LEADERSHIP STYLES OF ADMINISTRATIVE PERSONNEL IN THE AREA VOCATIONAL SCHOOLS IN THE STATE OF OKLAHOMA

By

LOIS FAYE HARTUNG SHARPTON

Bachelor of Science
Phillips University
Enid, Oklahoma
1962

Master of Education
Phillips University
Enid, Oklahoma
1975

Submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate College
of the Oklahoma State University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the Degree of
DOCTOR OF EDUCATION
July, 1985

LEADERSHIP STYLES OF ADMINISTRATIVE PERSONNEL

IN THE AREA VOCATIONAL SCHOOLS

IN THE STATE OF OKLAHOMA

Thesis Approved:

Linda M. Vincent
Thesis Adviser

John J. Beard

Imogene L. Land

H. Dan Smith

Kenneth St. Clair

Norman N. Durham
Dean of the Graduate College

PREFACE

The purpose of this research was to determine the leadership styles of area vocational school administrators in Oklahoma. Respondents were asked to complete a demographic data questionnaire and the Management Style Diagnosis Test. Eight hypotheses were generated to determine if professional characteristics listed on the demographic data questionnaire were significant in regard to task orientation, relationship orientation, effectiveness, and leadership style.

I wish to express my sincere appreciation to all the people who assisted me in this work. The cooperation of the administrators of the area vocational schools was tremendous. A special thanks goes to Mr. Roy Peters for his help in the process of selecting administrators to participate in the study.

Dr. Linda Vincent, my major advisor, was extremely helpful in guiding me through this endeavor. I am also thankful to the other committee members, Dr. Kenneth St. Clair, Dr. Gene Smith, Dr. Imogene Land, and Dr. John Baird for their advisement in the course of this work.

I also want to express appreciation to Mr. Todd Zdorkowski for his help with the computer analysis of the data. My husband, James Sharpton, and the rest of my family deserve my deepest appreciation for their constant support, moral encouragement, and understanding.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter Page

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The quality of an organization is often judged by the perceived success of that organization, and this is often judged by the quality of the leadership. In his book Programs for People, Roy P. Stewart (1982) referred to the quality and success of vocational-technical education in Oklahoma. According to Stewart (1982) this success has been largely due to the strong leadership which has been displayed by the administrators of vocational-technical education in Oklahoma.

In 1965 the first area vocational school for Oklahoma was established in Tulsa. With the support and encouragement of federal legislation the number of area schools and centers has expanded rapidly. In 1984 there was a total of 24 area vocational school districts with a total of 39 sites across the state (The Vo-Tech Personnel Directory 1984-85, 1984).

The Vocational Education Act of 1963 defines the term "area vocational education school" to include

1. A specialized high school used exclusively or principally for the provision of vocational education
2. The department of a high school used exclusively or principally to provide vocational education in no less than five different occupational fields
3. A technical or vocational school used exclusively or principally to provide vocational education to persons who have completed or left high school
4. The department or division of a junior or community college or university which provides vocational

> education in no less than five different occupational fields, under the supervision of the State Board, and leading to immediate employment but not necessarily leading to a baccalaureate degree (Wenrich and Wenrich, 1974, p. 140-141).

The area vocational school administrator (regardless of level) has many job functions ranging from the routine, day-to-day aspects involving school students to dealing with sources of funding, keeping laboratories and shops operating efficiently, and working with general education administrators in regard to scheduling and transportation for area students. The administrator of vocational schools must also be concerned about technological changes, manpower trends, current and projected labor force demands, unemployment, and a host of related problems and conditions which may influence policy regarding vocational education programs. The administrator of vocational and technical education programs should be both a leader and a manager.

Giammatteo and Giammatteo (1981) stated

> School administrators by virtue of the fact that they are responsible for educational institutions--their operation and their destiny--are automatically leaders (p. v).

They view the successes and failures of schools as being attributed to the skills, behaviors, characteristics, and values of the educational leaders therein.

Wenrich and Wenrich (1974) described leadership as one of the two primary functions of administration; the other function being management. They stated that

> Leadership is required in the exercise of either function but the two functions make different psychological demands upon the administrator. The <u>leadership function</u> requires the capacity to 'live ahead' of his institution; to interpret his institution's needs to the public and the public's needs to his institution; and to conceive and implement strategies for effecting changes required for his institution to fulfill its purpose. The <u>management function</u>

> requires the capacity to arrange and operate his institution in a manner which elicits an efficient and effective effort of the total membership of his institution toward its purposes. The leadership function is a stimulating, prodding and sometimes disruptive influence, while the management function has a smoothing and stabilizing influence. The first emphasizes creative planning, initiative, and future-facing boldness; the second stresses efficiency and productivity through teamwork and consideration of others (p. 90).

Doll (1972) further substantiated this view by stating that in any administrative post one should expect to serve simultaneously as a manager and a leader.

The 3-D Theory of Managerial Effectiveness developed by William J. Reddin (1970) was used in this study. Reddin (1970) stated that

> A leader is not really a manager in the formal sense. He is someone seen by others as being primarily responsible for achieving group objectives. His effectiveness is measured by the extent to which he influences his followers to achieve group objectives. When used outside the business situation the theory is referred to as the 3-D Theory of Leadership Effectiveness (p. 8).

Regardless of how administrators prefer to classify their behavior--as leader behavior or as manager behavior--there has been a considerable amount of research on leadership, management and organization done by social scientists during recent decades for the administrator to use as guidelines.

Statement of the Problem

A review of the literature indicated there was a lack of information relating to the leadership styles of area vocational school administrators in Oklahoma. The problem as defined for this study was to identify the leadership styles of area vocational school administrators in Oklahoma and to determine if a relationship exists between

the leadership styles and professional demographic data of selected area vocational school administrators in Oklahoma.

Need for the Study

There have been many research studies concerning leadership styles of administrators, but most dealt with general education administrators. Gilli (1976) noted that there was a need for a study of vocational education leadership. Oklahoma has long been considered a leader in the field of vocational education (Stewart, 1982). There seems to be insufficient information regarding the leadership styles of Oklahoma area vocational school administrators at this time. Because of the rapid growth rate of the area vocational schools in Oklahoma there would appear to be a growing need for qualified administrators. Over the next three to five years Oklahoma will be losing many of its area vocational school administrators to retirement. This study showed that 23.1 percent of the respondents were over 60 years of age. A study of the leadership styles of current administrators may help to insure that the replacement and addition of future administrators will perpetuate the excellence which has been successful in the past. It may be helpful to students of administration and to future administrators to be aware of the leadership styles of current vocational administrators in Oklahoma. Knowledge of the leadership styles of the present area vocational school administrators may identify areas of staff development needs for these types of administrators. It would seem appropriate to study the leadership styles of current area vocational school administrators to identify the selected professional and environmental factors influencing their leadership behavior.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this research was to determine the leadership styles of area vocational school administrators in Oklahoma. Respondents were also asked to provide demographic data which could be used to identify certain characteristics and backgrounds of the present administrators. The study also indicates the task orientation, relationship orientation, and effectiveness of the leadership styles.

Research Objectives

In order to determine the leadership styles of the area vocational administrators in Oklahoma, the objectives of the study were:

To determine if there are significant differences in task orientation, relationship orientation, effectiveness, and leadership style among area school administrators trained in different academic disciplines.

To determine if there are significant differences in task orientation, relationship orientation, effectiveness, and leadership style among area vocational school administrators having different ages.

To determine if there are significant differences in task orientation, relationship orientation, effectiveness, and leadership style among area vocational school administrators having different lengths of experience in their current positions.

To determine if there are significant differences in task orientation, relationship orientation, effectiveness, and leadership style among area vocational school administrators having different amounts of teaching experience.

To determine if there are significant differences in task orientation, relationship orientation, effectivenss, and leadership style among area vocational school administrators having different amounts of experience in educational administration.

To determine if there are significant differences in task orientation, relationship orientation, effectiveness, and leadership style among area vocational school administrators having different amounts of experience in administration in noneducational organizations.

To determine if there are significant differences in task orientation, relationship orientation, effectiveness, and leadership style among area vocational school administrators of various educational levels.

To determine if there are significant differences in task orientation, relationship orientation, effectiveness, and leadership style among area vocational school administrators with different number of credit hours instruction in formal management or administrative education.

Assumptions

The variables affecting the functions of the administrators are assumed to be homogeneous among the participating area vocational technical schools. It is assumed that the administrators understood the questions on the Management Style Diagnosis Test (MSDT) and answered to the best of their ability. It is further assumed that the data gathered could be utilized by the administrators to further their staff development needs.

Limitations of the Study

The scope of this study was limited to and conducted in the 24 Area Vocational School districts in Oklahoma. They were selected to provide a representative sample of area vocational-technical schools of varying sizes. All the selected schools had at least three administrators.

The administrators were asked to complete the survey concerning managerial leadership styles as set forth by Reddin (1974). Additional information concerning these administrators was sought by asking them to complete a demographic data sheet.

Implications of this study may not be applicable to area vocational schools outside of Oklahoma.

Definition of Terms

For purposes of this study, the following definitions were selected and used. The definitions which apply to the 3-D Management Style Diagnosis Test were offered by Reddin (1970).

Administrators are those individuals identified by the Oklahoma State Department of Vocational-Technical Education as being administrative personnel of independent area school districts. They held such titles as Superintendent, Assistant Superintendent, Director, etc.

