership is superfluous, in fact, they point out that the leadership behavior pattern of the formal leader does much to influence the leadership behavior subordinates display.

A correlational study conducted in forty agencies of a major insurance corporation was used to evaluate the relationship between the four factors of leadership for both managers and subordinates and agency effectiveness. A questionnaire was administered to the manager in each agency, and the results were correlated with specific intervening variables and end-results. In examining the relationship of the four factors to effectiveness, Goal Emphasis behavior correlated highly with a high dollar volume in the agency. Business costs were reduced in agencies in which the manager had high scores on Work Facilitation, Goal Emphasis, and Interaction Facilitation.

The results of the research provided limited support for the four categories of leader behavior. As in all correlational studies, a cause and effect relationship between leadership and group performance could not be stated. In the conclusion to this 1966 report, Bowers and Seashore stated the need for a situational approach to leadership:

Leadership, as conceived and operationalized here, is not adequate alone to predict effectiveness; instead, additional and, in some cases, intervening constructs must be included to improve prediction. . . .

### Blake and Mouton - The Managerial Grid

The Grid concept of managerial behavior was presented by Robert R. Blake and Jane S. Mouton in their 1964 book entitled The Managerial Grid and later revised in the 1978 edition of The New Managerial Grid. To examine management in its full perspective, Blake and Mouton argued that management behavior should be investigated in the context of the organizational system (1964, 1978). Therefore, specific organizational characteristics, which appeared repeatedly in the research and theory, were identified and used as the basis for the graphic presentation of the management styles. These organizational characteristics are considered universal, in that, they are present in all organizations regardless of the nature of the work performed by the organization (1978). Purpose, people, and power were the three universal characteristics identified for use in the Managerial Grid (1978, p.7).

The first universal factor present in all organizations is purpose. The purpose of an organization is usually stated in terms of a profit-loss statement. That is, the organization's intention is to supply a service or produce a product at minimum expense. The Managerial Grid theory indicates that the production of goods or services is the aim of all organizations. Therefore, production is regarded as an indication of organizational purpose. The manager's concern for production is a key variable to consider in determining the management style. Concern for production is similar to the task

orientation of the Ohio State and Michigan leadership studies. It is represented by the horizontal axis in Figure 5.

All organizations are comprised of people. This is the second universal factor identified by Blake and Mouton. The organization's purpose can not be achieved without people and, these people are usually working in groups toward the accomplishment of the organizational aims. Since leadership is formed in social interaction (Berger and Luckmann, 1966), the concern a manager displays toward the people in his work group will have a significant influence on managerial effectiveness (Blake and Mouton, 1978). The basic assumptions a manager has toward subordinates will also impact effectiveness. The relationship orientations of the Ohio State and Michigan leadership studies, that is, Consideration and Employee Orientation, are similar to the concern for people emphasized by Blake and Mouton. The Managerial Grid depicts the manager's concern for people as the vertical axis in Figure 5.

The third universal attribute of organizations discussed in the Managerial Grid theory is power. The process of achieving organizational objectives through the work of people requires that some individuals attain the authority to direct the behavior of other people. A hierarchial structure, with varying degrees of authority at each level, is present in all organizations. The Grid theory views the understanding of how a manager uses power and the manager's assumptions about people as a necessary element in examining managerial styles. The manner in which the manager links people and production defines his or her use of power (Blake and Mouton, 1978). Power is not

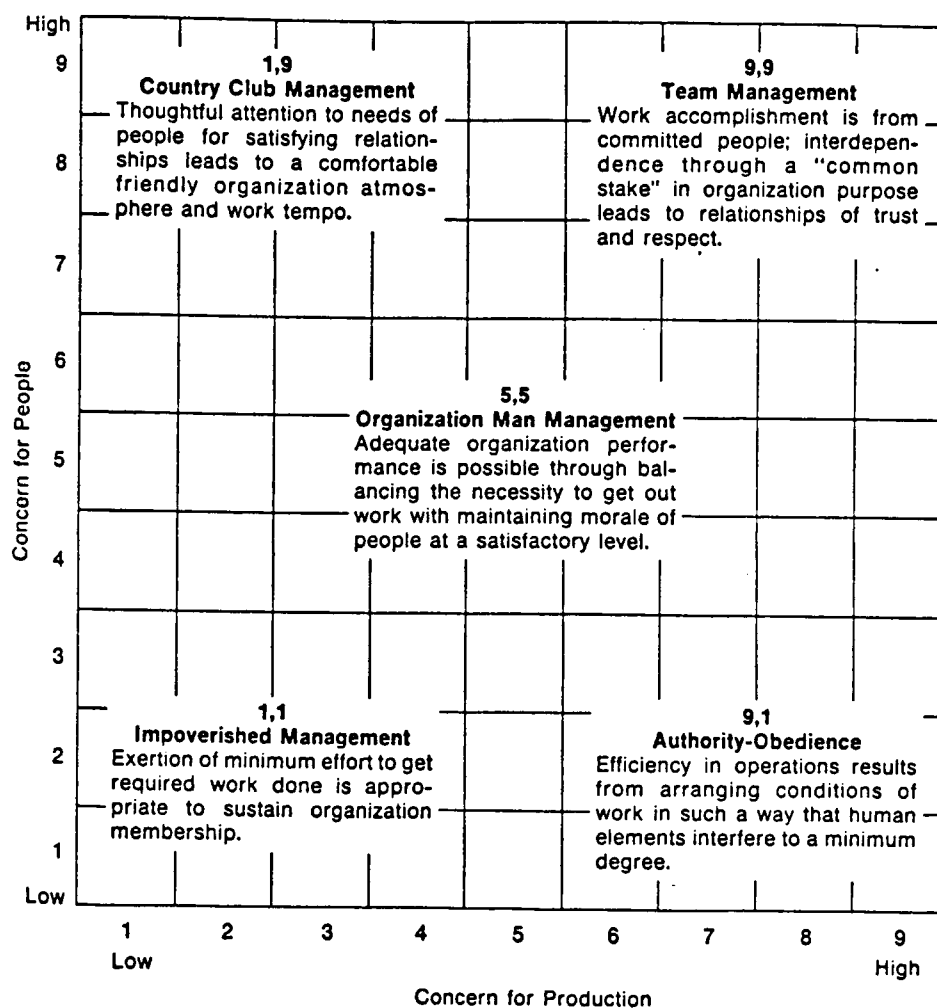


Figure 5. The Managerial Grid.

Source: R. Blake and J. Mouton. The Managerial Grid. Houston, TX: Gulf Publishing, 1964.

represented by a separate dimension on the Grid in Figure 5 but, is inferred from the linkage between concern for production and concern for people. Each managerial style on the Grid defines the manager's use of power.

The two dimensions, concern for production and concern for people, are shown in Figure 5 on the horizontal and vertical axes, respectively. Each axis is assigned a scale from one to nine. One represents a minimum concern while nine suggests maximum concern. Two through eight denote varying degrees of concern between the two extremes. The scales do not describe specific amounts of each concern but, rather, steps between high and low (Blake and Mouton, 1978).

Figure 5 is a nine-by-nine grid and, therefore, offers eighty-one possible combinations between a concern for production and a concern for people. A questionnaire developed by Blake and Mouton (1964) is used to assess various aspects of managerial behavior and enables the manager to determine his or her position on the Grid (i.e., one of the eighty one positions).

The grid concept of managerial behavior allows a mixture of degrees between the two dimensions. However, Blake and Mouton (1964) identified five critical managerial styles which encompass the most important differences between styles. The five critical styles are shown on Figure 5 and described as:

9,1. In the lower right-hand corner of the Grid a maximum concern (9) for production is combined with a minimum concern (1) for people. A manager acting under these assumptions concentrates on maximizing production by exercising power and authority and achieving control over people through compliance. This is a 9,1 orientation.

1,9. The 1,9 leadership style is in the top left corner. Here a minimum concern (1) for production is coupled with a maximum concern (9) for people. Primary attention is placed on promoting good feelings among colleagues and subordinates.

1,1. A minimum concern for both production and people is represented by 1,1 in the lower left corner. The 1,1-oriented manager does only the minimum required to remain with the organization.

5,5. 5,5 is in the center. This is the "middle of the road" theory or the "go-along-to-get-along" assumptions which are revealed in conformity to the status quo.

9,9. Production and people concerns are integrated at a high level in the upper right-hand corner representing the 9,9 style of managing. This is the team approach. It is goal-oriented and seeks to gain results of high quantity and quality through participation, involvement, commitment, and conflict-solving. (Blake and Mouton, 1978, p. 12)

In many aspects, the Managerial Grid theory of leader behavior is similar to the Ohio State and Michigan leadership studies, especially the four quadrants of behavior described in the Ohio State studies. However, there is one significant difference between the approaches. The difference lies in the focus of measurement for each approach. The Ohio State studies are concerned only with behavioral concepts. The Managerial Grid approach tends to be an attitudinal model which focuses on a "concern for."

#### The Situational or Contingency Approach

The Situational or Contingency Approach to leadership study was partly derived from the previous findings of the Trait and Behavioral research in leadership. The Trait Approach emphasized the personal qualities of leaders and attributed much of the leader's success to his or her extraordinary personality traits. On the other hand, the

Behavior Approach focused its research efforts on the behavior the leader displayed while he or she was directing the group toward the attainment of a specified goal. Both approaches concluded that certain traits and/or behaviors were more important in some situations than in others. The Situational Approach suggests that particular aspects of the situation are instrumental in determining what traits, skills, and behaviors are appropriate for a leader in a given situation. Situational variables such as role expectations, nature of work, composition of the work group, external environment, and the leader's hierarchical authority have received much attention in the Situational research. This approach to leadership study has also been referred to as a "contingency theory" because the appropriate leader behavior and its resulting influence on the subordinate are contingent or dependent on situational variables.

#### Fred Fiedler - Contingency Model

The initial stages of Fiedler's research on leadership at the University of Illinois resembled that of the Trait Approach. His early attempts at identifying leadership styles were constructed to measure leader attitudes or personality traits called "esteem for least preferred co-worker" (Fiedler, 1964). Fiedler developed a Least Preferred Co-Worker (LPC) scale for this purpose (1964). As Fiedler began to employ the LPC scale with various group leaders, he noticed significant discrepancies between various leaders and their effectiveness. To account for these differences, Fiedler developed a

contingency model of leadership. The Contingency Model states that the effectiveness of a particular leadership style is dependent on the interaction of leader behavior with specific situational variables: task structure, leader-member relations, and the leader's position power (Fiedler, 1964; 1967; 1972).

The leadership style of an individual is assessed by using an instrument Fiedler called the Least Preferred Co-Worker Scale, Figure 6 (Fiedler, 1967). The scale has become known by the acronym, LPC. The instrument requires that the leader think of all the co-workers he or she has had and describe the person with whom he or she could work least well. The LPC scale requires that the leader rate the co-worker on a bipolar scale. Each bipolar scale is scored from one to eight, with eight being the most favorable of points on the scale (Fiedler, 1974). The LPC score is the total of the item scores.

The interpretation of the LPC score has varied considerably since its development (Fiedler, 1971; 1972). However, it now appears to be an index of the leader's motivational hierarchy (1974). Each individual possesses a motivational system yet, this system is different in each person. The scores on the LPC scale reflect the different motivational hierarchies. The low LPC leader is primarily motivated by task achievement. The primary motive of a high LPC person is interpersonal relationships with others.

A low score indicates the extent to which a leader will reject a worker with whom he or she cannot work. Fiedler suggests that the

|                |                               |               |
|----------------|-------------------------------|---------------|
| Pleasant       | — : — : — : — : — : — : — : — | Unpleasant    |
|                | 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1               |               |
| Friendly       | — : — : — : — : — : — : — : — | Unfriendly    |
|                | 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1               |               |
| Rejecting      | — : — : — : — : — : — : — : — | Accepting     |
|                | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8               |               |
| Helpful        | — : — : — : — : — : — : — : — | Frustrating   |
|                | 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1               |               |
| Unenthusiastic | — : — : — : — : — : — : — : — | Enthusiastic  |
|                | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8               |               |
| Tense          | — : — : — : — : — : — : — : — | Relaxed       |
|                | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8               |               |
| Distant        | — : — : — : — : — : — : — : — | Close         |
|                | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8               |               |
| Cold           | — : — : — : — : — : — : — : — | Warm          |
|                | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8               |               |
| Cooperative    | — : — : — : — : — : — : — : — | Uncooperative |
|                | 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1               |               |
| Supportive     | — : — : — : — : — : — : — : — | Hostile       |
|                | 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1               |               |
| Boring         | — : — : — : — : — : — : — : — | Interesting   |
|                | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8               |               |
| Quarrelsome    | — : — : — : — : — : — : — : — | Harmonious    |
|                | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8               |               |
| Self-assured   | — : — : — : — : — : — : — : — | Hesitant      |
|                | 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1               |               |
| Efficient      | — : — : — : — : — : — : — : — | Inefficient   |
|                | 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1               |               |
| Gloomy         | — : — : — : — : — : — : — : — | Cheerful      |
|                | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8               |               |
| Open           | — : — : — : — : — : — : — : — | Guarded       |
|                | 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1               |               |

Figure 6. Least Preferred Co-Worker Scale.

Source: F. Fiedler. Leadership and Effective Management. Glenview, ILL: Scott, Foresman Co., 1974.

low LPC score describes an attitude of the leader toward co-workers (1974). The lower the LPC score, the more the leader tends toward a task-orientation. However, as long as task accomplishment is relatively sure, the low LPC leader can be friendly and concerned with his or her co-workers. The basic goal of the low LPC leader is to accomplish the task. When this is threatened, he or she focuses all attention on the task rather than employees.

The relationship between the LPC score and leader effectiveness is moderated by a complex situational variable composed of three components (Fiedler, 1974; pp. 63-69). The three aspects of the situation which appear to be most influential with regards to leadership are: (1) leader-member relations, (2) task structure, and (3) position power. These aspects of the situation are similar to those described by Campbell (1970) as organizational climate factors.