Area Vocational Technical Schools (AVTS) were those schools designated by the Oklahoma State Department of Vocational Technical Education as being area school districts and sites.

Autocrat is a manager who is using a high Task Orientation and a low Relationships Orientation in a situation where such behavior is inappropriate and who is, therefore, less effective; perceived as having

no confidence in others, as unpleasant, and as interested only in the immediate task.

Basic Leadership Style is the way in which a manager behaves as measured by the amount of Task Orientation and Relationships Orientation he uses. The four basic styles are Integrated, Dedicated, Related, and Separated.

Benevolent Autocrat is a manager who is using a high Task Orientation and a low Relationships Orientation in a situation where such behavior is appropriate and who is, therefore, more effective; perceived as knowing what he wants and how to get it without creating resentment.

Bureaucrat is a manager who is using a low Task Orientation and a low Relationships Orientation in a situation where such behavior is appropriate and who is, therefore, more effective; perceived as being primarily interested in rules and procedures for their own sake, as wanting to control the situation by their use, and as conscientious.

Compromiser is a manager who is using a high Task Orientation and a high Relationships Orientation in a situation that requires a high orientation to only one or neither and who is, therefore, less effective; perceived as being a poor decision maker, as one who allows various pressures in the situation to influence him too much, and as avoiding or minimizing immediate pressures and problems rather than maximizing long-term production.

Dedicated Style is a basic style with more than average Task Orientation and less than average Relationships Orientation.

Developer is a manager who is using a high Relationships Orientation and a low Task Orientation in a situation where such behavior is appropriate and who is, therefore more effective; perceived as having

implicit trust in people and as being primarily concerned with developing them as individuals.

Deserter is a manager who is using a low Task Orientation and a low Relationships Orientation in a situation where such behavior is inappropriate and who is, therefore, less effective; perceived as uninvolved and passive or negative.

Dominant Style is the basic or managerial style a manager most frequently uses.

Executive is a manager who is using a high Task Orientation and a high Relationships Orientation in a situation where such behavior is appropriate and who is, therefore, more effective; perceived as a good motivating force who sets high standards, treats everyone somewhat differently, and prefers team management.

Integrated Style is a basic style with more than average Task Orientation and more than average Relationships Orientation.

Leaders are those individuals who are perceived by one or more others as exerting--either short- or long-term--influence, authority, or power in a given situation (Boles & Davenport, 1983, p. 107).

Leadership is a process tending toward accomplishment of a system's goals through the use of some person's or group's influence, authority, and/or power under the conditions of social exchange then prevailing in the system (Boles & Davenport, 1983, p. 107).

Leader Effectiveness (E) is the extent to which a leader influences his followers to achieve group objectives.

Leadership Style is the consistent manner in which actions are performed in helping the group move toward goal achievement in a given situation.

Management Style Diagnosis Test (MSDT) is a self-reported assessment instrument designed to identify an individual's predisposed leadership style.

Manager is a person occupying a position in a formal organization who is responsible for the work of at least one other person and who has formal authority over that person.

Managerial Effectiveness (E) is the extent to which a manager achieves the output requirements of his position, scaled from 0 to 4.

Managerial Skills are the three skills required for managerial effectiveness: situational management, situational sensitivity, and style flexibility.

Managerial Style is an assessment of the appropriateness and therefore effectiveness of a particular basic style in a situation.

Missionary is a manager who is using a high Relationships Orientation and a low Task Orientation in a situation where such behavior is inappropriate and who is, therefore, less effective; perceived as being primarily interested in harmony.

Related Style is a basic style with less than average Task Orientation and more than average Relationships Orientation.

Relationships Orientation (RO) is the extent to which a manager has personal job relationships; characterized by listening, trusting, and encouraging, scaled from 0 to 4.

Separated Style is a basic style with less than average Task Orientation and less than average Relationships Orientation.

Situational Demand is the basic style required by all dominant situational elements in order for managerial effectiveness to be increased.

Supporting Style is the basic or managerial style a manager uses next most frequently after the dominant style.

Task Orientation (TO) is the extent to which a manager directs his own and his subordinates' efforts characterized by initiating, organizing, and directing, scaled from 0 to 4.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

In order to further explain the role of area vocational schools a review of literature concerning the background of vocational education is included in this study. Although there are many studies dealing with the broad area of leadership, the review presented in this study was restricted to a selected group of research studies. Another area explored was that of educational administration. A discussion of the 3-D Theory of Managerial Effectiveness is also included in the review of literature. The topics in this chapter include History of Vocational Education, Leadership/Leadership Styles, Educational Administration, and 3-D Theory of Managerial Effectiveness.

History of Vocational Education

According to Barlow (1967), Evans & Herr (1978), Ruley (1971), and Wenrich and Wenrich (1974), the national economy has had a significant influence on vocational education. The following discussion was formulated from views of the above-mentioned references.

Vocational education had its beginning in the United States with the Morrill Act of Congress in 1862. This act provided for the establishment of agricultural and mechanical colleges. There is little evidence to indicate that the writers of this law realized what kinds of schools might result.

Many states began to have programs to teach agricultural and industrial trades in the schools. Some of these efforts were made in public schools but most were in private trade schools. There was some conflict about what should be taught and where it should be taught. Despite the conflict of opinion concerning trade education, necessity forced the issue, demanding attention and action.

One of the most significant developments in gathering forces for vocational education was the Douglas Commission study done in Massachusetts in 1906. Massachusetts was one of the most influential states to recognize the need for vocational education. In 1905 a law was passed authorizing the appointment, by Governor Douglas, of a commission to study the need for "education in the different grades of skill and responsibility in the various industries of the Commonwealth" (Wenrich and Wenrich, 1974, p. 45). It was suggested by Barlow (1967) that vocational education in the United States had its greatest boost in Massachusetts with the report of the Douglas Commission. This report caused influential vocational educators to think of manual training as only one aspect of a larger problem of vocational education. American industry needed mechanics. If manual training was not producing them, then some educational agency would have to do so. Other states were involved in similar activities. The National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education was organized, and in 1906 vocational education became a national movement.

In 1914 Congress was persuaded to enact a resolution creating the Commission on National Aid to Vocational Education. Although the Commission recognized the need for vocational education for many different kinds of occupations, attention was centered on that kind of vocational

education that would prepare workers for common occupations which employed the greatest number of workers. The earliest and most widely accepted objective of vocational education was to provide a mechanism for meeting the needs of the local community for skilled workers. "Vocational education in the United States, unlike general education, was initiated largely on the basis of a national concern" (Wenrich and Wenrich, 1974, p.101).

Between the years 1917 and 1963 numerous federal acts were passed expanding the range of occupational areas to be served. Wenrich and Wenrich (1974) stated that "vocational education can be defined in terms of the range of occupations with which it is concerned" (p. 15). Vocational education has held as its first purpose the preparation of individuals for initial or changed employment. The occupations for which people have been prepared have excluded those occupations that generally require a baccalaureate degree. Programs in the fields of agriculture education, business and office education, health occupations, home economics education, marketing and distributive education, and trade and industrial education are included. As time has gone on, the number of occupations included has been expanded, the population of students served has increased, and the objectives to be accomplished have broadened (Bjorkquist, 1982, p. 29). The Smith-Hughes Act of 1917 limited vocational education to agriculture, home economics, and the trade and industrial occupations. Most of the instruction was provided on the secondary level for high school youth and adults. The Smith-Hughes Act appropriated $5,000 per year to each state for vocational education through 1923. After 1923 each state received $10,000 a year for vocational agriculture, home economics, trade and industrial

education. This was the first act to provide teacher training. The Smith-Sears Act of 1918 was the first vocational rehabilitation legislation. This was to help rehabilitate the veterans of World War I. The Smith-Fess Act of 1920 provided vocational rehabilitation for civilians. This was for people who were hurt in industry and needed rehabilitation (Bjorkquist, 1982). The George-Reed Act of 1929 authorized additional funds for vocational home economics and vocational agriculture education. In 1934, the George-Ellzey Act extended the provisions of the Smith-Hughes and George-Reed Acts. It appropriated funds for trade and industrial education. The George-Deen Act of 1937 further extended the earlier acts to include distributive education. In 1946, the George-Barden Act authorized increased appropriations for programs specified in earlier acts and provided more flexibility in the use of these funds.

Area vocational schools, by including both secondary and post-secondary levels of vocational education, occupy an interstitial position in the national framework of vocational education. Area vocational schools have grown in number largely as a result of federal legislation affecting vocational education (Wenrich & Wenrich, 1974).

The first urging to construct regionalized vocational institutions came in 1958 under the impetus of the National Education Defense Act. This act provided for technical training and guidance service. Major funding to implement this construction did not come, however, until passage of the Vocational Education Act of 1963.

The Vocational Education Act of 1963 was enacted (1) to extend programs previously authorized and to develop new programs, (2) to encourage research and experimentation, and (3) to provide work-study

programs to encourage youth to continue in vocational programs. The act also authorized funds for the construction of area vocational facilities. This act looked at the student interest, occupational choice, training and retraining of youth and adults.

The Vocational Education Act of 1963 (U. S. Congress, 1963) removed all restrictions as to occupational categories, stating

> The term 'vocational education' means vocational or technical training or retraining which is given in schools or classes under public supervision and control or under contract with a State board or local educational agency and is conducted as a part of a program designed to prepare individuals for gainful employment as semiskilled or skilled workers or technicians or sub-professionals in recognized occupations and in new and emerging occupations or to prepare individuals for enrollment in advanced technical education programs... (PL 88-210, p. 406).

The only exclusion stipulated in the act was

> ...any program to prepare individuals for employment in occupations which the Commissioner (of Education) determines and specified by regulations, to be generally considered professional or which requires a baccalaureate or higher degree (PL 88-210, p. 410).

Another significant difference between the Vocational Education Act of 1963 (U. S. Congress, 1963) and earlier Federal acts is that the purpose of the act is defined, not in terms of occupational categories, but rather in terms of people to be served. The act reads

> ...so that persons of all ages in all communities of the State--those in high school, those who have completed or discontinued their formal education and are preparing to enter the labor market, those who have already entered the labor market but need to upgrade their skills or learn new ones, those with special educational handicaps, and those in postsecondary schools--will have ready access to vocational training or retraining which is of high quality, which is realistic in light of actual or anticipated opportunity for gainful employment, and which is suited to their needs, interest, and ability to benefit from such training (PL 88-210, p. 418).

The Vocational Education Amendments of 1968 did away with all other acts between 1917 and 1963. This far-reaching legislation established advisory committees, certification (standards, qualifications), teacher training, administration and supervision, program approval, building construction, and evaluation. The Vocational Education Amendments of 1968 authorized Federal grants to the states to assist them to maintain, extend, and improve existing programs of vocational education. These amendments developed new programs of vocational education, and provided part-time employment for youths who need the earnings from such employment to continue their vocational training on a full-time basis. It also designated that those persons who were eligible to receive vocational education as stadted in the 1963 act would continue to be able to participate in vocational education. The amendments also stated that the handicapped would receive ten percent of the total funds and the disadvantaged would receive fifteen percent.

The Education Amendments of 1972 created a Bureau of Occupational and Adult Education in the U. S. Office of Education, which included a community college unit. In 1975 Public Law 94-142 was enacted. It stated that there should be education for all handicapped children in the least restrictive environment. The 1976 amendments furthered the cause of students with special needs. It reappropriated funds for the 1963 and 1968 amendments and brought to focus sex equity. In 1984 the Carl Perkins Vocational Education Act was signed by President Reagan. The intent of this act was to amend the Vocational Education Act of 1963 to strengthen and expand the economic base of the Nation, develop human resources, reduce structural unemployment, increase productivity, and strengthen the Nation's defense capabilities by assisting the states

to expand, improve, and update high-quality programs of vocational technical education. The impact of this act will be seen in the funding process and the emphasis of business in the role of advisory council.

Contemporary vocational education is characterized by its inclusion of individuals with various handicaps and those who are at a disadvantage to learn in a typical setting. Objectives of vocational education have been broadened to include exploration of personal characteristics and the occupations for which they are suited. In some instances vocational education is intended to prepare individuals to enter an advanced vocational program beyond the beginner's level, in addition to preparing individuals for initial entry into the labor market or for the renewal of employed workers (Bjorkquist, 1982, p. 29).

> Today, it should be recognized that the needs of the nation and of society as a whole are as important or more important. Industry, government, the schools, and indeed all institutions of society require trained people if they are to survive (Evans and Herr, 1978, p. 9).

Leadership/Leadership Styles

A sizable and growing body of literature deals with the topic of leadership. Of the several kinds of inquiry in the field, the most venerable centers on the personal and behavioral traits of individual leaders. Early studies of leadership focused upon characteristics of the individual. Attempts were made to determine if certain traits of personality, intelligence, physique or perception were either necessarily associated with those who lead or could be used to distinguish those who might become leaders (Stogdill, 1974).

Dilworth (1977) reported that as early as 1883 Francis Galton studied the traits of men he deemed to be manifestly successful in positions of authority and compared them to traits observed in men of lower socioeconomic status. This theory, sometimes called the "Great Man Theory" (Stogdill, 1974) states that a leader is endowed with superior qualities that differentiate him from his followers. It has been suggested that the problem with this theory is that those qualities can not seem to be identified. The trait approach tended to treat personality variables in an atomistic fashion, suggesting that each trait acted singly to determine leadership effects. Despite the determination of researchers to fully explore the relationships, evidence is clear that leaders do not possess common characteristics, traits, or consistent patterns thereof. Nor is it possible to predict potential for leadership on the basis of personality, intelligence, stature, or scholarship (Firth, 1976). Such inquiries have since been cultivated; the study of leader traits continues to the present day.

Barnard (1949) refers to leadership as "the quality of the behavior of individuals whereby they guide people or their activities in organized effort" (p. 83). This was the same concept used by Stewart (1982) to describe the leadership qualities of vocational administrators in Oklahoma. Giammatteo and Giammatteo (1981) stated that "leadership is the activity of helping others work toward common goals or purposes" (p. 2). "Leadership has several aspects, each of which contributes to school competence and to school excellence" (Sergiovanni, 1984, p. 6).

Throughout history good educational leadership has been the focus of intense interest, controversy, and speculation. Disappointed by

their search for traits of the leader, researchers next sought to identify particular styles of leadership as clues for individual effectiveness. For many decades researchers have been studying leadership and leadership styles to try to determine what makes a leader a leader.

The earliest attempts to categorize the characteristic manners in which leaders behave seem to have been made during the early years of the Twentieth Century. Those attempts were little regarded for a considerable period of time but have been renewed in the past three decades by a variety of researchers and writers from a number of academic disciplines.

Weber in 1922 gave one of the the earliest descriptions of style. He discussed selected behaviors of leaders as to whether their authority was traditional, bureaucratic, or charismatic. The word "charisma" seems to have been introduced by Weber. Weber's assumption apparently was that a leader functioned according to the source of his authority. The traditional style was described as autocratic and perhaps capricious, and the charismatic was considered to have a mystic quality. It seems clear that he preferred, and believed that the future belonged to those who exhibited, a "bureaucratic" style (Weber & Weber, 1955). His classic outline of administrative functions in a bureaucracy included:

1. Fixed and official jurisdictional areas which are regularly ordered by rules, laws, or administrative regulations.

2. Principles of hierarchy and levels of graded authority that ensure a firmly ordered system of superordination and subordination in which higher officials supervise lower ones.

3. Administration based upon written documents; the body of officials engaged in handling these documents and files, along with other material apparatus, made up a "bureau" or "office."

4. Administration by full-time officials who are thoroughly and expertly trained.

5. Administration by general rules which are quite stable and comprehensive (Boles and Davenport, 1983, p.233).

According to Silver (1983), Weber's theory of bureaucracy has been the most extensively examined, discussed, criticized, and researched of all theories in the literature of formal organizations. Due to its vast scope, not only sociologists but also political scientists, philosophers, social psychologists, and educators are attracted to Weber's theory.

The first major research which undertook to study leadership as a two-way process of interaction between leader and followers was published by Lewin and Lippitt in 1938. This experiment was designed to explore the effects of democratic and authoritarian group atmospheres upon the behavior of the group members (Stogdill, 1974). Lewin maintained that human behavior is a function of the individual's personality or needs in interaction with the social and psychological forces in that individual's environment. The research studies done by Lewin, Lippitt, and White at the University of Iowa in the 1930's (Lippitt & White, 1947) made use of synthetic styles of behavior used by adults in supervising the activities of children. They were considered synthetic because the behaviors were not the normal behaviors of the supervisors; they behaved as they were instructed to behave.

From the time of Lewin, Lippitt, and White's earliest studies of supervisory style, there has been an implicit notion that leaders should be democratic in nature. Boles and Davenport (1983) stated that

> In the United States, particularly, there have been repeated efforts to equate democratic leadership with the Protestant ethic. Any other style must, of course, be wrong in a nation that prides itself on allowing its citizens the greatest freedom on earth! (p. 17).

As Argyris (1957) pointed out, the very idea of a leader-follower hierarchy conflicts with the democratic philosophy. Fuel was added to the "democratic is right" evangelistic fires by Likert's (1958, 1967) studies done at the University of Michigan in which it was ascertained that, for certain groups in certain situations, democratic style indeed was productive and group members had higher morale when supervised under such a style than when subjected to other styles. Killian (1966, pp. 31-36), in discussing "Keys to Improved Leadership," was assuming that, to improve effectiveness, a leader's style must be democratic. Many other writers have made similar assumptions.

Tead (1935) has stood almost alone in warning that there are some very real weaknesses in the democratic style--and virtually no one seems to have listened to him. As a result, the literature of leadership since the 1930's has been heavily overbalanced with normative prescriptions to the effect that to be effective, a leader must behave in democratic fashion. This has been the case despite overwhelming contradictory evidence from history and from observation of contemporary life. Bennis and Slater (1968) made a convincing argument that democracy is inevitable in all phases of life and in all human societies. Gibb (1968) stated that contrary to common belief, a democratic style of leadership may only be the most effective leadership in situations that are moderately favorable to leadership. It has been found that the authoritarian leadership style is expected by followers in many situations, and this style is considered most effective in attaining

group objectives when circumstances are either highly favorable or highly unfavorable for leadership. An adequate theory of leadership style must explain all styles exhibited either currently or historically. Certainly not all are or have been democratic (Gibb, 1968).