The leader-member relations component of the situation provides information concerning the interpersonal relationship between the leader and his or her group members (1974). To a great degree, the leader's authority depends upon his or her acceptance by the group (Fishbein et al., 1969). This dimension has been measured using two different techniques. The first involves the use of a sociometric scale for determining group acceptance or endorsement of the leader. The "Group Atmosphere" (GA) scale has also been used (Fiedler, 1974; p. 65). The GA scale simply asks the leader to rate his or her work group on ten eight-point bipolar items. The leader-member relations dimension has also been identified as group atmosphere by other researchers (Hellriegel and Slocum, 1976).

The degree to which task requirements are specified plays an important part in leader authority and influence. Task structure has been considered by Fiedler as the second most important aspect of situational favorableness due to its effect on the leader's ability to give instructions and evaluate group performance (1974). Four factors are important in defining task structure:

1. Goal Clarity. The degree to which the requirements of a job are clearly stated or known to people performing the job. . . .
2. Goal-Path Multiplicity. The degree to which the problems encountered in the job can be solved by a variety of procedures. . . .
3. Decision Verifiability. The degree to which the correctness of the solutions or decisions . . . can be demonstrated by appeal to authority or authoritative sources. . . .
4. Decision Specificity. The degree to which there is generally more than one "correct solution" involved in tasks which typically make up a job. . . . (Fiedler, 1974; p. 67)

The position power of the leader involves the extent to which the leader possesses legitimate authority (Fiedler, 1974; Hellriegel et al., 1976). Position power is the leader's right to administer rewards or punishment, to evaluate, and to direct the work group. This legitimate authority is usually readily apparent to subordinates and is part of the organizational hierarchy. A checklist to determine the extent of the leader's position power was developed by Hunt (1967).

Leader-member relations, task structure, and the leader's position power appear to be the most important factors of the situation which affect the leader's influence and control. Work groups can be classified by first determining the leader-member relations, then task structure, and finally the leader's position power. The group can then be placed in one of eight categories shown in Figure 7. The categories

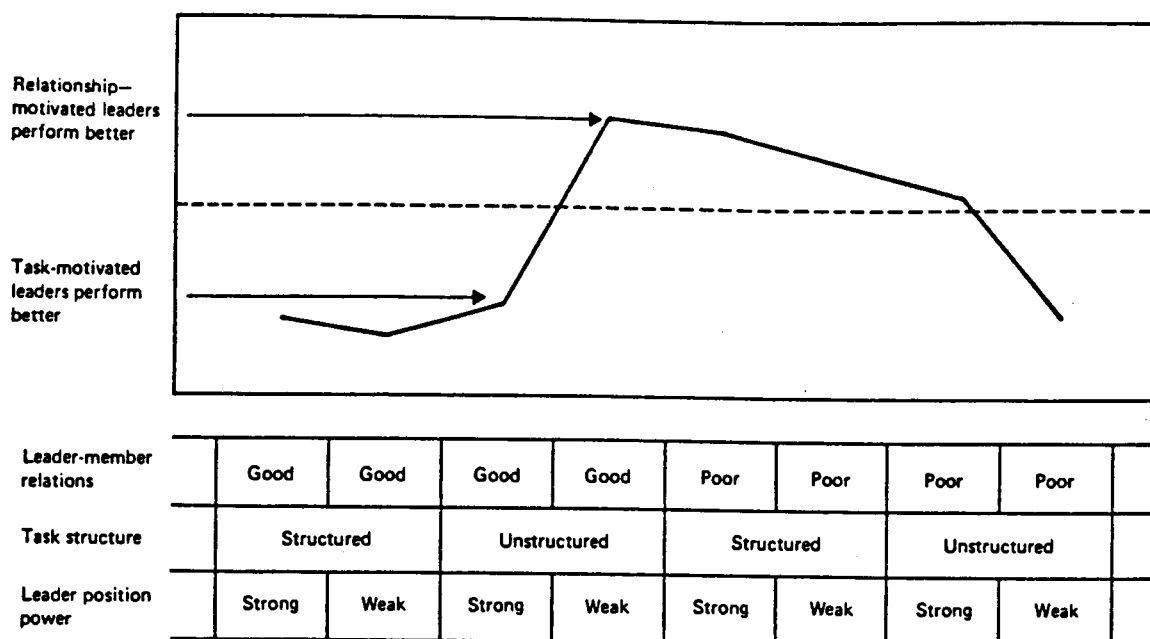


Figure 7. Fiedler's Contingency Model

Source: F. Fiedler. "Engineer the Job to Fit the Manager." Harvard Business Review, 45, 1965, 118.

range from the most favorable for the leader on the left to the least favorable on the right. That is, the higher each of these factors are the more favorable the situation is for the leader. The vertical axis indicates the leader's LPC score. The solid line above the midline indicates a positive relationship between high LPC scores and group performance. The solid line below the midline indicates a positive relationship between low LPC scores and group performance. From Figure 7, it can be concluded that low LPC leaders perform better in situation categories one, two, three, and eight. High LPC leaders perform better in situation categories four, five, six, and seven.

### William J. Reddin - The 3-D Theory

Two aspects of leader behavior, task and relations, were identified by the Ohio State and Michigan Leadership Studies (e.g., Halpin and Winer, 1957; Likert, 1961). Reddin (1967) used these two dimensions in his development of the 3-D Theory. However, to account for variability in the two basic styles, Reddin viewed the two elements as four distinct types. Each type reflects the specific behavior style of the leader. The four basic styles identified by Reddin (1970, p. 11) are:

1. Integrated Style. Both task and relations behavior used equally.
2. Dedicated Style. Task behaviors are emphasized.
3. Related Style. Relation behaviors are emphasized.
4. Separated Style. Both task and relations behavior are used to a small degree.

These four styles were first conceptualized by the Ohio State researchers (Halpin and Winer, 1947; Fleishman and Harris, 1962).

Previous research (e.g. Korman, 1966) noted that of the four styles, none were effective in all situations. That is, a particular leader behavior style could be both effective and ineffective depending on the situation. This element of effectiveness became Reddin's third dimension (1970). The effectiveness dimension was applied to each of the four basic styles producing eight managerial styles. The styles are arranged on a continuum from less effective to more effectiveness. Figure 8 shows the integration of the four basic leadership styles with the effectiveness dimension.

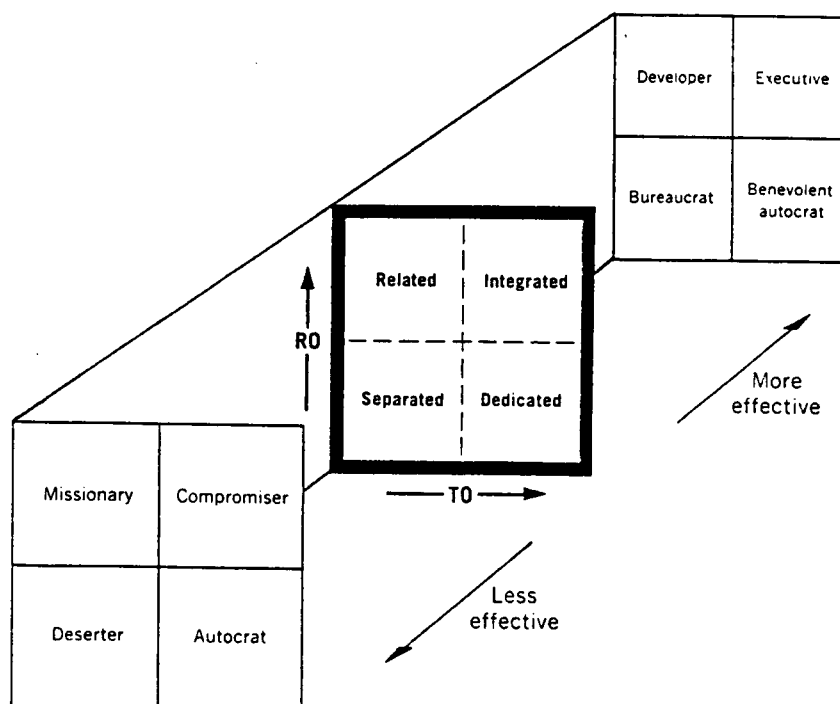


Figure 8. The 3-D Theory of Leadership Effectiveness.

Source: W.J. Reddin. Managerial Effectiveness. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1970.

The eight additional managerial styles are not styles but, rather, extensions of the four basic behavioral styles identified earlier. The eight styles reflect ineffective and effective behaviors. By doing this, Reddin has distinguished between leader behavior (four basic behavior styles) and leadership effectiveness (eight additional managerial styles). Figure 8 depicts the four basic behavioral styles as the center of the model with the eight additional styles extending on either side, depending on effectiveness.

An additional principle important to Reddin's 3-D Theory of leader effectiveness is style flex (Reddin, 1970). Since any of the four basic behavior styles can lead to effectiveness, it is imperative that the leader use the appropriate style for a specific situation. A high degree of style flexibility suggests that the leader has a wide range of behaviors from which to choose when encountering varying situations (1970). Style flex can be appropriate or inappropriate depending on the situation. It is the skill of the leader in choosing the correct style for the situation that determines effectiveness. Reddin (1970) distinguishes between style drift which is changing style to lower pressure from situation to situation and style flex.

The effectiveness of a leader depends on the skills which he or she possesses. Reddin (1967, 1970) identified three skills which are necessary for leader effectiveness. These skills include: situational sensitivity, style flexibility, and situational management skill (1970). Situational sensitivity involves the leader's ability to diagnose a situation in terms of task and relation needs. Once the

manager has determined the requirements of a given situation he or she must use either style flexibility or situational management to increase effectiveness. If style flexibility is used, the leader varies his or her style to be appropriate to a situation. On the other hand, if situational management is used, the leader changes situational demands so that effectiveness increases.

Whereas, the Ohio State and Michigan Leadership Studies were first concerned with identifying the major components of leader behavior and secondly defining leader effectiveness; Reddin was concerned with the effectiveness of leadership. Reddin simply took what research was already available on leader behavior and added an effectiveness dimension. Thus, the 3-D Theory is a theory of leader effectiveness which extends the task and relations behavior of the leader into a third dimension.

#### Robert J. House - Path-Goal Theory of Leadership

Another situational theory of leadership has been proposed by Robert House (1971). The theory has been further developed by House and Mitchell (1974). The Path-Goal Theory of Leadership examines the influence of specific leader behaviors on the path-goal perceptions and satisfaction of subordinates (Filley, House and Kerr; 1976). House's Path-Goal Theory was conceptualized in the earlier theoretical works of Evans (1970). Evans suggested that leaders will be effective to the extent they make rewards available to subordinates and that they make the rewards contingent on some specific performance (1970). Evans (1970) also argued that the leader must be engaged in strategic

functions including path-goal clarification and supportive behavior in order to be effective.

House (1971) and later House and Mitchell (1974), House and Dessler (1974), and Stinson and Johnson (1975) extended the initial theory proposed by Evans (1970). The House and Mitchell study (1974) extended the original theory to include the identification of four specific leader behaviors which could occur in any task situation. The four kinds or types of leader behavior were: supportive leadership, participative leadership, instrumental leadership, and achievement-oriented leadership (1974). The leader behaviors are an attempt to reconcile the inconsistency of the two-behavior approach (e.g., Ohio State and Michigan Leadership Studies).

Supportive leadership includes all those behaviors which are considerate of subordinate needs. Such behaviors include displaying concern for subordinates' well-being, and developing an appropriate work environment. The behaviors involved in participative leadership are characterized by the interaction of the leader and subordinate for the purpose of sharing information and mutual influence. Planning, organizing and controlling are indicative of instrumental leadership behaviors. Achievement-oriented leadership sets challenging goals for subordinates and seeks to improve performance. Achievement-oriented behavior requires that the leader display confidence in subordinates.

In addition to identifying the four types of leader behavior, the Path-Goal Theory consists of two theorems pertaining to leader behavior and its influence on the subordinate (House and Mitchell,

1974). The first theorem suggests that leader behavior is acceptable to subordinates to the extent that the behavior is perceived by subordinates as being a source of satisfaction or instrumental in providing future satisfaction. The second theorem assumes that leader behavior is motivational, that is, will cause subordinate behavior to increase. This theorem relies on the satisfaction of subordinate needs being contingent on effective performance and leader behavior providing the necessary support, guidance, and rewards required by the work environment. House, in Filley, House and Kerr (1976, p. 254) states:

The motivational functions of the leader consist of increasing the personal pay-offs to subordinates for work-goal attainment, and making the paths to these pay-offs easier to travel by clarifying paths, reducing road blocks and pitfalls, and increasing opportunities for personal satisfaction enroute. . . .

The influence of leader behavior on subordinate attitudes and performance is not a direct influence but, is contingent on two general categories of situational variables. House (1971) identified one of these general situational variables as the personal characteristics of the subordinate. The other situational variable was identified as the characteristics of the environment. However, the model is not limited to these variables; other situational variables may also moderate the effects of leader behavior.

The subordinates' perception of satisfaction with and acceptance of leader behavior is partially determined by the unique characteristics of the subordinate. Three personal characteristics which have been noted are the subordinates' perception of locus of control, tendency toward authoritarianism, and ability (House, 1971).

Runyon (1973) and Mitchell and others (1974) have shown that the subordinates' locus of control reflects how the subordinate will respond to specific leader behaviors and the subordinates' satisfaction with the behavior. The authoritarian nature of subordinates influences their acceptance of leader behavior. The degree of ability possessed by subordinates will influence the subordinates' perceived need of control. Subordinates with a high degree of ability perceive less need for control than do subordinates with low ability (Filley, House and Kerr; 1976).

Environmental factors are not usually controlled by the subordinates. Nonetheless, these factors are still important in the subordinates' need satisfaction and performance effectiveness. The Path-Goal theory states that the effect of leader behavior on the psychological states of subordinates is contingent on the subordinates' environment (House, 1971). The task, formal authority system, and the primary work group are mentioned by House (1971) as being broad categories of environmental factors impacting leader behavior. The subordinates can perceive environmental factors as stimuli to increase motivation and direction, constraints to reduce personal behavior variability, or as rewards for achieving desired performance (House, 1971; House and Mitchell, 1974).

The effect of the leader on subordinate motivation, then, is a function of how deficient the environment is with respect to motivational stimuli, constraints, or rewards. . . .  
(Filley, House and Kerr; 1976)

Figure 9 summarizes the relationships in the Path Goal theory. Leader behavior is perceived by the subordinates in reference to their personal characteristics and environmental factors. The effect of leader behavior on the subordinates' attitudes and behavior is a function of the personal perceptions of the subordinates and the subordinates' interpretation of environmental factors. Depending on the contingency factors, a particular leader behavior may be effective or ineffective.