The first attempt to relate style to the situation in which a leader functions with a group seems to have been by LaPiere (1938). He discussed fourteen types of situations and implied that there was a distinctive leadership style most appropriate for each. He did not develop descriptors for those styles, and his underlying assumption seems to have been that a leader could consciously vary his manner of behaving to fit the situation.

Getzels and Guba (1957) stated that in the equation of behavior to a function of role and personality (B = f[R x P]), "P and R are maximized or minimized as the situation requires" (p. 428). This is based upon the theory that leadership is a social process in which behavior is conceived as a function of both the individual and the institution. In this model leadership is structurally the hierarchy of subordinate-superordinate relationships within a social system, and functionally the locus for allocating and integrating roles and facilities in order to achieve the goals of the social system. The proportion of role and personality factors determining behavior will vary greatly from one situation to another.

In discussing how his theory was developed, Fiedler (1967) stated: "We tried to develop a taxonomy that would meaningfully cluster group situations on the basis of the leadership style they seemed to require" (p. 133). The key situational elements or dimensions in his approach are power of leader, degree of structure of task, and leader-member

relations. As far as Fiedler was concerned, the most favorable situation in which a leader can influence his group is one in which these conditions exist: high position power, high task structure, and high leader-member relations. He stated that task-oriented leaders perform best when they have either high or low leader power; when leader power is moderate, relationship-oriented leaders tend to perform better. Fiedler, however, advocated that leaders seek situations to which their styles are suited. Particularly in his later works, he has questioned whether a leader is able to vary his style much, or to learn a new style (Nystrand, 1981).

The life-cycle theory of Hersey and Blanchard (1969) sorts situations according to three maturity levels of the organization members, and identifies a task-relationship orientation considered by the authors to be most suitable to each. They, too, advocate the leader finding a situation to which her/his style is suited.

Different styles of leadership develop different climates and patterns of achievement in the same group or in similar groups. Evidence indicates that the leadership style perceived as effective is that which is consonant with the nature and expectations of the group to be led. This consideration of leadership style in association with the performance of functions by group members led to examination of the interaction between group members and the leader. Among those taking this approach was group of investigators at the Ohio State University who, under the auspices of the Personnel Research Board, developed the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ). Shartle (1956), Stogdill and Coons (1957), and others used the instrument with military, business, and industrial leaders and Halpin (1959)

used it with school superintendents. Items in the instrument were related to "consideration," or concern for people, and to "initiating structure," or concern for organizational tasks. In a number of studies in which these two dimensions were used, the effective leaders were those who scored high on both dimensions. The instrument subsequently was used by a number of other investigators in a variety of settings and underwent several modifications in the process. As reported by Brown (1967), the LBDQ 12 was used with school principals, but the descriptors were virtually unchanged. In most of the studies, "real" behavior was compared to "ideal" behavior.

McGregor (1953) sees a basic conflict between the needs of the worker and the needs of the organization. He believes that neither can achieve all it wishes but that moving toward this state should be an objective for managers. McGregor bases some of his key ideas on Maslow's need theory (Reddin, 1970). McGregor, like Maslow, suggests that man today has to a large extent satisfied his security needs. This being so, management must focus on worker's higher-order needs; in brief, autonomy and esteem, not cash. Workers motivated by higher-order needs will tend toward self-control and tend to be responsive to Theory Y leadership. McGregor's X-Y Theory is essentially a set of two types of assumptions which managers may have about people. McGregor's description of Theory X assumptions essentially shows man to be a lazy beast. Theory X assumes that people dislike work and must be coerced, controlled, and directed toward organizational goals. Furthermore, most people prefer to be treated this way so they can avoid responsibility. This assumption leads, McGregor claims, to centralized decision making, tight control

procedures, and marked status and power differences. This assumption leads also to the belief that people are motivated either by material gain or punishment.

Theory Y--the integration of goals--emphasizes the average person's intrinsic interest in his work, his desire to be self-directing and to seek responsibility, and his capacity to be creative in solving business problems. Theory Y has deservedly attracted much attention, both positive and negative. McGregor's Theory Y is based upon the results of motivational research. McGregor (1953) states

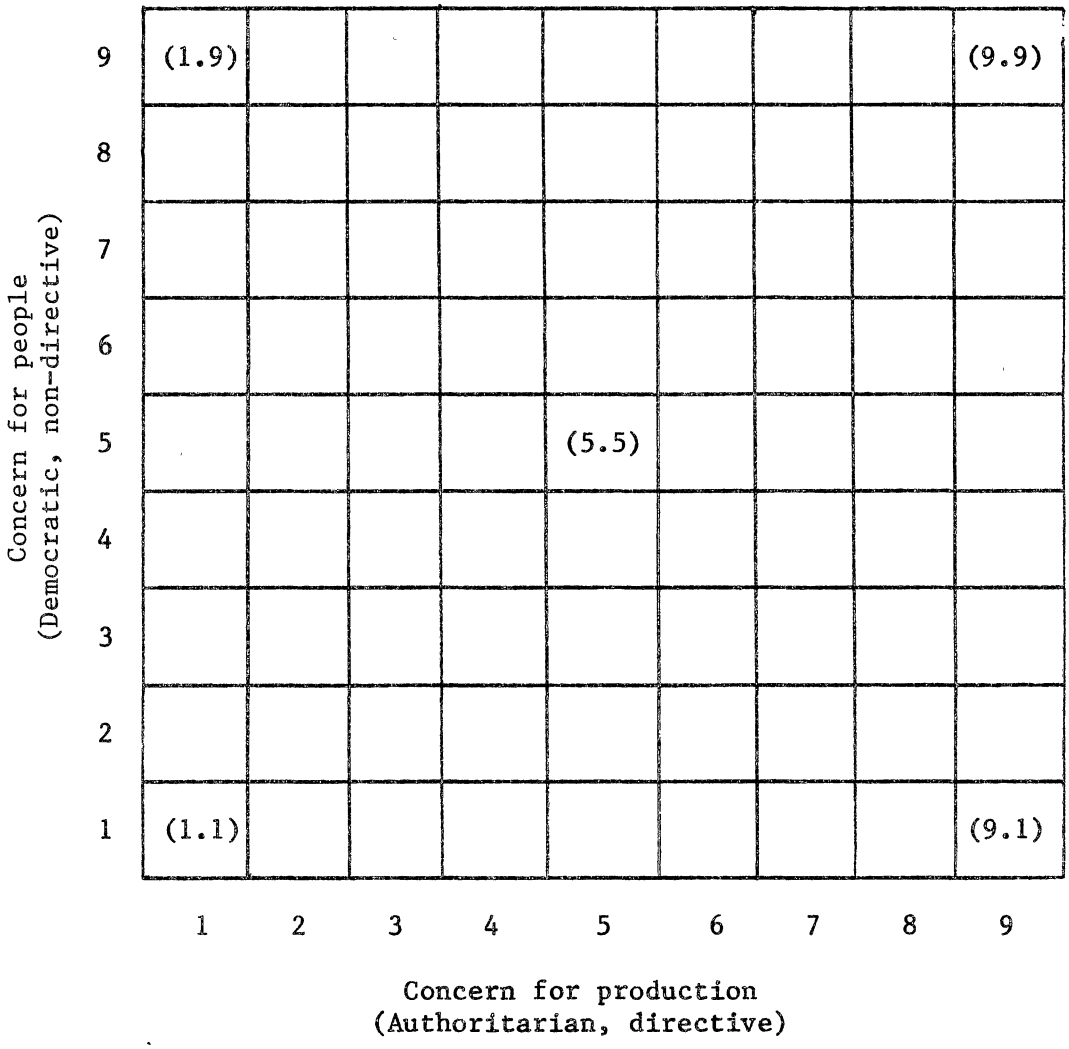
> Man is a wanting animal--as soon as one of his needs is satisfied, another appears in its place. This process is unending. It continues from birth to death. Man continuously puts forth effort--works, if you please--to satisfy his needs (p. 36).

One of the newer theories to be developed by students of management and organization is called Theory Z. "It carefully avoids the ideological traps of either X or Y. It sees man as a situationist and as one open to both good and evil" (Reddin, 1970, p. 39). The Theory Z administrator is a coordinator rather than a buffer, a relayer of job-related information rather than an information block, an encourager of participation in decision making and problem solving rather than an advocate of subservient obedience to orders from higher up.

Blake's five-style grid theory, like McGregor's theory, is a managerial-style model with an ideal style. Blake and Mouton (1964) developed the conceptual framework for the grid assuming there is an unnecessary dichotomy in the minds of most administrators about their concern for people and concern for products. The authors assume that people and production concerns are complementary and that these concerns must be integrated to achieve efficient and effective performance.

Blake uses numbers as a notational device rather than names. There are 81 possible positions on the grid; five of these are the most commonly discussed, as shown in Figure 1. The 1.1 point is sometimes called the dropout position. A leader with this type of score would show low concern for people and for production, while the 9.1 leader is primarily concerned with production task accomplishment and has little, if any, concern for people. This person wants to meet schedules and get the job done at all costs. The 1.9 style reflects a minimal concern for production coupled with a maximal concern for people. The leader who fits the 5.5 position is a middle-of-the-road type who compromises between concern for people and concern for production by showing moderate interest in both. The 9.9 style is viewed as the ideal approach for integrating a maximum concern for production with a maximum concern for people. This leader regards the administrator's job as that of coach, advisor, and consultant. (Freed and Shepherd, 1983, p. 10) The 9.9 style is related to improvements in productivity, cost and timeliness of output. The 9.9 style of leadership is strongly recommended for organizational effectiveness. Like McGregor, Blake recognizes the importance of the situation but he does not emphasize technological demands to any extent.