#### Gary A. Yukl - A Multiple Linkage Theory of Leader Effectiveness

Situational theories of leadership seek to explain leader behavior and leader effectiveness in terms of intervening or moderating variables. That is, the influence of the leader's behavior on the subordinate's performance is contingent on various environmental or personal variables. Yukl, (1971) proposed a theory of leader effectiveness similar to earlier situational theories but, more comprehensive in terms of intervening variables and identification of specific leader behaviors. The "Multiple Linkage Model", as the theory was titled, emphasized not only the leader's influence on the subordinate's performance but, his or her influence on intervening variables as a means to improve group production (Yukl, 1981).

As mentioned earlier, the Multiple Linkage Model places greater emphasis on intervening and moderating variables than other situational variables. The intervening variables proposed by Yukl, (1971, 1982) are composed of group characteristics and individual subordinate

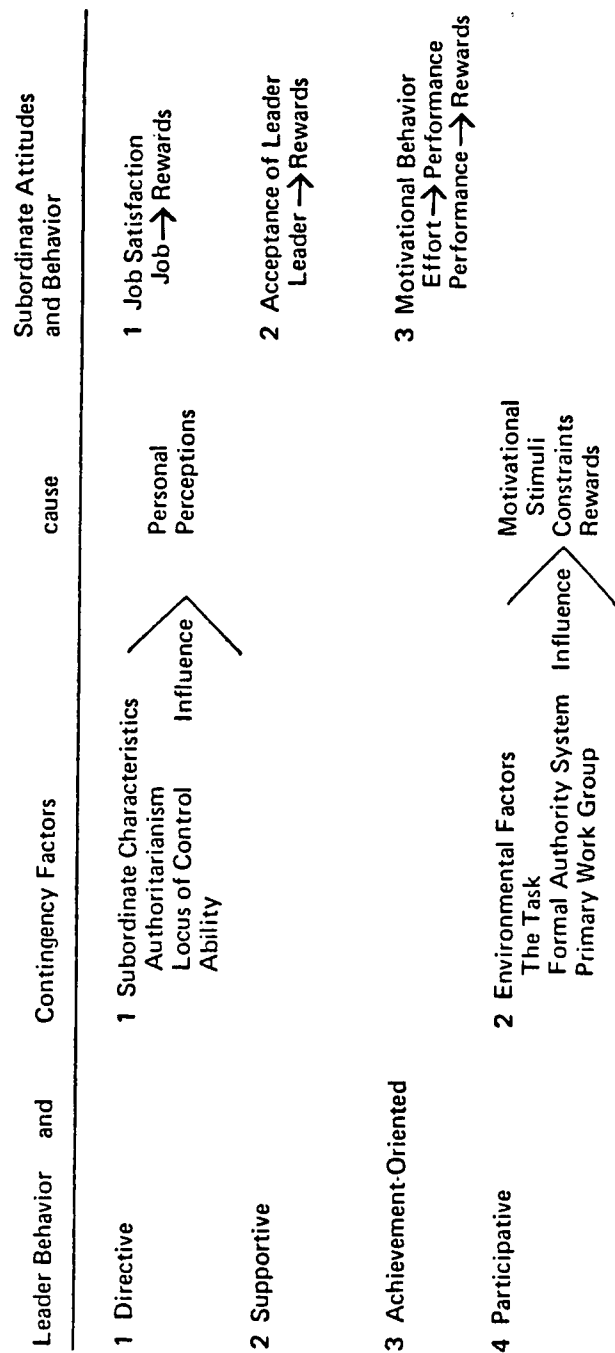


Figure 9. Path-Goal Relationships.

Source: A. Filley, R. House, and S. Kerr. Managerial Process and Organizational Behavior. Second Edition. Glenview, IL: Scott, Foresman and Co., 1976.

characteristics. These variables are very similar to those suggested by House (1971). Rather than focusing on the intervening variable's influence on leader behavior Yukl's theory investigates the leader's influence on the intervening variable and how they affect group performance (1971).

The performance of an individual is determined by the variables of effort, role clarity, and task ability. However, a fourth variable, support services, is necessary for maximizing production. To determine the productivity of the entire work group, task-role organization and group cohesiveness and teamwork must be considered as primary intervening variables. Task-role organization refers to the efficiency of resource allocation while group cohesiveness and teamwork involve interpersonal relationships among subordinates (Yukl, 1971; 1981). The relationship between the leader and subordinate is the seventh intervening variable considered by the Multiple Linkage Model. The quality of the dyadic relationship between the leader and subordinate influences individual and group performance. The effect of this relationship is often indirect and moderated by other intervening variables (Yukl, 1971). Figure 10 indicates the role of the intervening variables in the Multiple Linkage Model.

A second category of variables important to the Multiple Linkage Model is also diagrammed in Figure 10. Situational variables moderate the leader behaviors and intervening variables. They (situational variables) are divided into three groups, as determined by the influence they exert (Yukl, 1971). In Figure 10, the first type of situational variable includes any constraints on leader behavior

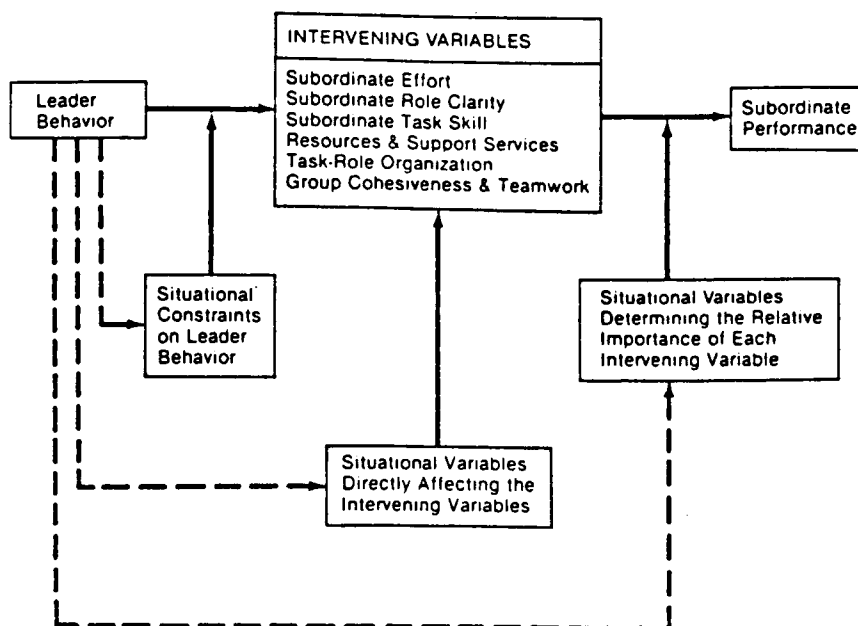


Figure 10. Causal Relationships in the Multiple Linkage Model.

Source: G. Yukl. Leadership in Organizations. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall Inc., 1981.

imposed by the organization (1971). The extent to which a leader possesses position power and authority determines his or her sphere of influence over subordinates.

The second category of situational variables is composed of any variable which directly affects the intervening variables (1971). The motivational system, both intrinsic and extrinsic, of the organization will influence subordinate effort. Hackman and Lawler (1971) have shown that the nature of the task alone can be motivating to the

subordinate. Role clarity, as emphasized by House (1971), is important to Yukl's model. Task structure and clear objectives and role formalization have a clear impact on performance. The ability and skill of subordinates varies from individual to individual. The structure of a work group imposed by formal organizational structure influences the task-role organization variable. The availability of resources moderates the intervening variables. The above situational variables are suggested by Yukl, but they are not considered exhaustive (1981).

The third group of situational variables considered by Yukl are those variables which determine the relative importance of the intervening variables on group performance (Yukl, 1981). The importance of each intervening variable changes from situation to situation. Therefore, Yukl (1971, 1981) implies that each intervening variable varies in importance and the importance of the variable can only be determined by a close examination of the environment.

The role of leader behavior in the Multiple Linkage Model is to affect the intervening variables in such a way as to increase subordinate performance (Yukl, 1981). The situation determines the importance of the variable and suggests to the leader potential plans of action (1981). The effective leader acts to correct deficiencies and display behavior appropriate to the situation. In addition to influencing intervening variables in the short run, the leader can also act to change situational variables over a longer time period (1981). The dotted lines in Figure 10 represent these long-range changes. These changes can be brought about through strategic planning, policy formation, organizational change and organizational development.

### The Vroom and Yetton Normative Model

The decision making behavior of the leader affects the subordinate's performance and ultimately group effectiveness. The decisions that are made by a leader are often the reflection of specific forces or attitudes of the leader, forces in the situation and forces in the subordinates (Tannenbaum and Schmidt, 1958). The theory of leadership proposed by Vroom and Yetton (1973) builds upon this and other theoretical considerations to focus on how the leader's decision making behavior affects decision quality and subordinate acceptance of the decision (Yukl, 1981). These two criteria for effective decision solutions were first suggested by Maiev in 1960.

Decision acceptance is considered an intervening variable in the Normative Model. It is the degree of commitment shown by subordinates to effectively implement a decision (Vroom and Yetton, 1973). The motivation of the subordinates to implement a decision depends on subordinates' perception of the leader and the situation. Vroom and Yetton (1973) pointed out that by allowing subordinates to participate in decision making, the leader is much more likely to make a decision consistent with the subordinates' preference.

Decision quality is based on the objective characteristics of the decision aside from any subordinate preference or acceptance (1973). Decision quality refers to choosing the best decision alternative in a given situation. A situation in which there is a great deal of variability requires a higher degree of decision quality than does a situation in which available alternatives are relatively

equal. The Normative Model suggests that when decision quality is important and subordinates possess information not available to the leader, the decision quality will improve if the leader includes subordinate input in the decision making process (Vroom and Yetton, 1973).

The Normative Model outlines seven decision making methods available to the leader, Table I, (Vroom and Yetton, 1973). Vroom and Yetton (1973, p. 19) then specify eight properties of problems, which they believe are relevant for determining the appropriate decision method.

The approach taken here is to select the properties of the problem to be solved as the critical situational dimensions for determining the appropriate form or amount of participation. . . .

1. If decision were accepted, would it make a difference which course of action were adopted?
2. Do I have sufficient information to make a high quality decision?
3. Do subordinates have sufficient additional information to result in a high quality decision?
4. Do I know exactly what information is needed, who possesses it, and how to collect it?
5. Is acceptance of decision by subordinates critical to effective implementation?
6. If I were to make the decision by myself, is it certain that it would be accepted by my subordinates?
7. Can subordinates be trusted to base solutions on organizational considerations?
8. Is conflict among subordinates likely in preferred solutions?

TABLE I  
DECISION METHODS FOR GROUP AND INDIVIDUAL PROBLEMS

| Group Problems                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                | Individual Problems                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                              |
|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| A1. You solve the problem or make the decision yourself, using information available to you at the time.                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                      | A1. You solve the problem or make the decision by yourself, using information available to you at the time.                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                      |
| A11. You obtain the necessary information from your subordinates, then decide the solution to the problem yourself. You may or may not tell your subordinates what the problem is in getting the information from them. The role played by your subordinates in making the decision is clearly one of providing the necessary information to you, rather than generating or evaluating alternative solutions. | A11. You obtain the necessary information from your subordinate, then decide on the solution to the problem yourself. You may or may not tell the subordinate what the problem is in getting the information from him. His role in making the decision is clearly one of providing the necessary information to you, rather than generating or evaluating alternative solutions. |
| C1. You share the problem with the relevant subordinates individually, getting their ideas and suggestions without bringing them together as a group. Then you make the decision, which may or may not reflect your subordinates' influence.                                                                                                                                                                  | C1. You share the problem with your subordinate, getting his ideas and suggestions. Then you make a decision, which may or may not reflect his influence.                                                                                                                                                                                                                        |
| C11. You share the problem with your subordinates as a group, obtaining their collective ideas and suggestions. Then you make the decision, which may or may not reflect your subordinates' influence.                                                                                                                                                                                                        | G1. You share the problem with your subordinate, and together you analyze the problem and arrive at a mutually agreeable solution.                                                                                                                                                                                                                                               |
| G11. You share the problem with your subordinates as a group. Together you generate and evaluate alternatives and attempt to reach agreement (consensus) on a solution. Your role is much like that of chairman. You do not try to influence the group to adopt your solution, and you are willing to accept and implement any solution which has the support of the entire group.                            | D1. You delegate the problem to your subordinate, providing him with any relevant information that you possess, but giving him responsibility for solving the problem by himself. You may or may not request him to tell you what solution he has reached.                                                                                                                       |

Source: V. H. Vroom and P. W. Yetton, Leadership and Decision Making, Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh Press, 1973.

The model specifies eight decision rules which must be considered by the leader when making the appropriate decision method (1973). Vroom and Yetton prescribe rules for insuring both the quality of the decision and the acceptance of the decision. These rules are to guide the leader in a given situation. The combination of the seven decision methods, the eight basic attributes of the problem, and the eight decision rules form the Normative Model. Vroom and Yetton have based this model of leadership on decision making behavior of the leader. The two intervening variables affecting the leader's decision making behavior and group effectiveness include decision acceptance by subordinates and decision quality.

The decision flow chart in Figure 11 was developed by Vroom and Yetton to aid the leader in the application of the Normative Model. To use the chart, the leader asks himself or herself question A. After answering question A, the leader proceeds through the decision tree in accordance with his or her answers until a terminal point is reached. The terminal point indicates which decision methods (Table 1) are appropriate for the decision situation described by the leader's answers to the questions. When more than one decision method is offered for a given situation, Vroom and Yetton (1973) suggest that the choice among decision methods be based on time pressure, development of subordinates, and the leader's preferences.



### Hersey and Blanchard - Situational Leadership

Most situational leadership models have sought to identify specific situational variables that determine the effectiveness of a particular leader behavior style under a given set of circumstances. The theory proposed by Paul Hersey and Kenneth Blanchard (1972, 1977, 1982) attempts to explain leader effectiveness by using such an approach. The inconsistencies of the behavior research (e.g., The Ohio State Leadership Studies) regarding leader behavior and its relationship to effectiveness was a primary target of their theory.