Another recent approach to leadership theory is that of Vroom and Yetton (1973), who developed a model to guide decision making. They set forth a taxonomy of decision-making modes which a leader can employ. These range from making a unilateral decision through consulting with others to effort to achieve consensus and delegating the problem. In choosing one of these modes, the authors say the leader should be guided by characteristics of the particular problem situation.



Source: Blake, Mouton, and Bidwell, "Managerial Grid," Advanced Management Office Executive (September, 1962).

Figure 1. The Managerial Grid

Among the problem attributes to be considered are the extent to which the leader possesses sufficient information to make a good decision unilaterally, the extent to which subordinates have necessary information, the importance of subordinate commitment to effective implementation, the likelihood that an autocratic decision would be accepted, and the extent to which subordinates are likely to disagree about preferred solutions. Vroom and Yetton then suggest a set of decision rules by which a leader can choose a decision-making mode for a given problem according to the particular attributes of this situation and whether the leader wants to maximize decision quality, subordinate acceptance, and/or time efficiency in the process.

Most research in the 1950's and early 1960's focused on leader behavior almost to the exclusion of situational variables. While much effort was devoted to trying to establish the relative efficiency of behavior modes such as democratic vs. autocratic, employee vs. job centeredness, initiating structure vs. consideration, and people vs. production orientation, the results made it apparent that there is no one mode of leadership which is better for all situations (Hill and Hughes, 1974). This was further substantiated by Gates, Blanchard, and Hersey (1976). Their comment was "The evidence from research clearly indicates that there is no single all-purpose leadership style" (p. 348). Abrell (1979) stated that

> Although a best or most effective style of leadership remains tantalizingly aloof, there is wide agreement among well-informed educators that (a) leadership at all levels is growing periously more difficult and (b) we must somehow come by an improved quality of leadership which is equal to the problems of the present and future (p. 280).

From all these studies of the leader we can conclude, with reasonable certainty, that: (a) there are either no general leadership traits or,

if they do exist, they are not to be described in any of our familiar psychological or common-sense terms; and (b) in a specific situation, leaders do have traits which set them apart from followers, but what traits set what leaders apart from what followers will vary from situation to situation.

Educational Administration

Educational administration was defined by Doll (1972) "as the tasks and processes involved in heading an educational organization whose two chief dimensions are executive management and leadership" (p. 3). In this concept leadership can be defined as a function requiring human behaviors which help a school achieve its constantly changing purposes, some of which are oriented toward productivity or task-performance and others of which are oriented toward interpersonal relationships, within the school's own social climate and conditions. Sergiovanni (1984) noted that leadership has several aspects which contribute to school competence and to school excellence. One might say that management skills are needed in leading, and that leadership skills are needed in managing.

Ruley (1971) views a good educational administrator as one who:

> ...supplies initiative, experience, and personality to the school community and is cognizant of individual needs and ideas. He must be able to work well with others, whether participating in a small planning session or functioning as the head of a larger group. He must be aware of his responsibility to improve the community of which he is a part, and able to assist groups in arriving at effective conclusions and courses of action (p. 30).

Weber and Weber (1955) further substantiated this by stating

> Educational leadership should be skillful in making inquiry; skillful in analyzing situations in which leadership is to function; skillful in discovery of attitudes, beliefs, and

> commitments of members of groups; skillful in discovery of facts and information pertinent to the solution of problems faced by groups; skillful in mobilizing attitudes, beliefs, facts, and information to develop plans of action; and skillful in utilizing the abilities of members of the group (p. 128).

Halpin (1959), in his study of school superintendents observed the administrator, as the officially designated leader in charge of the school organization, as being confronted by two major sets of responsibilities. The administrator is responsible to the board of education, but also must be responsive to the members of the professional staff. Both reference groups, the board and the staff, impose upon the administrator expectations of how a leader should behave. In the area of vocational education Gilli (1976) noted that "leadership in vocational education may be described in terms of the relationship between the leader and the faculty and lower level administrators" (p.23).

Polk (1969) did a study to ascertain whether there are characteristics which are present to a greater degree in top-ranking directors of area vocational technical schools as compared to those who are not so ranked. He found a high and positive relation between vocational education as graduate preparation and rated success as a local director of an area vocational technical school indicating that factors in an individual's educational background are related to success in this field. Another finding was a positive relation between rated success and membership in five or more professional organizations indicating that the degree of involvement in professional organizations should be considered in the identification of potentially successful local directors. Polk also concluded that experience in the administration of vocational education would be a useful variable in selecting potentially successful local directors.

Bryant (1983) conducted a study comparing the leadership behavior style, leadership style range and leadership effectiveness of female administrators and teachers in vocational education. The findings of Bryant's study showed there were no differences in the frequency of use of the four leadership styles, identified by the Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description instrument, between the teachers and the administrators. Both groups of women used high task/high relationship as their predominant leadership style. There was a difference, however, between the two groups of women in their use of style range. A greater percentage of administrators used all four leadership styles more often than did the teachers. Leadership effectiveness was not influenced by personal or employment factors. However, women with advanced degrees exhibited effective leadership behavior more often than those with the baccalaureate degree only.

The phenomenon of administration may be viewed as the product of a particular school of philosophy, namely, realism, which is based upon the Aristotelian doctrine of forms. Administration is principally an attempt to order and regulate some process. Many of the moral and social problems unresolved by our society are being delegated to the public school. The ultimate responsibility for solutions to such problems frequently resides with the administrator (Trusty, 1971).

The effectiveness of a particular leadership technique depends in part upon its acceptance by the faculty and staff. The most efficient and desirable technique, authoritarian or democratic, depends to a large extent on the expectations of the faculty and lower level administrators. Firth (1976) stated that

> Effective leadership is the product of multiple conditions within an organization. To be effective, leadership must

> be both consistent with organizational expectations and beneficial to organizational goals (p. 328).

Rogers (1969) expressed the view that the

> ...educational administrator who follows the usual pattern in carrying responsibility for his school sees his task as that of harnessing the energy of faculty and students so that the goals and requirements of the educational system will be met (p. 206).

He suggests that the effective administrator works with these persons toward making the educational goals of the school their goals as well as the administrator's. Reddin (1970) suggests that another explanation of effectiveness would appear to lie in the extent to which a manager's style, his combination of task and relationships orientation, fits the style demands of the situation.

Daves (1983) found that no one leadership approach was ranked first by all of the administrators for all circumstances. This study was done with nonpublic school administrators of the upper midwest. It was found that the most often used leadership approach, regardless of the school size or the sex of the administrator, was the situational approach. The power approach was the least often used leadership approach. It was concluded that some of today's educational leaders are willing to change their leadership approaches and possibly their leadership styles to meet the leadership needs as they occur.

The question of whether theory has practical implications is sometimes raised with regard to the leadership responsibility of administrators. Skeptics point to the great range of problems and duties which confront an administrator on a given day. These activities are accompanied by a wide variety of expectations as to how the administrator should cope with them. Teachers, parents, students, and supervisors often disagree between and among themselves about how the

administrator should act. This sometimes produces a maze of conflicting demands and pressures upon the administrator. The organizational environment presents further complications because it is ambiguous in some respects but specific in others. There are ambiguities in power relationships also. The above combination of factors has led some observers to suggest that the administrator has one of the most complex and stressful jobs in modern society (Nystrand, 1981).

3-D Theory of Managerial Effectiveness

Almost as venerable as the research on traits is the scholarship on management theory. Management theory treats the relationship between the leader and the organizational goals, and defines effective leadership in terms of successful accomplishment of goals. Recommended leadership techniques and methods are thus induced from successful achievement of goals, not derived from the seemingly hit or miss methods of social psychologists (Dilworth, 1977). Reddin (1970) identified and clearly described four basic leadership styles and eight managerial styles which relate the personality elements of task concern and people concern to the demands of the situation. He states that "effectiveness is the central issue in management" (p. vii). Hershey (1975) identified Reddin as one of the first behavioral scientists to add the effectiveness dimension to leadership theory.

The 3-D Theory of Managerial Effectiveness is based on a concept discovered in a long series of research studies conducted by psychologists in the United States. They discovered that there are two main elements in managerial behavior; the task to be done and relationships with other people. Reddin called these Task Orientation (TO) and

Relationships Orientation (RO). They also found that managers sometimes emphasized one and sometimes emphasized the other, and that these two elements of behavior could be used in small or large amounts. For instance, a manager could be very much task oriented, or only a small amount. Also, both behaviors could be used together (the 3-D term is integrated style), task could be used alone (dedicated style), relationships could be used alone (related style), or each could be used only to a small degree (separated style). The four basic styles are arranged as shown in Figure 2. The TO and RO along the sides stand for Task Orientation (TO) and Relationships Orientation (RO), respectively. These four basic styles represent four types of behavior. Not all types of managerial behavior will fit neatly into these four types, but they are very useful as a general framework. A clear set of indicators and characteristics for each type has been developed which enables each style to be fully understood. Definitions for these four styles can be found on pages 8-11 in Chapter I and are shown graphically in Figure 2.