The Situational Theory is concerned with two broad categories of leader behavior (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982):

Task Behavior: The extent to which a leader provides the group with guidance and direction in performing tasks.

Relationship Behavior: The extent to which a leader provides socioemotional support for the group. This involves maintaining interpersonal relationships between themselves and group members.

These two categories of leader behavior are similar to the behaviors identified by the Ohio State Leadership Studies (1957). However, as Korman (1966) suggested, Hersey and Blanchard recommended a curvilinear relationship between task behavior and relationship behavior and situational variables (1982). As a result, the configuration of the Situational Theory, Figure 12, appears as a combination of The Ohio State Leadership Grid (1957), the Managerial Grid of Blake and Mouton (1964), and Reddin's (1967) 3-D Theory of Leadership.

The emphasis of the Situational Theory is on leader behavior and its relation to followers (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982). The

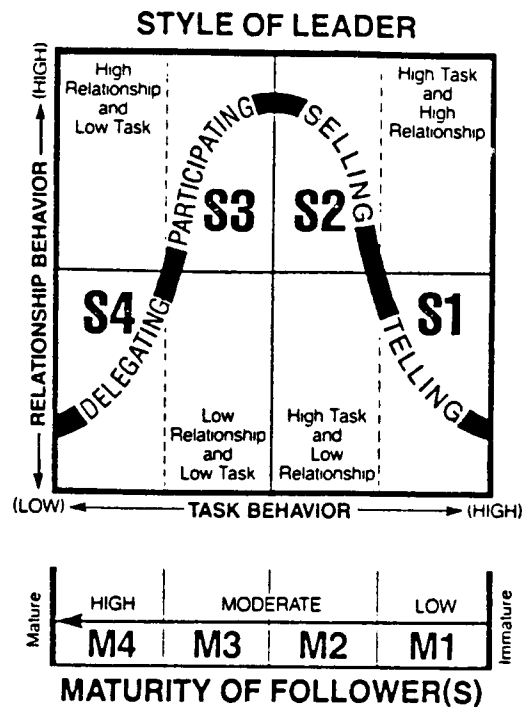


Figure 12. Situational Leadership Model.

Source: P. Hersey and K. Blanchard. Management of Organizational Behavior. Englewood Cliffs; N.J.: Prentice-Hall Inc., 1982.

specific concern of the model is follower maturity. Hersey and Blanchard (1982, p. 151) define maturity as "... the ability and willingness of people to take responsibility for directing their own behavior. . . ." They are careful to point out that the maturity of a follower can only be considered in relation to the specific task to be performed in a specific situation (1982). Maturity will also differ from one subordinate to another. When assessing the maturity level of a subordinate, the leader must consider job maturity as well as

psychological maturity. These components are combined to form follower maturity (Hersey and Blanchard 1982). Job maturity is a subordinate's skills and knowledge which relate to the task. Psychological maturity involves the subordinate's feeling of self-confidence and self-respect.

The leadership style of an individual would depend on the maturity level of the followers involved in the work group (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982). Figure 12 illustrates the relationship between the task-relevant maturity and the appropriate leadership style. The maturity of the follower is depicted on the scale below the grid. Even though maturity is portrayed as segments, it is actually a continuum ranging from immaturity to maturity. The appropriate leadership style for a given level of follower maturity is shown by the bell-shaped curve passing through each quadrant. This curve has been labeled the "prescriptive curve" (1982, p. 152).

As the prescriptive curve passes through each quadrant, a specific leadership style is identified which corresponds to the level of follower maturity. Each leadership style is composed of varying degrees of task and relationship behavior (1982). In general, the Situational Theory suggests that as subordinate maturity level increases, the leader should increase the use of relationship behavior and decrease the use of task behavior up to the point that followers reach a moderate level of maturity. As maturity exceeds this point, the leader should decrease the use of relationship behavior and continue to decrease the use of task behavior.

The four leadership styles identified by the Situational Theory are (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982):

Telling. This leadership style is appropriate for a low level of follower maturity. A directive or "telling style" is required to provide clear, specific directions for subordinates. High task behavior and low relationship behavior are required.

Selling. This leadership style is appropriate for followers with a low to moderate level of maturity. This style involves providing direction and guidance for subordinates as well as support for their willingness to work. A high degree of task behavior and relationship behavior is required.

Participating. The leadership style required when followers have a moderate to high maturity level. At this maturity level, followers are usually able to perform but unwilling. As a result, a high level of supportive (relationship behavior) is required and a low level of directive (task behavior).

Delegating. The leadership style required when follower maturity is high. Followers are both able and willing to perform. A "delegating" style is appropriate. Low relationship behavior and low task behavior is required of the leader.

An additional aspect of the Situational Theory which is important to the relationship between leadership style and follower maturity is the delayed causal effect of the leader's behavior on the follower's maturity (1982). By the use of developmental intervention, the leader can alter the maturity level of the followers. The Hersey and Blanchard idea of follower maturity resembles that of Argyris' (1957, 1962, 1964) continuum of immaturity--maturity growth. However, in Situational Leadership, Hersey and Blanchard emphasize the leader's

role in follower maturity development (1982). The leader can vary not only his or her behavior but, the leader can also facilitate the follower's maturity development to meet the requirements of the situation.

### The Tannenbaum and Schmidt Typology

The efforts of Robert Tannenbaum and Warren H. Schmidt in 1958 produced a typology of leadership patterns. Even though this typology is not as specific as the theories discussed previously, it does offer a continuum of possible leader behavior styles. Figure 13 presents the continuum of leader behaviors proposed by Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958). This diagram was later modified in 1973. Each leader's behavior is related to the amount of authority exercised by the leader and the degree of freedom available to subordinates (1958; 1973). The behaviors on the left reflect a leader who maintains a large degree of authority and control. The behaviors on the right reflect a leader who allows considerable freedom for subordinates. The extremes of the continuum are connected by behavior styles which reflect varying degrees of authority for the leader.

There are three basic decision procedures which appear on the continuum. The first three styles of behavior presented by Tannenbaum and Schmidt reflect an autocratic tendency in decision making. In the first style, the leader makes the decision without outside consultation and announces the decision to the work group. The second style is characterized by the leader making the decision and then attempting to

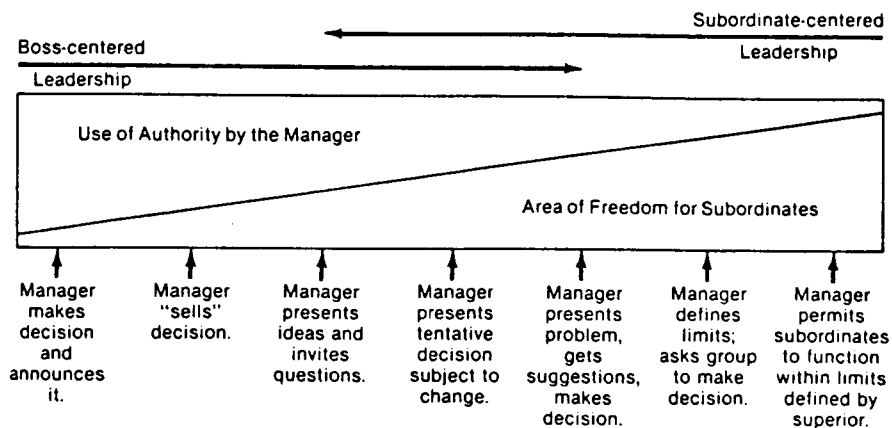


Figure 13. Tannenbaum and Schmidt Leadership Continuum.

Source: R. Tannenbaum and W. Schmidt. "How to Choose a Leadership Pattern." Harvard Business Review, 36, 1958, 97.

persuade the subordinates to accept it. Here, the leader recognizes some resistance by the subordinates. The third autocratic style reflects a concern with decision acceptance and comprehension. The leader presents the idea to the subordinates for further questioning.

The consultation decision procedure is seen in the two middle behavior styles on the continuum. In both of these styles, the leader consults with the subordinates for their opinions and suggestions. At

this point, the decision is tentative; the final decision will likely be influenced by subordinate input. When making a tentative decision, the initiative for identifying and diagnosing problems remains with the leader (1973). However, as the behavior style approaches the right side of the continuum, the leader identifies the problem and the subordinates offer solutions.

The last two categories of leader behavior are variations of joint decision making (Yukl, 1981). In the first joint decision style, the leader identifies the problem and sets limits for group decision making. The final style on the continuum represents an extreme degree of group freedom. (The groups both identify and solve the problem. The only limits are those proposed by the formal organization (Tannenbaum and Schmidt, 1973).

The typology offered by Tannenbaum and Schmidt serves primarily to identify the possible types of leadership in a given situation. However, the researchers do suggest three variables which influence the type of behavior to be used (1973; pp.182-184):

1. Forces in the Manager: The manager's behavior is influenced by his or her personality. The behaviors displayed are likely to be a result of his or her background, knowledge, and experience. The leader's value system, confidence in subordinates, personal leadership inclinations, and feelings of security are cited as important personal variables.

2. Forces in the Subordinate: The manager should consider the forces affecting subordinate behavior. Variables which are

considered important are: need for independence, readiness to assume responsibility, tolerance for ambiguity, interest and understanding of the organization, knowledge and experience, and expectations.

3. Forces in the Situation: Critical environment pressures from the organization, work groups, time, and nature of the problem, influence the leader's behavior style.

The value of the Tannenbaum and Schmidt typology is that it points out the vast number of potential leader behavior styles. It offers a continuum of behaviors ranging from task-oriented leaders using high degrees of authority to relations-oriented leaders allowing considerable group participation. As a leader works with a group, his or her leadership style will change depending on the situation. Figure 13 suggests that the leader is not locked into a single style but, rather, he or she has a continuum of styles from which to choose.

#### Leadership and Subordinate Role Perception

The research suggests that a leadership style which is effective in one situation may be ineffective in another situation (Korman, 1966; Yukl, 1971; Kerr and Schriesheim, 1974; Stodgill, 1974). The focus of this research tends to be on the match between the leader's style and the situation (Fiedler, 1964; Reddin, 1967; House, 1971; House and Mitchell, 1974; Yukl, 1971; Vroom and Yetton, 1973). While leader behavior has been dissected into two primary categories, task behavior and relations behavior; the number of situational variables important to organizational behavior appears to be endless.

However, many researchers consider subordinate role perception to be a critical situational variable influencing organizational effectiveness (Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek and Rosenthal, 1964; Rizzo,, House and Lirtzman, 1970; Valenzi and Dessler, 1978).

Each individual in an organization occupies a role. In defining the role of an individual, researchers have been concerned with the behaviors and characteristics required by a given position in the organization's structure (Kahn et al., 1964; Filley, Heider, 1967; House and Kerr, 1976). Role expectations are the individual's perception of how other people such as superiors (leaders), peers, and subordinates expect the individual to behave in carrying out his or her role in the organization (Kahn et al., 1964; Pfeffer and Salancik, 1975). As a result, there are many variables which contribute to the subordinate's role perception (see Kahn et al., 1964). The research of Rizzo et al., (1970), House and Dessler (1974), Schriesheim, House, and Kerr (1976) suggests that the behavior exhibited by the leader of a work group affects the role perception of individual group members (subordinates). In addition to studies focusing on role theory, many leadership theories (e.g., House, 1971; Yukl, 1981; Hersey and Blanchard, 1982) point out the important influence of leader behavior on subordinate role perception. In fact, the two primary leader behaviors, task behaviors and relations behavior, operate in such a way as to impact on subordinate role perception.

Previous research on subordinate role perception seems to indicate that certain leader behaviors can result in significant rolep

related difficulties for the subordinate (Rizzo, et al., 1970; Beeker, 1976; Schriesheim, et al., 1976; Weed, et al. 1976). Rizzo and his associates (1970) identified two separate dimensions of role disorder as role ambiguity and role conflict. Individual as well as organizational consequences of role stress (ambiguity and conflict) can be dysfunctional (Sales, 1970; House and Rizzo, 1972). Role conflict and role ambiguity can increase the probability that the subordinate will experience dissatisfaction, experience anxiety, and perform less effectively (Kahn et al., 1964; Lyons, 1971; House and Rizzo, 1972; Keller, 1975; and Burke, 1976).

#### A Theoretical Model of Role Dynamics

The 1964 publication of Organizational Stress: Studies in Role Conflict and Ambiguity by Kahn and his associates presents a general model for understanding the processes and interactions involved in role dynamics. The model is specifically concerned with role conflict and role ambiguity. Figure 14 presents the basic foundation of the model. The model is based on role episodes, that is, a complete cycle of role senders, focal people, and effects.

Role senders are people in an organization who contribute to the role development of an individual. In organizations, managerial personnel are usually the primary role senders for subordinates. Since the subordinate is the target of the managerial role influence, the subordinate is considered the focal person. At this point, it must be pointed out that a role sender/focal person relationship can occur between any two people in an organization. However, this study is

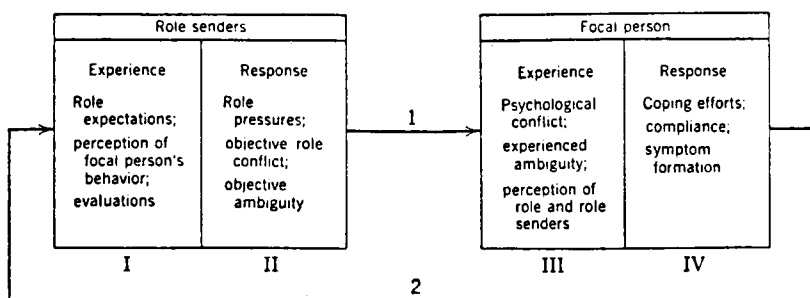


Figure 14. Role Episode Model.

Source: R. Kahn, D. Wolfe, R. Quinn, and J. Snoek.  
Organizational Stress: Studies in Role Conflict and Ambiguity. New York: Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1964.

concerned with the relationship between the superior (leader) and subordinate (follower).

The role sender, the leader, has a set of expectations regarding the behaviors required of the role occupied by the focal person, the subordinate. The expectations of the role sender are a combination of his or her experience, perception, and cognition. As the role sender attempts to influence the behavior of the focal person, the sender exerts pressure on the focal person. The pressure exerted by the role sender on the focal person may be communicated overtly or covertly.

The sent role pressures influence the immediate experience of the focal person. The focal person's experience of the situation is a function of the demands and objectives placed on the role at a given time. To determine the influence of sent role pressures, each situation must be examined separately. When the role sender is

supportive of the role occupant, the response of the focal person is primarily that of satisfaction. However, when the pressures from the role sender are contradictory or unclear, the response of the focal person is likely to be that of conflict and ambiguity.

The responses of a focal person to the pressures sent by the role sender are determined by the experiences of the focal person in the situation. The response of the focal person will likely be an attempt to attain satisfaction from the work situation. As a result, the focal person will engage in a variety of coping behaviors. These coping behaviors may be attempts to comply with the pressures of the role sender or to modify the pressures. In certain situations, the focal person may engage in avoidance behaviors or use defense mechanisms in order to evade stress.

The response of the focal person to the sent pressures will affect the role sender's expectations in the situation. A response which is basically against the role pressures can result in the role sender behaving quite differently than if the focal person complied with the sent pressures. In other words, the focal person's response to sent role pressures provides feedback to the role sender who then alters the pressures accordingly.

To summarize the model, Figure 14 can be viewed as a causal sequence. Each box represents separate events which occur in time. The arrows direct the causal sequence from sent role pressures (II), to focal person role perception (III), which results in responses by the focal persons (IV), and loops back to the role sender and are evaluated in relation to role sender perception and expectations (I).

### Role Conflict

When the behaviors expected of a subordinate are contradictory, the subordinate experiences opposing role pressures or role conflict (Kahn, et al., 1964; Rizzo, et al., 1970). Role conflict often results from the violation of the classical organizational principles of chain of command, unity of command, and single accountability (Rizzo, et al., 1970). In fact, Kahn et al. (1964) reported that 88 percent of inter-sender role conflicts for subordinates involve contradictory expectations from superiors.

The chain of command principle implies that organizations are structured according to hierarchical relationships. In such a structure, authority flows from the top of the hierarchy to the lower levels. The flow of authority should be clear and provide the most effective and efficient means for achieving organizational goals. The principle of unity of command is developed from the idea of chain of command. Unity of command suggests that each subordinate have only one superior or leader over groups with a common goal or purpose. Each of these classical principles should protect the subordinate from the incompatible expectations of more than one leader.

Davis (1951), in stating the principle of single accountability, suggests that a person should be accountable for the behaviors in which he or she engages in the performance of their task. And, this accountability should be to one and only one superior. The principle of single accountability prevents the subordinate from allocating time and effort according to his or her personal preference and provides for accurate performance evaluation.

Role conflict often results when the chain of command principle is not clear to the subordinate or when multiple sources of authority exist (Kaplan, 1959; Etzioni, 1959; La Porte, 1965). Blau and Scott (1962) concluded that when organizational authority is based both in position power and in professional expertise, the professionals in such positions experience significant role conflict. The work of Angona and Williams (1981) involving the professional bureaucratic conflict supports the conclusions of Blau and Scott (1962). When multiple authority exists, unity of command is usually impaired. Rizzo (1970) concluded that an unclear unity of command will result in role conflict for the subordinate. Phelan (1960) submitted that in the presence of multiple and/or conflicting standards of performance (absence of single accountability), the subordinate must make the decision. Thus, a wide range of alternative behaviors which conflict with organizational expectations is present.

The above studies support the conclusion that violations of the principles of chain of command, unity of command, and single accountability will result in role conflict experienced by the subordinate. Kahn et al. (1964) reported that individuals experiencing role conflict generally report increased internal conflicts, job tension, reduced job satisfaction, decreased confidence and trust in superiors, and a reduction in communication with superiors. These subordinate responses to role conflict may result in negative consequences for the organization.

### Role Ambiguity

Role ambiguity has been described as a function of the discrepancy between the information available to a position occupant and the information necessary for the adequate performance of the position requirements (Kahn, et al., 1964). Ambiguity is present in all complex organizations. However, an individual's role ambiguity can be compounded by his or her lack of knowledge concerning role requirements and inability to predict the consequences of his or her behavior. Since role requirements are determined by organizational objectives, role clarity and predictability are important factors in organizational effectiveness.

Unclear organizational objectives often result in role conflict for the role incumbent. Fromes (1957) provided evidence that unclear aims, goals, and purposes result in significant role confusion for research workers. When asked to predict future organizational changes, superiors and subordinates differed considerably (Maier, et al., 1961). Perrow (1969) pointed out that the failure to make objectives clear and operational to subordinates was a result of poor communication between the manager and subordinate. The importance of clear objectives for organizational performance has been stated by Drucker (1954, p. 126),

These objectives should always derive from the goals of the business enterprise. In one company, I have found it practicable to provide even a foreman with a detailed statement of not only his own objectives but those of the company . . . the result has been a significant increase in production. . . .

Filley et al., (1976) emphasize that clearly defined role requirements aid in performance evaluation. As a result, the role occupant is able to evaluate his or her degree of achievement and predict the consequences of his or her behaviors.

Many studies pertinent to role ambiguity and its influence on the role incumbent have been conducted. Raven and Rietsema (1957) found that a clear understanding of goals led to a greater degree of task interest and group cohesiveness. Several researchers (e.g., Cohen, 1959; Likert, 1961; Rosen, 1961; and Barrett, 1963) have noted that employees who operate under inconsistent and ambiguous conditions experience feelings of insecurity, low motivation, and ineffective behaviors. Role ambiguity can result in emotional tension, and decreased job satisfaction according to Kahn, et al., (1964). The study of Rizzo, House, and Lirtzman (1970) supports the work of Kahn, and others (1964), concluding that role ambiguity correlates negatively with job satisfaction. As in role conflict, role ambiguity also results in reduced trust between superiors and subordinates (Kahn, et al., 1964).

Basically, the consequences of role conflict and role ambiguity are similar. However, as the work of Rizzo, et al., (1970) concluded, role conflict and role ambiguity occur independently of each other. However, it is possible that an individual can be in a situation which is both ambiguous and conflicting.

### Summary

The leadership present in an organization does much to affect organizational effectiveness. And, since leadership is based upon social interaction, much of the effectiveness of an organization is contingent on the interaction between the leader and subordinates. The review of the literature indicated the critical importance of this relationship.

The behavior of the leader was suggested by the review of the literature as an important contributing factor to subordinate role perception. In fact, the leader Initiating Structure behavior and Consideration behavior were defined and examined in terms of their impact on subordinate role definition. The influence of a given leader behavior style on subordinate role perception was influenced by the expectations of the leader and various situational variables. From here, the research tended to focus more on the interaction between the leadership style and the situational variable rather than the interaction between leader behavior and subordinate role perception.

The present study was conducted in an effort to focus more on the interaction of behavior of the leader and the subordinate in terms of subordinate role perception. Specifically, the focus was on subordinate role conflict and role ambiguity and its relationship to leader behavior. The organizational settings for the study were colleges of education. The relationship between the dean's leader behavior and department head role conflict and role ambiguity was investigated.

## CHAPTER III

## PROCEDURES

## Data Collection and Organization

Questionnaires were mailed to a random sample (N=339) of department heads in colleges of education in public universities in the Southern Regional Education Board (SREB) states with National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) approved programs. Following a brief cover letter, the second page of each survey presented a demographic questionnaire. The third page consisted of the 30 item Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ). The fourth page presented the Role Conflict and Role Ambiguity Questionnaire developed by Rizzo and his associates (1970). Each subject was requested to complete the questionnaires and return them in the reply envelope by May 15, 1984. Follow-up questionnaires were mailed to 150 subjects requesting that the questionnaires be returned by June 12, 1984.

Mailed questionnaires were returned by 260 department heads. The calculated response rate was 76.7 percent. For the purpose of this study, those survey packages with missing questionnaires or incomplete questionnaires were eliminated from the study. Given these criteria, 189 usable sets of questionnaires were returned from the initial mailout and 45 usable sets of questionnaires were returned from the second mailout. The total usable sets of questionnaires received was 234 or 69.03 percent of the original 339 survey questionnaires mailed.

The respondents were sorted into four groups according to the Consideration and Initiating Structure scores each department head assigned to his/her respective dean on the LBDQ Questionnaire. Table II presents the department head groups used and the high or low LBDQ scores necessary for each group.

TABLE II  
GROUPS USED TO CLASSIFY DEPARTMENT HEADS ACCORDING TO THE  
LBDQ SCORE ASSIGNED TO COLLEGE OF EDUCATION DEANS  
IN THE SREB STATES DURING 1984

| Department<br>Head Group | LBDQ Scores   |                      |
|--------------------------|---------------|----------------------|
|                          | Consideration | Initiating Structure |
| 1                        | Low           | High                 |
| 2                        | High          | High                 |
| 3                        | Low           | Low                  |
| 4                        | High          | Low                  |

### Subjects

The subjects of this study were randomly selected from the population of department heads in colleges of education of public

universities located in the Southern Regional Education Board (SREB) states which have National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education approved programs. The number of department heads meeting the above criteria was 1,109. A 30.57 percent sample was randomly selected from the population and resulted in a sample with size  $N=339$ . Table III contains a listing of all states included in the study, the number of colleges selected per state, and the number of department heads in the selected colleges.

Department heads who responded to the initial mailing numbered 189. This gave a response rate of 55.75 percent for the first mailing. A second mailing resulted in an additional 45 responses. Considering both mailings, the final response rate was 69.03 percent with a final sample size of  $N=234$ .

#### Demographic Characteristics

When sorted by the variable sex, the sample consisted of 38 females and 196 males. Table IV indicates the distribution of male and female respondents by group. The percentage of female and male respondents in the sample was 16.24 and 83.76, respectively. The sample included no subjects below the age of 31. In fact, 85.04 percent of the sample was between the ages of 41 and 60. The educational level of those individuals included in the study varied only slightly. There were 231 subjects with earned doctorates and 3 with master's degrees. Of those individuals having earned doctorates, 154 had doctor of

TABLE III  
NUMBER OF COLLEGES OF EDUCATION AND DEPARTMENT HEADS  
INCLUDED IN THE RANDOM SAMPLE OF COLLEGES OF  
EDUCATION WITH NCATE APPROVED PROGRAMS  
LOCATED IN THE SREB STATES IN 1984

| State          | Number of<br>Colleges Per State | Number<br>of Department<br>Heads Per State |
|----------------|---------------------------------|--------------------------------------------|
| Alabama        | 11                              | 32                                         |
| Arkansas       | 9                               | 21                                         |
| Florida        | 4                               | 11                                         |
| Georgia        | 13                              | 27                                         |
| Kentucky       | 8                               | 19                                         |
| Louisiana      | 11                              | 33                                         |
| Maryland       | 7                               | 14                                         |
| Mississippi    | 8                               | 23                                         |
| North Carolina | 8                               | 26                                         |
| South Carolina | 5                               | 7                                          |
| Tennessee      | 9                               | 28                                         |
| Texas          | 20                              | 50                                         |
| Virginia       | 11                              | 33                                         |
| West Virginia  | 10                              | 15                                         |

TABLE IV  
GROUP DISTRIBUTIONS OF MALE AND FEMALE DEPARTMENT HEADS  
PARTICIPATING IN THE 1984 SURVEY OF COLLEGES  
OF EDUCATION IN THE SREB STATES

| Sex    | Group |    |    |    | Total |
|--------|-------|----|----|----|-------|
|        | 1     | 2  | 3  | 4  |       |
| Female | 10    | 13 | 10 | 5  | 38    |
| Male   | 28    | 72 | 56 | 40 | 196   |
| Total  | 38    | 85 | 66 | 45 | 234   |

education degrees and 77 had doctor of philosophy degrees. Table V presents the distribution of degrees by group. The amount of work experience in a college of education varied from individual to individual. However, 60.25 percent of the subjects indicated that they had between 11 and 20 years of work experience in a college of education. Four respondents had fewer than 5 years experience while those individuals with more than 31 years of experience also numbered 4. When asked to describe the level of course work offered by their department, 191 (81.62 percent) department heads indicated that both undergraduate and graduate courses were available. The number of students enrolled in the departments sampled varied from fewer than 50 to more than 300. The number of instructional staff members supervised by each department head is listed in Table VI, according to groups. Of the 234 respondents, 143 or 61.11 percent had fewer than 10 years experience in their present position.

TABLE V

THE 1984 DISTRIBUTION OF ACADEMIC DEGREES BY GROUP FOR  
DEPARTMENT HEADS INCLUDED IN THE SAMPLE OF COLLEGES  
OF EDUCATION LOCATED IN THE SREB STATES

| Degree               | Group |    |    |    |
|----------------------|-------|----|----|----|
|                      | 1     | 2  | 3  | 4  |
| Master's             | 0     | 2  | 0  | 1  |
| Doctor of Education  | 26    | 56 | 44 | 28 |
| Doctor of Philosophy | 12    | 27 | 22 | 16 |

TABLE VI  
 SIZE OF INSTRUCTIONAL STAFF SUPERVISED BY DEPARTMENT HEADS  
 ACCORDING TO GROUP FOR THE SAMPLE OF COLLEGES OF  
 EDUCATION IN THE SREB STATES DURING 1984

| Size of<br>Instructional Staff | Department Heads by Group |    |    |    |
|--------------------------------|---------------------------|----|----|----|
|                                | 1                         | 2  | 3  | 4  |
| 0-5                            | 5                         | 14 | 13 | 4  |
| 6-10                           | 14                        | 32 | 16 | 13 |
| 11-15                          | 2                         | 22 | 19 | 12 |
| 16 or more                     | 17                        | 17 | 18 | 16 |

### Instrumentation

The instruments used in this study were selected on the basis of their reliability and validity as well as their prior usage in research similar to this study. To describe the behavior of college of education deans, the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire was used (Stogdill and Coons, 1957). The role conflict and role ambiguity questionnaire developed by Rizzo and his associates (1970) was selected to measure the role conflict and ambiguity of department heads in colleges of education. A demographic questionnaire was used to obtain selected information concerning each respondent.

### The Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire

The behavior of college of education deans was described by the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ). The LBDQ was originated by Hemphill and Coons in 1957 as part of the Ohio State Leadership Studies. The original LBDQ went through several revisions before it appeared in the format used in this study (Hemphill and Coons, 1957). The questionnaire, consisting of 30 statements, measures the Consideration and Initiating Structure dimensions of leader behavior. Fifteen items measure Consideration behavior and 15 items measure Initiating Structure behavior.