Reddin (1970) stated

> It is important to remember that the four basic styles are a convenience and not a fact. The lines separating the four styles do not really exist; they were drawn to make it easier to talk about behavior. No one, therefore, is pigeonholed when called "related" or something else. The term, as with any style label, means more like that style than like any other style--only that (p. 27).

Further research conducted by Reddin (1970) at several universities established that any of these four basic styles of behavior can be effective in certain situations and not effective in others. None of the styles are more or less effective in themselves. Their effectiveness depends on the situation in which they are used.

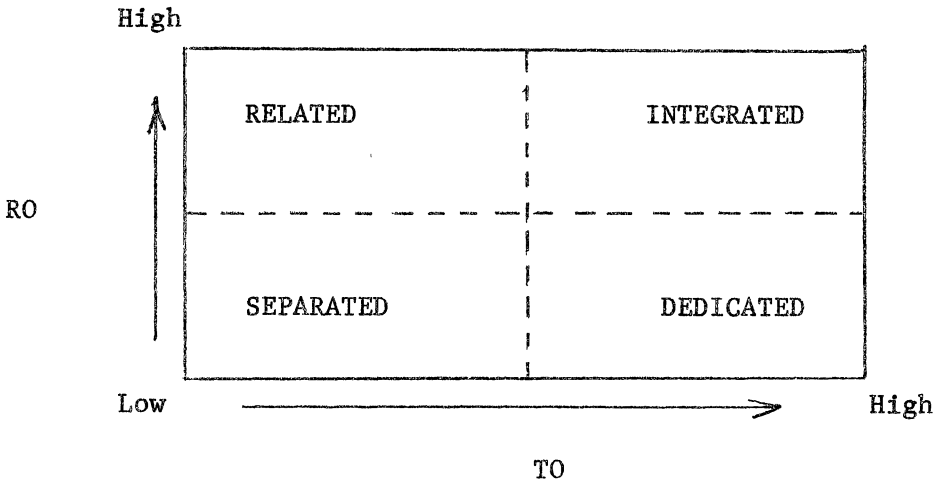


Figure 2. Basic Leadership Styles

Each of the four basic styles has a less effective equivalent and a more effective equivalent, resulting in eight managerial styles. These labels are shown in Table I. For example, when the high Task Orientation of the dedicated basic style is used inappropriately, the 3-D name given to it is "autocrat." When used appropriately, the name used instead is "benevolent autocrat."

These eight managerial styles then are not eight additional kinds of behavior. They are simply the names given to the four basic styles when used appropriately or inappropriately.

The eight managerial styles can be arranged around the four basic styles by using a third dimension of effectiveness as shown in Figure 3. The four basic styles are in the center, the four less effective equivalents at the left, and the four more effective equivalents at the right. The third dimension is effectiveness. Managerial effectiveness is measured by the extent to which a manager achieves the output requirements of his position.

Some managers have learned that to be effective they must sometimes create an atmosphere which will induce self-motivation among their subordinates and sometimes act in ways that appear either hard or soft. At other times, they must quietly efface themselves for a while and appear to do nothing. It would seem more accurate to say, then, that any basic style may be used more or less effectively, depending on the situation. The manager may change his behavior style several times within the course of a day, depending on the situation.

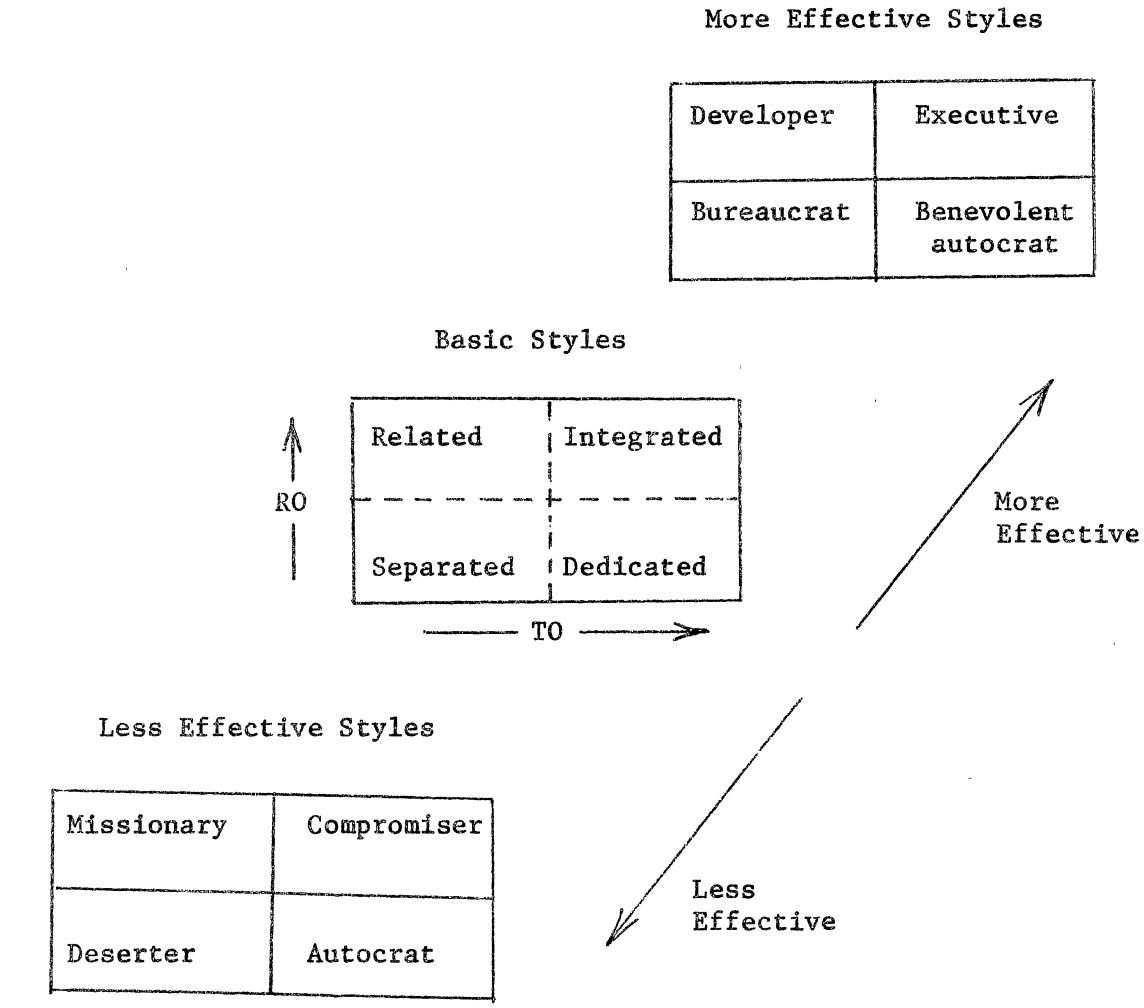
Styles are best seen in relation to specific situations. Any style has a situation which is appropriate to it, and many situations inappropriate to it. The fact that styles are best seen as being

TABLE I

INAPPROPRIATE AND APPROPRIATE LEADERSHIP STYLES
AND ASSOCIATED BASIC STYLES

When Used Inappropriately (Less Effective)	Basic Style	When Used Appropriately (More Effective)
Compromiser	Integrated	Executive
Autocrat	Dedicated	Benevolent Autocrat
Missionary	Related	Developer
Deserter	Separated	Bureaucrat

Source: William J. Reddin, Managerial Effectiveness, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1970, p. 13.)



Source: Reddin, Managerial Effectiveness (1970, p. 14).

Figure 3. The 3-D Model

implanted in situations can be represented in a way shown in Figure 4. The added third dimension could be labeled "appropriateness of style to situation." As this appropriateness results in effectiveness, "E" for short, this term is used instead. Thus, the more appropriate style and more effective style mean the same thing.

Any basic style then may be more effective or less effective depending on the particular situation in which it is used. Each basic style has its more effective and less effective counterpart, as demonstrated in Figure 3.

The left of the diagram is the plane of less effectiveness, the middle is the basic-style plane, and the right is the plane of more effectiveness. The eight styles which reflect the effectiveness level are called managerial styles to distinguish them from the four basic styles. The two basic dimensions are still TO and RO. The third dimension is managerial effectiveness (E), or the extent to which a manager achieves the output requirements of his position.