Halpin (1957) demonstrated that each dimension could be described in terms of low and high scores. As a result, four classifications of leader behavior are possible using the LBDQ. These are: high Initiating Structure--low Consideration, high Initiating Structure--high Consideration, Low Initiating Structure--low Consideration, and low Initiating Structure--high Consideration.

High and low scores were obtained by calculating the mean score of each dimension. Scores which were below the mean were identified as low scores. Scores above the mean were considered high. In this study, the mean score for Consideration was 36.87. The Initiating Structure mean was 35.43.

### Role Conflict and Role Ambiguity Questionnaire

Department head role conflict and role ambiguity descriptions were obtained using the questionnaire developed by Rizzo, House, and Lirtzman (1970). The scale consists of 29 statements, 15 deal with

role conflict and 14 of which deal with role ambiguity. The items related to role conflict measure the incompatibility or incongruency experienced by a role occupant. Specific types of conflict addressed by the questionnaire are:

1. Conflict between the role incumbent's personal values and standards and the behaviors required by the role.
2. Conflict between abilities, time, and resources of the focal person and the behavior requirements of the role.
3. Conflict between several roles for the same individual which require the individual to change his/her behavior or engage in incompatible behaviors due to the situation.
4. Conflicting expectations as a result of incompatible policies, conflicting requests, and inconsistent evaluation.

The items which measure role ambiguity focus on the predictability of outcomes and clarity of requirements for the role occupant. These items focus on the certainty of duties, authority, relationships, guides or directives, and the ability to predict consequences of behavior.

#### Demographic Questionnaire

A review of the literature related to leadership and role perception indicates a number of variables which may affect the relationship between leader behavior and role conflict and role ambiguity (Gross, et al., 1958, Kahn, et al., 1964; Rizzo, et al., 1970; and Stogdill, 1974). Variables used in this study were similar

to the variables cited in the literature and selected on the basis of their applicability to educational organizations. The following variables were considered:

1. Sex
2. Age
3. Education Level
4. Total Experience in Education
5. Level of Course work in Department
6. Department Enrollment
7. Number of Professional Employees Supervised
8. Years Experience in Present Position

#### Treatment of Data

Analyses of the data were performed by usage of the Statistical Analysis System provided by The University of Tennessee Computer Center. The statistical procedures used in the analysis of the data included the t-test, analysis of variance (ANOVA), and multiple comparison.

#### t-Test

The t-test computes a statistic for testing the null hypothesis that two groups of data have the same mean ( $H_0: X_1 - X_2 = 0$ ). The null hypothesis assumes the data were sampled from the same population of dependent variable scores twice resulting in two sample means from the same population (Levine, 1981). In the t-test, two groups are first distinguished on an independent variable. If the

scores received on the dependent variable are significantly different, the independent and dependent variables are considered related.

Two t-tests were included in the analysis of the data in this study. The first t-test grouped by the independent variable sex, and measured on the dependent variables of role conflict and role ambiguity. The second t-test grouped the data according to when they were received, first mailing or the follow-up mailing, for the independent variable. The dependent variables, again, were role conflict and role ambiguity.

#### Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

The analysis of variance is a statistical technique used to study the variability of data (Council, 1983). When the independent variables are not dichotomous and the dependent variable is continuous, the analysis of variance procedure is appropriate (Levine, 1981). Analysis of variance models are used to analyze the effects of the independent variable or variables on the dependent variable. In determining whether or not factor (independent variable) means are equal, two hypotheses are available:

$H_1$ : all means are equal

$H_2$ : not all means are equal.

The analysis of variance test statistic used for choosing between the alternatives was the F ratio. Large values for F support the conclusion that not all means are equal while values of F near one support the conclusion that all means are equal (Neter and Wasserman, 1974).

The analysis of variance procedure was used to examine the relationship between the leader behavior group (independent variables or factors) and the role conflict (dependent variable) of department heads. Analysis of variance was also performed between the leader behavior groups and the role ambiguity of department heads. A multifactor analysis of variance was conducted to investigate the relationship between department head role conflict and role ambiguity and selected organizational and demographic variables.

#### Multiple Comparison

Since the analysis of variance procedures proved to be significant beyond the .05 confidence level established, a multiple comparison technique was used to determine which of the differences between sample group means implied significant differences. The Scheffe' method of multiple comparison was chosen as the method of computation. The Scheffe' method allowed a comparison among all means desired, orthogonal or not (Hays, 1981). The applicability of the Scheffe' method to samples of unequal sizes made the method the most appropriate multiple comparison technique for this study. In general contrasts, as in this study, the Scheffe' method tends to give narrow confidence levels (Neter and Wasserman, 1974). A final property of the Scheffe' method which made it the preferred computational technique was the method's property of identifying at least one contrast (comparison of means) which is significant given the F ratio is significant.

## CHAPTER IV

### RESULTS OF THE DATA ANALYSES

#### Introduction

The sample of department heads was divided into four groups depending on the scores they assigned to their dean on the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (See Table II). The four groups were used as classification factors, in that, the groups described the characteristics of the department head's dean and was not under the control of the investigator. Additional classification factors used included sex, age, degree held, total years experience, level of course work offered by the department, enrollment of the department, number of employees supervised, and the number of years in their present position. These factors, therefore, composed the independent variables of the study. The dependent variables under investigation were the role conflict and role ambiguity experienced by the department heads as measured by the scale developed by Rizzo and his associates (1970).

The data analyses were divided into three stages. The first stage involved the t-test for significance between two group means. The second stage of data analysis consisted of the analysis of variance procedure and was concerned with the statistical relation between more than one factor and multifactor analysis. The final stage was to compute multiple comparison tests for the significant results of the analysis of variance.

This chapter includes the presentation of the results of each of the three stages of data analysis as well as the interpretation of those results.

#### t-Test for the Difference Between Two Means

The t-test was used to compare the mean scores of male and female respondents on the dependent variables, role conflict and role ambiguity. An alpha level of .05 was selected as the level of statistical significance. Table VII contains the results of the t-test between male and female department heads for role conflict. The results of this statistical procedure suggests that there is no significant difference between male and female responses on role conflict at the .05 level of significance. Table VIII presents the results of the t-test between male and female department heads for the variable role ambiguity. Again, the t-test indicates that there is no significant difference between the role ambiguity scores of females and the role ambiguity scores of males at the .05 level.

The work of West (1973) prompted the second set of t-test calculations. West (1973) suggested that it is necessary to determine whether nonrespondents differ significantly from respondents. In order to achieve this, West (1973) suggested that a comparison be made between early respondents and tardy respondents. If the responses of the tardy respondents do not differ significantly from the responses of the early respondents, the investigator can assume that the responses of those who did not respond would not differ (West, 1973). As a

TABLE VII

t-TEST FOR COMPARISON OF ROLE CONFLICT MEANS FOR FEMALE AND  
MALE DEPARTMENT HEADS INCLUDED IN THE 1984 SAMPLE OF  
COLLEGES OF EDUCATION IN THE SREB STATES

| Sex    | N   | Mean  | Standard<br>Deviation | Standard<br>Error | t   |
|--------|-----|-------|-----------------------|-------------------|-----|
| Female | 38  | 27.47 | 9.26                  | 1.50              | .63 |
| Male   | 196 | 26.47 | 7.57                  | .54               | .72 |

TABLE VIII

t-TEST FOR COMPARISON OF ROLE AMBIGUITY MEANS FOR FEMALE AND  
MALE DEPARTMENT HEADS INCLUDED IN THE 1984 SAMPLE OF  
COLLEGES OF EDUCATION IN THE SREB STATES

| Sex    | N   | Mean  | Standard<br>Deviation | Standard<br>Error | t   |
|--------|-----|-------|-----------------------|-------------------|-----|
| Female | 38  | 25.50 | 8.81                  | 1.43              | .19 |
| Male   | 196 | 25.21 | 7.50                  | .50               | .21 |

result, those who did respond can be considered representative of the population.

To achieve a comparison between early respondents and tardy respondents, a t-test procedure was used comparing the mean score for role conflict and role ambiguity of early respondents (first mailing responses) to the mean score for role conflict and role ambiguity of tardy respondents (follow-up responses). The results of these t-test procedures for the difference between two means are contained in Tables IX and X.

For role conflict, the difference between the means of early respondents and tardy respondents was not significant at the .05 level. The difference between the role ambiguity means of early and tardy respondents was also found to be nonsignificant at the .05 level. Therefore, the results of the t-test was evidence that both sets of respondents were from the same population and were representative of the population.

#### Analysis of Variance

The analysis of variance procedure was used to examine the relation between role conflict and role ambiguity, dependent variables, and the perceived behavior of college of education deans and other selected independent variables. A single-factor analysis of variance was used to study the relationship between role conflict and the perceived behavior of the department head's dean as well as between role ambiguity and the perceived behavior of the department head's

TABLE IX

t-TEST FOR COMPARISON OF ROLE CONFLICT MEANS FOR EARLY AND  
TARDY RESPONDENTS INCLUDED IN THE SAMPLE OF COLLEGES  
OF EDUCATION DEPARTMENT HEADS IN THE  
SREB STATES IN 1984

| Set* | N   | Mean  | Standard<br>Deviation | Standard<br>Error | t   |
|------|-----|-------|-----------------------|-------------------|-----|
| 1    | 189 | 26.72 | 7.99                  | .58               | .39 |
| 2    | 45  | 26.74 | 7.27                  | 1.08              | .37 |

\*Set 1 = First Mailout Respondents  
Set 2 = Follow-up Respondents

TABLE X

t-TEST FOR COMPARISON OF ROLE AMBIGUITY MEANS FOR EARLY AND  
TARDY RESPONDENTS INCLUDED IN THE SAMPLE OF COLLEGES  
OF EDUCATION DEPARTMENT HEADS IN THE  
SREB STATES IN 1984

| Set* | N   | Mean  | Standard<br>Deviation | Standard<br>Error | t   |
|------|-----|-------|-----------------------|-------------------|-----|
| 1    | 189 | 25.38 | 7.95                  | .58               | .54 |
| 2    | 45  | 24.76 | 6.65                  | .99               | .48 |

\*Set 1 = First Mailout Respondents  
Set 2 = Follow-up Respondents

dean. A multifactor analysis of variance was performed for investigating the selected demographic variables simultaneously.

#### Single-Factor Analysis of Variance

A fixed effects analysis of variance with role conflict as the dependent variable was performed. Because categorization of subjects into four groups created unequal sample sizes, an unweighted means analysis was employed to maintain the orthogonality of the independent variable levels. The analysis of variance table with role conflict as the dependent variable is found in Table XI.

The level of significance chosen for the analysis of variance between the type of behavior demonstrated by college of education deans and the role conflict of department heads was .05. The analysis of variance procedure indicated that there was a significant relationship between the dean's behavior and department head's role conflict. Table XI indicates that the obtained F ratio is significant beyond the .05 level to the .0001 level.

A second single-factor analysis of variance was performed using department head role ambiguity as the dependent variable. Again, the independent variable was the type of behavior displayed by the dean. From the results of this analysis, it was concluded that a significant relationship also existed between the dean's behavior and the department head's role ambiguity. The F ratio obtained in the analysis was 16.23 which is significant at the .0001 level and exceeds the .05 level selected. Table XII summarizes the analysis of variance for role ambiguity with the department head's perception of the dean's behavior.

TABLE XI

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE TABLE FOR ROLE CONFLICT WITH TYPE OF  
DEAN'S BEHAVIOR AS PERCEIVED BY DEPARTMENT HEADS  
IN COLLEGES OF EDUCATION IN THE  
SREB STATES IN 1984

| Source                        | DF  | Sum<br>of Squares | Mean<br>Square | F     | p     |
|-------------------------------|-----|-------------------|----------------|-------|-------|
| Type of<br>Dean's<br>Behavior | 3   | 3137.53           | 1045.84        | 21.43 | .0001 |
| Error                         | 230 | 11224.86          | 48.80          |       |       |
| Corrected<br>Total            | 233 | 14362.39          |                |       |       |

TABLE XII

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE TABLE FOR ROLE AMBIGUITY WITH TYPE OF  
DEAN'S BEHAVIOR AS PERCEIVED BY DEPARTMENT HEADS  
IN COLLEGES OF EDUCATION IN THE  
SREB STATES IN 1984

| Source                        | DF  | Sum<br>of Squares | Mean<br>Square | F     | p     |
|-------------------------------|-----|-------------------|----------------|-------|-------|
| Type of<br>Dean's<br>Behavior | 3   | 2418.71           | 806.24         | 16.23 | .0001 |
| Error                         | 230 | 11427.91          | 49.69          |       |       |
| Corrected<br>Total            | 233 | 13846.62          |                |       |       |

### Multifactor Analysis of Variance

A fixed effects multifactor analysis of variance was performed using department head role conflict as the dependent variable. Eight demographic characteristics were used as the independent factors and included sex, age, education level, total work experience, level of course work offered by the department, enrollment of the department, number of instructional staff members supervised by the department head, and the number of years experience in one's present position. The F ratios calculated in the analysis are found in Table XIII.

The total work experience of a department head in a college of education was calculated as being the only significant variable. The F ratio (2.60) was significant at the .01 level. This would indicate that the total educational work experience is related to department head role conflict.

The results of the multifactor analysis of variance for role ambiguity with the same selected demographic characteristics is found in Table XIV. The .05 alpha level was again used as the level of significance. The total educational experience of the department head was noted as the only significant demographic variable at the .05 level.

The findings of the two multifactor analyses indicate that the total educational work experience is the only selected demographic variable which significantly influences both role conflict and ambiguity. When the results of the single-factor analyses and the multifactor analyses were considered, the significant factors

TABLE XIII

F RATIOS FOR THE ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR ROLE CONFLICT WITH  
 SELECTED DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES OF DEPARTMENT HEADS  
 IN COLLEGES OF EDUCATION IN THE  
 SREB STATES DURING 1984

| Variable                                | F    | p     |
|-----------------------------------------|------|-------|
| Sex                                     | .65  | N.S.* |
| Age                                     | .52  | N.S.* |
| Education Level                         | .48  | N.S.* |
| Total Educational Work<br>Experience    | 2.60 | .01   |
| Level of Course<br>Work/Department      | 1.89 | N.S.* |
| Enrollment of<br>Department             | 1.38 | N.S.* |
| Instructional Staff<br>Supervised       | 1.12 | N.S.* |
| Years Experience in<br>Present Position | 1.40 | N.S.* |

\*N.S. = Not Significant

TABLE XIV

F RATIOS FOR THE ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR ROLE AMBIGUITY WITH  
 SELECTED DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES OF DEPARTMENT HEADS  
 IN COLLEGES OF EDUCATION IN THE  
 SREB STATES DURING 1984

| Variable                                | F    | p     |
|-----------------------------------------|------|-------|
| Sex                                     | .05  | N.S.* |
| Age                                     | 2.13 | N.S.* |
| Educational Level                       | .47  | N.S.* |
| Total Educational Work<br>Experience    | 2.93 | .009  |
| Level of Course<br>Work/Department      | 1.31 | N.S.* |
| Enrollment of<br>Department             | 1.17 | N.S.* |
| Instructional Staff<br>Supervised       | .90  | N.S.* |
| Years Experience in<br>Present Position | .84  | N.S.* |

\*N.S. = Not Significant

influencing department head role conflict and role ambiguity are (1) type of behavior displayed by the dean, and (2) total educational experience of the department head.

### Multiple Comparison

Since the analysis of variance for department head role conflict and role ambiguity with the dean's behavior was significant, the Scheffe' method of multiple comparison was employed. The Scheffe' method was used so that all possible comparisons of group means could be examined in order to determine which means were contributing significantly to the relationship suggested by the analysis of variance procedure. Scheffe's test for the variable of department head role conflict is given in Table XV. From Table XV, the comparisons which contribute most significantly are comparisons between levels 3-4, 3-2, 1-2, 4-2, 2-1, and 2-4. It can be concluded that those department heads who describe their dean's behavior as low Initiating Structure and low Consideration (Group 3) experience the highest degree of role conflict. The lowest degree of role conflict was experienced by department heads who described their dean's behavior as high Initiating Structure and high Consideration (Group 2).

A second multiple comparison test using the Scheffe' test was calculated for the variable of role ambiguity. Table XVI presents the results of the Scheffe' test.

The results of the Scheffe' test indicated that eight comparisons demonstrated significant relationships between role ambiguity and dean's behavior. Department heads experienced more role

TABLE XV

SCHEFFE'S MULTIPLE COMPARISON TEST FOR ROLE CONFLICT WITH TYPE  
OF DEAN'S BEHAVIOR AS PERCEIVED BY DEPARTMENT HEADS  
IN COLLEGES OF EDUCATION IN THE  
SREB STATES IN 1984

| Department<br>Head Group<br>Comparisons | Simultaneous Lower<br>Confidence Level | Difference<br>Between Means | Simultaneous Upper<br>Confidence Interval |
|-----------------------------------------|----------------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------------------------|
| 3 - 1                                   | - 1.669                                | 2.337                       | 6.334                                     |
| 3 - 4                                   | 2.360                                  | 6.164                       | 9.967*                                    |
| 3 - 2                                   | 5.489                                  | 8.717                       | 11.944*                                   |
| 1 - 3                                   | - 6.344                                | -2.337                      | 1.669                                     |
| 1 - 4                                   | - .508                                 | 3.826                       | 8.161                                     |
| 1 - 2                                   | 2.540                                  | 6.379                       | 10.219*                                   |
| 4 - 3                                   | - 9.967                                | -6.164                      | - 2.360*                                  |
| 4 - 1                                   | - 8.161                                | -3.826                      | .508                                      |
| 4 - 2                                   | - 1.074                                | 2.553                       | 6.180                                     |
| 2 - 3                                   | -11.944                                | -8.717                      | - 5.489*                                  |
| 2 - 1                                   | -10.219                                | -6.379                      | - 2.540*                                  |
| 2 - 4                                   | - 6.180                                | -2.553                      | 1.074                                     |

\*Significant at the .05 level.

TABLE XVI

SCHEFFE'S MULTIPLE COMPARISON TEST FOR ROLE AMBIGUITY WITH TYPE  
OF DEAN'S BEHAVIOR AS PERCEIVED BY DEPARTMENT HEADS  
IN COLLEGES OF EDUCATION IN THE  
SREB STATES IN 1984

| Department<br>Head Group<br>Comparisons | Simultaneous Lower<br>Confidence Level | Difference<br>Between Means | Simultaneous Upper<br>Confidence Interval |
|-----------------------------------------|----------------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------------------------|
| 3 - 1                                   | - 2.169                                | 1.873                       | 5.916                                     |
| 3 - 4                                   | .121                                   | 3.959                       | 7.796*                                    |
| 3 - 2                                   | 4.491                                  | 7.748                       | 11.005*                                   |
| 1 - 3                                   | - 5.916                                | -1.873                      | 2.169                                     |
| 1 - 4                                   | - 2.288                                | 2.085                       | 6.459                                     |
| 1 - 2                                   | 2.001                                  | 5.875                       | 9.749*                                    |
| 4 - 3                                   | - 7.796                                | -3.959                      | .121*                                     |
| 4 - 1                                   | - 6.459                                | -2.085                      | 2.288                                     |
| 4 - 2                                   | .130                                   | 3.790                       | 7.449*                                    |
| 2 - 3                                   | -11.005                                | -7.748                      | - 4.491*                                  |
| 2 - 1                                   | - 9.749                                | -5.875                      | - 2.001*                                  |
| 2 - 4                                   | - 7.449                                | -3.790                      | - .130*                                   |

\*Significant at the .05 level.

ambiguity when the dean's behavior was described as low Initiating Structure and low Consideration (Group 3). This result was the same for role conflict. Again, department heads who reported their dean's behavior as high Initiating Structure and High Consideration (Group 2) experienced the lowest amount of role ambiguity.

When the results of both Scheffe' tests were investigated, it appeared that department heads who described their dean's behavior as low Initiating Structure and low Consideration (Group 3) experienced more role conflict and role ambiguity than the other groups. In both multiple comparison tests, the rank order of the groups was the same. Department heads who described their dean as high Initiating Structure and low Consideration (Group 1) ranked second in the degree of role conflict and ambiguity experienced. Those department heads in Group 4, dean's with low Initiating Structure and high Consideration were ranked third for the degree of both role conflict and role ambiguity experience. The group which reported the least amount of role conflict and role ambiguity was Group 2, department heads whose dean displayed high Initiating Structure and high Consideration behavior.

The final two multiple comparison tests were calculated for role conflict and role ambiguity with the independent variable of the department head's total educational experience. Tables XVII and XVIII contain the comparisons of the two Scheffe' tests which were found to be significant at the .05 level. Four comparisons were found to be significant for both role conflict and role ambiguity. The comparison of level two and level six, 6-10 years experience and 26-30 years experience, produced the greatest difference between means for both

TABLE XVII

SIGNIFICANT COMPARISONS FOR ROLE CONFLICT WITH TOTAL EDUCATIONAL  
EXPERIENCE OF DEPARTMENT HEADS IN COLLEGES OF EDUCATION  
IN THE SREB STATES IN 1984 USING THE SCHEFFE'  
METHOD OF MULTIPLE COMPARISONS

| Comparison | Simultaneous<br>Lower<br>Confidence Limit | Difference<br>Between Means | Simultaneous<br>Upper<br>Confidence Limit |
|------------|-------------------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------------------------|
| 2-6        | - .400                                    | 7.613                       | 15.625                                    |
| 5-6        | - .263                                    | 7.590                       | 15.444                                    |
| 6-2        | -15.625                                   | -7.613                      | .400                                      |
| 6-5        | -15.444                                   | -7.590                      | .263                                      |

Significant at the .05 level.

TABLE XVIII

SIGNIFICANT COMPARISONS FOR ROLE AMBIGUITY WITH TOTAL EDUCATIONAL  
EXPERIENCE OF DEPARTMENT HEADS IN COLLEGES OF EDUCATION  
IN THE SREB STATES IN 1984 USING THE SCHEFFE'  
METHOD OF MULTIPLE COMPARISONS

| Comparison | Simultaneous<br>Lower<br>Confidence Limit | Difference<br>Between Means | Simultaneous<br>Upper<br>Confidence Limit |
|------------|-------------------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------------------------|
| 2-6        | .821                                      | 8.844                       | 16.868                                    |
| 5-6        | .865                                      | 8.729                       | 16.594                                    |
| 6-2        | -16.868                                   | -8.844                      | - .821                                    |
| 6-5        | -16.594                                   | -8.729                      | - .865                                    |

Significant at the .05 level.

role conflict and role ambiguity. The difference between level two and level six for role conflict was 7.61 as compared to a difference of 8.84 for role ambiguity. The comparison of level five, 21-25 years experience with level six, 26-30 years experience, also proved to be significant for role conflict and role ambiguity. The difference between the means for role conflict and role ambiguity was 7.59 and 8.73, respectively.

#### Summary of the Results of the Data Analyses

Three stages of statistical analyses were performed on the data reported by the four groups of department heads. The t-test, analysis of variance, and multiple comparison were the selected statistical techniques used for the analyses.

The t-test was used to compare the mean scores for role conflict and role ambiguity for male and female department heads. The results indicated no significant difference for either role conflict or role ambiguity between male and female department heads. The results of the t-test between early respondents and tardy respondents for both role conflict and role ambiguity suggested that those department heads who did respond were truly representative of the population. This is indicated by the fact that there was no significant difference between the mean scores of early respondents and tardy respondents.

The analysis of variance procedure comprised the second stage of the analyses. The analysis of variance for the 234 subjects, divided into four groups on the basis of the dean's perceived behavior, indicated a significant relationship between the dean's behavior and

department head's role conflict and ambiguity. In fact, the significance exceeded the .05 level established. A significant relationship was also found to exist between the department head's total educational work experience and the role conflict and role ambiguity experienced by the department head.

The third stage of the data analyses involved the calculation of multiple comparisons for those relationships found to be significant in stage two, the analysis of variance. The multiple comparisons for the role conflict and role ambiguity of department heads according to the dean's behavior indicated significant comparisons. Department heads in Group 3, deans with low Initiating Structure and low Consideration, scored highest on both role conflict and role ambiguity. Department heads with 6-10 years total educational experience reported more role conflict and ambiguity than their colleagues. The multiple comparison technique indicated this group to have the greatest difference in mean score for both role conflict and role ambiguity.

## CHAPTER V

## SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

This chapter contains a summary of the problem under consideration in this study. The basic procedures used to investigate the problem, the results of the data analyses, and conclusions relative to the relationship between the behavior of college of education deans and the role conflict and role ambiguity experienced by department heads are presented. Implications for future research are proposed in the final section of this chapter.

## Summary

The concepts of leadership and leadership style have been discussed under various titles by almost every major organizational theorist. One common element to the majority of theories has been the suggestion of at least two types of leader behavior namely, leader behavior which emphasizes production and leader behavior which emphasizes interpersonal relations. Either of these two leader behavior orientations may be effective or ineffective depending on the situation. As a result, researchers are increasingly focusing on the importance of the match between leadership style and the situation.

Organizational research has cited the subordinate-superordinate relationship as an important situational variable to consider in organizational effectiveness. Role theory has suggested that the behavior of the leader contributes to the subordinate's perception of

his or her role in the organization. And, since the leader's behavior may be inappropriate for a given situation, the subordinate may experience role conflict and role ambiguity.

Members of complex educational organizations are exposed to a variety of role expectations and requirements. The skills and abilities of members often approach or exceed that of the administrator. In such professional, bureaucratic institutions of higher education, the influence of the dean's behavior on the department head's role perception in terms of role conflict and role ambiguity is of particular importance. Inappropriate leader behavior by deans in colleges of education can lead to a significant degree of role conflict and role ambiguity for department heads.

The major purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between the behavior of college of education deans and the role conflict and role ambiguity experienced by college of education department heads. To investigate the problem, a random sample of department heads from colleges of education with NCATE approved programs located in the SREB states was selected. Of the 339 department heads sampled, 234 participated in the study.

Three stages of data analyses were performed on the role conflict and role ambiguity data obtained from the sample of department heads. The department head role conflict and role ambiguity data were classified into four groups according to the score assigned to the dean's behavior on the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire. The t-test, analysis of variance, and multiple comparison statistical procedures were calculated for the data sets.

Comparisons were made between male and female responses on role conflict and role ambiguity in an effort to identify any significant difference between the mean scores of the two groups. In neither case, for role conflict or role ambiguity, did the t-test indicate a significant difference between the female and male responses. A comparison between early and tardy responses for both role conflict and role ambiguity indicated no difference between the two group's means. Thus, the results suggested that the sample was indeed representative of the population.

The relationship between the role conflict of the department head and the dean's behavior was analyzed. The fixed effects analysis of variance indicated a significant relationship between the department head's role conflict and the dean's behavior. The same significant results were obtained for role ambiguity using the analysis of variance technique. A multifactor analysis of variance procedure was used to study the department head's role conflict and role ambiguity relation to selected demographic characteristics of the department head. This analysis revealed only one significant relationship with the department head's total educational work experience.

To study all possible comparisons of group means in the analyses found to be significant, the Scheffe' method of multiple comparisons was computed. Six group comparisons were found significant when the department head's role conflict was compared to the dean's behavior and eight comparisons were found significant when the department head's role ambiguity was compared to the dean's behavior. In both cases, department heads in Group 3, dean's with low Initiating

Structure and low Consideration, recorded the greatest degree of role conflict and role ambiguity. The multiple comparisons of the various levels of the department head's total educational experience with role conflict and role ambiguity indicated four significant comparisons. The results indicated that department heads with 6-10 years experience, level two, experienced more role conflict and role ambiguity than their colleagues. Those department heads with 26-30 years experience also proved to have a significant difference in mean scores for role conflict and role ambiguity when compared to the mean scores of department heads at different levels of total educational experience.

### Conclusions

The results of this study represent an extension of the theories of organizational dynamics into the educational organization. Specifically, this study integrated various theories of leader behavior and leadership with role theory in an effort to inquire into the relationship between leader behavior and subordinate role conflict and role ambiguity. The specific focus of the study was the relationship between the behavior of college of education deans and the role conflict and role ambiguity experienced by department heads. An interpretation of the results of the study has led to the following conclusions:

1. The perception of role conflict and role ambiguity is the same for male and female department heads in colleges of education. The House and Rizzo (1972) finding that role ambiguity was a more

powerful variable than role conflict was not replicated. In fact, both role conflict and role ambiguity proved to be significantly related to the dean's behavior regardless of the sex of the department head.