The vital distinction between the more effective and less effective styles does not lie in managerial behavior expressed in terms of TO and RO. Any amounts of either or both do not guarantee effectiveness. Effectiveness results from a style's appropriateness to the situation in which it is used. In the space of a day an effective manager may well use all four basic styles when dealing with such a variety of situations as a dependent subordinate, an aggressive pair of coworkers, a secretary whose work has deteriorated, and his superior who is interested only in the immediate task at hand. The effectiveness of any behavior depends on the situation in which

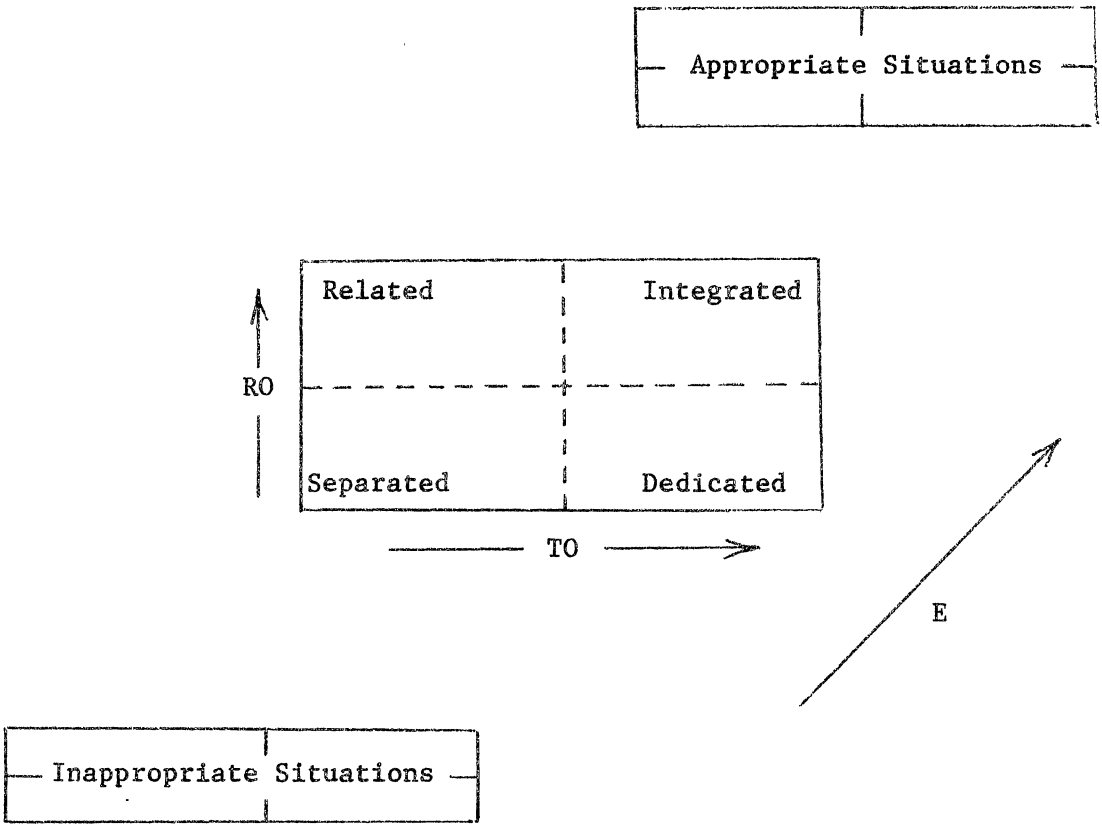


Figure 4. Basic Styles Embedded in Situations

it is used. To know how to be effective then a manager needs to know how to interpret situations.

From the central principle of the 3-D Theory that managerial effectiveness results from a match of style to situation, the three key skills of an effective manager may be described as situational sensitivity skill, style flexibility skill, and situational management skill. Managers need situational sensitivity to diagnose a situation and either style flexibility to match their style to it or situational management skill to change the situation itself. The acquisition of situational sensitivity, style flexibility and situational management skill is usually called experience.

The Management Style Diagnosis Test (MSDT) was developed to identify styles of managers and of organizations. Through an analysis of the answers the managesr selects from the MSDT questionnaire, the test measures a manager's perception of his/her management style in the present job. The test does not tell managers if they are an autocrat or some other style--only that they describe their behavior that way. Managers who change their jobs and take the test again usually score differently. Since the job demands have changed, so has the style to deal with them. The MSDT provides the manager with a style profile. This is essentially a description of the extent to which the manager uses each managerial style.

Summary

The goal of vocational education is to develop a well-balanced individual who will be able to earn a livelihood. Vocational education is education for occupational competence. Different forms

of vocational education have existed in the United States since the Morrill Act of Congress in 1862. Vocational education courses were introduced in the public and private schools as demands increased for trained manpower to serve agriculture, trades, industries, and other occupations. The national programs of vocational education were established as a peacetime measure to assist and stimulate a growing economy. Vocational education includes programs in agriculture, business and office, DE/Marketing, home economics, trade and industry, industrial arts, and health services. Persons may be served in high schools, community colleges, area vocational-technical schools, through adult education, and in work-study programs. The training provided in such schools is based upon the number of students, their needs and desires, job requirements and opportunities, and community needs for trained personnel in business and industry.

There has been interest in leadership and its relationship to organizations for many years. A number of scientifically designed studies of this relationship have been made since 1938. The leadership style is of primary interest because of its effect upon groups and goal achievement in the types of institutions examined in this study.

The current leadership literature reflects the growing acceptance of contingency theories of leadership effectiveness which postulate that different leadership behaviors are required in different situations, and hold that there is no single all-purpose leadership style. These theories implicitly assume that leaders behave to achieve organizational and/or personal goals.

The area of educational administration leadership has been a concern of many studies. These studies have dealt with the problems of how the administrator relates to superordinates and subordinates, and whether the administrator's leadership style is effective in the particular situation.

The 3-D Theory of Managerial Effectiveness identifies four basic leadership styles and eight managerial styles which relate to personality elements of task concern (TO) and people concern (RO). The 3-D Theory does not try to put people into one style area. It states that people use all styles depending on the situation.

The Management Style Diagnosis Test (MSDT) was developed by Reddin (1974) to identify styles of managers and of organizations. The MSDT was chosen for this study to determine whether there were significant differences in the proportions of task orientation, relationship orientation, effectiveness scores, and leadership style among administrators of area vocational technical schools and certain professional demographic data. The areas selected for research were: academic discipline discipline background; age; amount of teaching experience; amount of experience in educational administration; amount of experience in administration in noneducatinal organizations; educational level; and amount of formal management or administrative education of the administrators. The methodolgy of the MSDT and how it was used in this study is further described in Chapter III.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to describe the methods and procedures used in conducting this study. These were formulated by the central purpose of the study, which was to determine the task orientation, relationship orientation, effectiveness, and leadership styles of the area vocational school administrators in Oklahoma. The methodology consisted of: (1) A review of the literature relative to the study; and (2) A survey conducted in the 24 Area Vocational School Districts to determine the task orientation, relationship orientation, effectiveness, and leadership styles of the administrators. Demographic data was also obtained from the participants to describe their characteristics. This chapter also presents information on the population and sample involved in the study, presents discussion on the questionnaire, presents information on collection of the data, and presents information on the analysis of the data.

Description of the Population

The population consisted of selected administrators employed in Oklahoma area vocational schools. The group of selected administrators consisted of persons in positions of Superintendent, Director, Assistant Superintendent, Deputy Superintendent, Principal, Nursing

Director/Coordinator, Business/Industry Coordinator, Adult Education Assistant Superintendent/Director/Assistant Director/Coordinator/ Supervisor, Secondary Education Director/Assistant Director, Student Services Assistant Director/Coordinator, T & I Supervisor, Administrative Assistant, Instructional Support Services Director, Instruction Assistant Superintendent/Coordinator, Counselor, Research and Development Coordinator, Career Education Director, Curriculum Director/ Coordinator, Finance Director, and Business Manager. Mr. Roy Peters, Area Vocational Technical School Supervisor and Associate Director for the Oklahoma State Department of Vocational Technical Education assisted in selecting administrators from The Vo-Tech Personnel Directory, 1984-85, for Oklahoma to participate in this study.

Instrumentation

The Management Style Diagnosis Test (MSDT) was selected for use in this study to determine the leadership styles of individual respondents. The test is directly related to the 3-D Theory of Management Effectiveness. The test is described in detail by William J. Reddin in Managerial Effectiveness (1970) and discussed in Chapter II of this study.

The MSDT is a forced-choice instrument consisting of 64 pairs of statements. It is designed to provide information about an individual's unique style of on-the-job leadership behavior. The MSDT is used by organizational training specialists for the following purposes:

1. To create awareness of, and interest in, management styles
2. To unfreeze managers, prior to individual or team training programs

3. To personalize and thus stimulate discussion on management style

4. To establish a readiness to experience a personal development program

5. To determine development and training needs

6. To determine the stylistic features of an organization's hierarchy, preparatory to an organization change program

7. To provide the individual manager with a reasonably objective report of the styles he uses

8. To provide a starting point for coaching between associates or superior-subordinate pairs (Reddin, 1970, p. 250)

In completing the MSDT, the respondent was requested to read two independent statements and select the statement which best describes the individual's behavior in the person's present management situation. Each of the statements was developed to be descriptive of behavior of one of the eight leadership styles described in Chapter I. A panel of experts reviewed and sorted the questions to correspond with one of the leadership styles. The statements had been tested and statistically refined to eliminate the less discriminating ones. The statements are matched in such a way that the individual had an equal number of opportunities to select a particular style over every other style.

Scores for each of the leadership style dimensions--task orientation, relationship orientation, and effectiveness--were determined by summing the number of times the respondent selected statements which are descriptive of high orientation in the specific dimension. The scores for each respondent were recorded on a matrix, tallied, and summed. The range of possible adjusted raw scores for a given dimension could extend from a minimum score of 12 to a maximum score

of 46. The scores were then recorded and summed according to task orientation, relationships orientation, and effectiveness. The leadership style synthesis was determined from the dimension scores. Because of the method of scoring the instrument, the scores obtained for task orientation, relationships orientation, and effectiveness appear to have some mutual dependency. Although this study was designed to investigate each dimension separately, it is recognized that interdependency between the stated hypotheses may exist.