2. The behavior of college of education deans appears to be a major factor influencing the department head's role conflict and role ambiguity. From this finding, it is inferred that candidates for deanships in colleges of education should be exposed to well planned programs in educational leadership. The training programs should enable the dean to carefully examine the expectations of role senders and focal personnel, in addition to the development of skills in staff development, teaching methods, human relations and administrative competencies.

3. The significant relationship between the behavior of college of education deans and department head role conflict and role ambiguity also suggests that a careful evaluation of the leadership style of candidates for dean positions takes place prior to the selection of the new dean.

4. The role conflict and role ambiguity of a department head was more contingent upon the particular behavior style of the dean and less contingent upon organizational and personal variables than was originally expected. Thus, regardless of the task situation, the dean's Initiating Structure and Consideration behavior had a strong influence on department head role conflict and role ambiguity.

5. The research findings did not support the influence of department size on role conflict and role ambiguity. Even though information was obtained on departmental size, actual complexities in

communication facing the individual department head may be related to factors which vary independently of department size.

6. Department heads, working in colleges of education with deans who displayed a high Initiating Structure and high Consideration, experienced lower role conflict and role ambiguity than other department heads. The results of the study indicated that department heads experienced less role ambiguity in situations where the dean was high in Consideration behavior. High Initiating Structure behavior was associated with less role conflict for department heads. It is suggested from these results that both behaviors must be considered when selecting a dean and that lower department head role conflict and role ambiguity would result from a dean with a high Initiating Structure and high Consideration behavior style.

7. The total educational work experience of the department head was found to have a significant relationship to both role conflict and role ambiguity. Department heads with more than 26 years experience reported lower role conflict and role ambiguity than their colleagues with fewer than 26 years experience. This result may infer that the possibility of retirement reduces perceived role conflict and ambiguity. Or, familiarity with the system and a large repertoire of experiences may result in lower role conflict and role ambiguity. However, department heads with fewer than five years experience also reported lower role conflict and role ambiguity than their colleagues with 6-25 years experience. It is suggested that opportunities which would normally result in role conflict and ambiguity for department

heads is viewed as an opportunity to gain visibility and recognition by less experienced department heads. The naivete' of less experienced department heads may also result in lower role conflict and role ambiguity. Department heads with 21-25 years experience reported high role conflict and role ambiguity when compared to their colleagues. It is suggested that these department heads may be experiencing "middle years crisis," in that, many changes are occurring in their personal life which are influencing their role conflict and role ambiguity. In addition, it is inferred that the department head is not yet ready to retire and is not able to leave his or her present job for another due to tenure and/or seniority. Therefore, role conflict and ambiguity is not reduced by the possibility of leaving the institution.

#### Implications for Future Research

Further research similar to this study and like that of the various theorists reviewed can produce a theory of leader behavior and role dynamics useful to organizational analysis. Besides contributing to the understanding of individual and organizational dynamics which influence deans, department heads, and entire colleges of education, such future research may yield recommendations which improve the job satisfaction of organizational members and the quality of educational services delivered. The following implications are warranted from this study:

1. A more comprehensive test of the leader behavior and subordinate role conflict and role ambiguity interaction should involve

the identification of behavioral components as independent variables within the two leader behavior styles. It is suggested that further research be conducted to validate specific leader behavior description items which are directly related to the subordinate's role perception. The development of a leader behavior description specific to higher education would be appropriate.

2. The focus of future research should be on both Initiating Structure and Consideration behavior. A pre-test/post-test examination of the influence of leader training in both Initiating Structure and Consideration on subordinate role conflict and role ambiguity should be conducted to determine the impact of such training on reducing subordinate role conflict and role ambiguity.

3. The department head's expectations often differ from the expectations of his or her dean. An effort should be made to investigate discrepancies of this type and their relationship with role conflict and role ambiguity.

4. In the design of future research, the investigator should include in the study organizational variables which are peculiar to the specific colleges, such as communication channels and informal authority patterns. Human variables should be expanded to include items such as need for clarity, introversion-extroversion, and other personality dimensions.

5. The study should be replicated with provisions made to compare department heads from the same colleges. The dean's self-description of his behavior as well as the department head's

description of the dean's behavior should be included. An analysis of the relationship between the responses could provide valuable information on role development.

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## APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

LEADER BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE

## LEADER BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE

The following statements describe specific leader behaviors. Please indicate the frequency with which your Dean engages in each form of behavior by circling one of the five adverbs:

never  
seldom  
occasionally  
often  
always

| (Copyright, 1957, by The Ohio State University)                                           | NEVER | SELDOM | OCCASIONALLY | OFTEN | ALWAYS |
|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------|--------|--------------|-------|--------|
| 1. He/she makes attitudes clear to the staff.                                             | 0     | 1      | 2            | 3     | 4      |
| 2. He/she tries out new ideas with the staff.                                             | 0     | 1      | 2            | 3     | 4      |
| 3. He/she rules with an iron hand.                                                        | 0     | 1      | 2            | 3     | 4      |
| 4. He/she criticizes poor work.                                                           | 0     | 1      | 2            | 3     | 4      |
| 5. He/she speaks in a manner not to be questioned.                                        | 0     | 1      | 2            | 3     | 4      |
| 6. He/she assigns staff members to particular tasks.                                      | 0     | 1      | 2            | 3     | 4      |
| 7. He/she works without a plan.                                                           | 4     | 3      | 2            | 1     | 0      |
| 8. He/she maintains definite standards of performance.                                    | 0     | 1      | 2            | 3     | 4      |
| 9. He/she emphasizes the meeting of deadlines.                                            | 0     | 1      | 2            | 3     | 4      |
| 10. He/she encourages the use of uniform procedures.                                      | 0     | 1      | 2            | 3     | 4      |
| 11. He/she makes sure that his/her part in the organization is understood by all members. | 0     | 1      | 2            | 3     | 4      |
| 12. He/she asks that staff members follow standard rules and regulations.                 | 0     | 1      | 2            | 3     | 4      |
| 13. He/she lets staff members know what is expected of them.                              | 0     | 1      | 2            | 3     | 4      |
| 14. He/she sees to it that staff members are working up to capacity.                      | 0     | 1      | 2            | 3     | 4      |
| 15. He/she sees to it that the work of staff members is coordinated.                      | 0     | 1      | 2            | 3     | 4      |
| 16. He/she does personal favors for staff members.                                        | 0     | 1      | 2            | 3     | 4      |
| 17. He/she does little things to make it pleasant to be a member of the staff.            | 0     | 1      | 2            | 3     | 4      |
| 18. He/she is easy to understand.                                                         | 0     | 1      | 2            | 3     | 4      |
| 19. He/she finds time to listen to staff members.                                         | 0     | 1      | 2            | 3     | 4      |
| 20. He/she keeps to him/herself.                                                          | 4     | 3      | 2            | 1     | 0      |
| 21. He/she looks out for the personal welfare of individual staff members.                | 0     | 1      | 2            | 3     | 4      |
| 22. He/she refuses to explain his/her actions.                                            | 4     | 3      | 2            | 1     | 0      |
| 23. He/she acts without consulting the staff.                                             | 4     | 3      | 2            | 1     | 0      |
| 24. He/she is slow to accept new ideas.                                                   | 4     | 3      | 2            | 1     | 0      |

|                                                                         |   |   |   |   |   |
|-------------------------------------------------------------------------|---|---|---|---|---|
| 25. He/she treats all staff members as his/her equals.                  | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 26. He/she is willing to make changes.                                  | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 27. He/she is friendly and approachable.                                | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 28. He/she makes staff members feel at ease when talking with them.     | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 29. He/she puts suggestions made by the staff into operation.           | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 30. He/she gets staff approval on important matters before going ahead. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

APPENDIX B

ROLE CONFLICT AND ROLE AMBIGUITY QUESTIONNAIRE

# ROLE CONFLICT AND ROLE AMBIGUITY QUESTIONNAIRE

The statements below are characteristics of job expectations and working conditions. Please indicate to what extent each statement describes your present position by circling one of the five response alternatives:

never  
seldom  
occasionally  
often  
always

|                                                                                       | NEVER | SELDOM | OCCASIONALLY | OFTEN | ALWAYS |
|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------|--------|--------------|-------|--------|
| 1. I have enough time to complete my work.                                            | 4     | 3      | 2            | 1     | 0      |
| 2. I feel certain about how much authority I have.                                    | 4     | 3      | 2            | 1     | 0      |
| 3. I perform tasks that are too easy or boring.                                       | 0     | 1      | 2            | 3     | 4      |
| 4. There are clear, planned goals and objectives for my job.                          | 4     | 3      | 2            | 1     | 0      |
| 5. I have to do things that should be done differently.                               | 0     | 1      | 2            | 3     | 4      |
| 6. There is a lack of policies and guidelines to help me.                             | 0     | 1      | 2            | 3     | 4      |
| 7. I am able to act the same regardless of the group I am with at the time.           | 4     | 3      | 2            | 1     | 0      |
| 8. I am corrected or rewarded when I really don't expect it.                          | 4     | 3      | 2            | 1     | 0      |
| 9. I work under incompatible policies and guidelines.                                 | 0     | 1      | 2            | 3     | 4      |
| 10. I know that I have divided my time properly.                                      | 4     | 3      | 2            | 1     | 0      |
| 11. I receive an assignment without the manpower to complete it.                      | 0     | 1      | 2            | 3     | 4      |
| 12. I know what my responsibilities are.                                              | 4     | 3      | 2            | 1     | 0      |
| 13. I have to buck a rule or policy in order to carry out my assignment.              | 0     | 1      | 2            | 3     | 4      |
| 14. I have to "feel my way" in performing my duties.                                  | 0     | 1      | 2            | 3     | 4      |
| 15. I receive assignments that are within my training and capability.                 | 4     | 3      | 2            | 1     | 0      |
| 16. I feel certain how I will be evaluated for a raise or promotion.                  | 4     | 3      | 2            | 1     | 0      |
| 17. I have just the right amount of work to do.                                       | 4     | 3      | 2            | 1     | 0      |
| 18. I work with two or more groups who operate quite differently.                     | 0     | 1      | 2            | 3     | 4      |
| 19. I know exactly what is expected of me.                                            | 4     | 3      | 2            | 1     | 0      |
| 20. I receive incompatible requests from two or more people.                          | 0     | 1      | 2            | 3     | 4      |
| 21. I am uncertain as to how my job is linked to other jobs within the organization.  | 4     | 3      | 2            | 1     | 0      |
| 22. I do things that are apt to be accepted by one person and not accepted by others. | 0     | 1      | 2            | 3     | 4      |

|                                                                                     |   |   |   |   |   |
|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---|---|---|---|---|
| 23. I am told how well I am doing my job.                                           | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 |
| 24. I receive an assignment without adequate resources and materials to execute it. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 25. There is a clear explanation for assignments.                                   | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 |
| 26. I work on unnecessary things.                                                   | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 27. I have to work under vague directives or orders.                                | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 28. I perform work that suits my values.                                            | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 |
| 29. I do not know if my work will be acceptable to my dean.                         | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

APPENDIX C

INFORMATION

## INFORMATION

Please respond to the following questions by checking the one answer which best describes you and/or your situation.

1. What is your sex?  
☐ 1) Female  
☐ 2) Male
2. What is your age?  
☐ 1) 30 or less  
☐ 2) 31 - 40  
☐ 3) 41 - 50  
☐ 4) 51 - 60  
☐ 5) 61 or more
3. What is your highest academic degree?  
☐ 1) Bachelor's  
☐ 2) Master's  
☐ 3) Doctor of Education  
☐ 4) Doctor of Philosophy  
☐ 5) Specialist  
☐ 6) Other (please specify)  

---
4. How many years have you been a professional employee in a college of education (include current and previous positions)  
☐ 1) 0 - 5  
☐ 2) 6 - 10  
☐ 3) 11 - 15  
☐ 4) 16 - 20  
☐ 5) 21 - 25  
☐ 6) 26 - 30  
☐ 7) 31 or more
5. What is the level of course work offered in your department?  
☐ 1) undergraduate only  
☐ 2) graduate only  
☐ 3) both
6. What is the full time enrollment of your department?  
☐ 1) 1 - 50  
☐ 2) 51 - 100  
☐ 3) 101 - 150  
☐ 4) 151 - 200  
☐ 5) 201 - 250  
☐ 6) 251 - 300  
☐ 7) 301 or more
7. How many professional employees (e.g., professors) are under your supervision?  
☐ 1) 0 - 5  
☐ 2) 6 - 10  
☐ 3) 11 - 15  
☐ 4) 16 or more
8. How many years have you been a professional employee in your present position?  
☐ 1) 0 - 5  
☐ 2) 6 - 10  
☐ 3) 11 - 15  
☐ 4) 16 - 20  
☐ 5) 21 - 25  
☐ 6) 26 - 30  
☐ 7) 31 or more

## VITA

Grady Stanley York was born on August 27, 1958, in Mobile, Alabama. He attended public schools in both Mobile and Montgomery, Alabama. He was graduated from Jefferson Davis High School, Montgomery, Alabama in May of 1976. In January of 1977, he enrolled at Tennessee Temple University in Chattanooga, Tennessee and received a Bachelor of Arts degree in 1980.

He was employed as Production Control and Inventory Manager for Webster Industries, Incorporated in 1980. At the same time, he began study toward the Master's degree at Auburn University, Montgomery, Alabama. He was awarded the Master of Science degree in March, 1981. After receiving the Master of Science degree, he joined the faculty at Auburn University as an adjunct instructor.

He was employed by Tennessee Temple University in the fall of 1981 as a faculty member in the Department of Psychology. He accepted a graduate assistantship at The University of Tennessee, Knoxville in 1982 and began study toward the Doctor of Education degree.

In September of 1983, he accepted the position of Administrative Assistant for Financial Affairs in the College of Education at The University of Tennessee, Knoxville. Later that year, he married the former Karen Jean Keith of Ontario, California. He received the Doctor of Education degree with a major in Educational Administration and Supervision in August of 1984.