Validity and Reliability of the MSDT

Reddin (1970) reported a study in which 236 middle managers attended four different one- to three-week management workshops at Queens University in Canada. He found that 25 percent of the managers had a style synthesis of Executive (high TO, high RO, and high E). This was twice as high as an average management population. Both the Bureaucrat (low TO, low RO, and high E) and Deserter (low TO, low RO, and low E) percentages were quite low (four percent and six percent respectively). Reddin suggested that "the distribution fits closely the expectations that might be held about selected managers who attend university seminars" (p. 243).

The heads of voluntary agencies do most of their work with people who have equal if not more power than they. This tends to make a high RO style more effective. Thus the developer style is widely used. A group of this type was given the MSDT. It was found that the Developer style was used widely (41 percent). All other styles fell at or below 11 percent.

Thirty-three presidents and vice-presidents of a single international conglomerate completed the MSDT. They exhibited a style synthesis distribution which indicated that 49 percent had an Executive style while all other styles fell at 15 percent or below. Fifteen percent were Autocrat, and 12 percent were Benevolent Autocrat. These findings are consistent with what may be expected of presidents and vice-presidents who because of the nature of their positions, might be expected to show both high orientation toward task accomplishment and high orientation toward relationships.

Ohio University sponsored a three-week seminar attended by 62 research and development managers. The participants were asked to complete the MSDT, and the results supported the predictive accuracy. Managers of professional research groups found a high level of technical competence in the group members; there was also an intense desire to "find the answer" or complete the task. Since there was inherent in the members of the group the strong individual loyalties to professional associations outside the group, the leader should be most concerned about group relationships. Therefore, one would anticipate that research and development managers would demonstrate high relationships and low task, a Related basic style. The results of the study indicated that the most prominent basic style was Related (Developer--27 percent; Missionary--15 percent), followed by Dedicated (Autocrat--15 percent; Benevolent Autocrat--6 percent); Integrated (Compromiser--13 percent; Executive--6 percent); and Separated (Deserter--15 percent; Bureaucrat--3 percent).

Reddin (1974) reported that in studies involving teachers and trainers the style most often scored was the Developer. In the

studies, 40 individuals completed the MSDT, 22 teachers and 18 trainers. The results were Related 47.5 percent (Developer--40 percent; Missionary--7.5 percent), followed by Integrated 20 percent (Executive--17.5 percent; Compromiser--2.5 percent); Separated 20 percent (Bureaucrat--10 percent; Deserter--10 percent); and Dedicated 12.5 percent (Benevolent Autocrat--10 percent; Autocrat--2.5 percent).

Reddin (1970) reported the results of the MSDT administered at two seminars attended by industrial relations managers. The 78 managers who attended the first seminar exhibited a leadership profile which included the Executive as the most prominent style with the Developer and Benevolent Autocrat reported as supporting styles. One year later 76 industrial relations managers attended a second seminar. The results of the MSDT administered to this group exhibited similar leadership style distribution. Reddin (1970) stated that "the similarity between the style distributions of presumable matched groups attests to the reliability of the test on a group basis" (p. 248).

Davies (1972) investigated the leadership styles of selected policemen in the United Kingdom using the MSDT and the Blake and Mouton Managerial Grid (1964). He concluded that

> Viewed both individually and comparatively, the 3-D Theory (MSDT) appeared to produce a finer, and perhaps more credible, analysis of each individual's dominant and supporting styles and his likely effectiveness with this kind of mix. Whereas the Blake Grid can hardly be said to have differentiated between the five accelerated promotion candidates in any significant way, the 3-D Theory (MSDT) suggested that candidates Nos. 2 and 4 may be the most suitable individuals for accelerated training and promotion within this particular organization...these two candidates were eventually selected after extended interview...it may mean that the 3-D Theory (MSDT) can give a reliable guide to current managerial style as a component of selection (p. 56).

Reddin (1974) reported a test-retest reliability of the MSDT basic styles. Reliability coefficients for basic styles ranging from 0.66 to 0.70 were found in the study which included 104 subjects in the United States, Canada, and the United Kingdom. In a similar study conducted using 57 participants who had not changed positions during the two-year time span between testing, somewhat lower coefficients ($r = 0.45$ to 0.59) were found.

Demographic Data Questionnaire

A Demographic Data Questionnaire was developed by the investigator to collect individual and environmental information about the participants. The demographic data questionnaire was patterned from one used by Todd (1977). The specific variables included on the questionnaire were title and academic discipline of the administrators, number of full-time employees directly supervised (not students or secretaries), years and months of experience in current position, years and months of full-time classroom teaching experience, years and months of full-time experience in educational administration, years and months of full-time administrative experience outside of education (not summer), sex, age, highest educational degree level, and number of formal graduate hours in management or administration. A copy of the questionnaire can be found in Appendix A.

Data Collection

This study was designed to investigate the task orientation, relationship orientation, effectiveness and leadership styles of selected administrators in the 24 area vocational school districts in Oklahoma

using W. J. Reddin's Management Style Diagnosis Test (MSDT). The study was also designed to identify selected professional characteristics of the administrators, and to determine if significant relationships exist between these characteristics, leadership styles and/or dimension scores.

The study began in November, 1984, when the investigator proceeded to obtain permission from Organizational Tests, Ltd., Fredericton, New Brunswick, Canada, to use the MSDT instrument. Permission was also received to change the questionnaire from third person to first person.

In January, 1985, the investigator met with Mr. Roy Peters, Associate State Director, Area Vocational Technical Schools, Oklahoma State Department of Vocational Technical Education. The purpose of this meeting was identification of the administrators in the Area Vocational Technical Schools in Oklahoma to be contacted to participate in the study. The Oklahoma State Department of Vocational Technical Education, The Vo-Tech Personnel Directory, 1984-85, was used in this identification process. Mr. Peters also assisted with the study by writing a letter to the administrators, requesting that they cooperate with the study. A copy of Mr. Peters' letter and the letter sent by the researcher can be found in Appendix C. Data collection began February 5, 1985, when the questionnaire, the letter from Roy Peters and the researcher's letter were mailed to each of the participants. The questionnaires were not coded in any way. A second letter was mailed to those not signing their names on the returned questionnaires on February 15, 1985. A copy of this letter may be found in Appendix C. On March 7, 1985 telephone calls were made to the nonrespondents. Some of the administrators requested a second questionnaire and the questionnaire was mailed on March 8, 1985.

Analysis of the data was begun in March, 1985, and was completed in April of the same year. The data were analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Scientists (SPSS-X) on the Oklahoma State University computer. The diversity among the variables required that a number of different descriptive statistics be used in the preliminary examination of the data. The nominal scale variables, variables such as occupational title, academic discipline and sex (although sex was not used in any of the tested hypotheses), only required simple measures of frequency. The ordinal scale variables, variables such as highest degree for example, required a more detailed examination. Their medians, modes, maximums, minimums and ranges were inspected. The internal and ratio scale data required even more detailed examination and their means, medians, modes, standard deviations, ranges, maximums and minimums were inspected. The SPSSX frequency routine is capable of generating all of these descriptive statistics and it was employed to examine the descriptive statistics for both the raw data and data that were grouped in several different ways.

Research Hypotheses

Research hypotheses stemming from the research objectives listed in Chapter I, page 5 and 6, were developed and tested.

The null hypotheses dealing with the questions are:

Hypothesis 1. There is no significant difference in the task orientation, relationship orientation, effectiveness scores, and leadership style among administrators of different academic groups.

Hypothesis 2. There is no significant difference in the task orientation, relationship orientation, effectiveness scores, and leadership style among administrators of different ages.

Hypothesis 3. There is no significant difference in the task orientation, relationship orientation, effectiveness scores, and leadership style among administrators with different lengths of experience in their current position.

Hypothesis 4. There is no significant difference in the task orientation, relationship orientation, effectiveness scores, and leadership style among administrators with different amounts teaching experience.

Hypothesis 5. There is no significant difference in the task orientation, relationship orientation, effectiveness scores, and leadership style among administrators with different amounts of experience in educational administration.

Hypothesis 6. There is no significant difference in the task orientation, relationship orientation, effectiveness scores, and leadership style among administrators with different amounts of experience in administration in noneducational organizations.

Hypothesis 7. There is no significant difference in the task orientation, relationship orientation, effectiveness scores, and leadership style among administrators with different educational levels.

Hypothesis 8. There is no significant difference in the task orientation, relationship orientation, effectiveness scores, and and leadership style among administrators with different numbers of credit hours of formal management or administrative education.

Analysis of Data

The Management Style Diagnosis Test responses were scored in accordance with the directions provided by Reddin. The choices made on each of the 64 paired statements were recorded on a matrix, tallied and summed to yield adjusted raw scores. The adjusted raw scores provided the information necessary to record and sum an individual's task orientation, relationship orientation, and effectiveness scores. The leadership style synthesis was determined by tracing the dimension scores on the chart in Appendix B.

The statistical procedures used to analyze the data were selected as appropriate to the nature of the information and the purpose of the study and are described in the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences, 2nd Edition (Nie and others, 1975). Contingency tables were chosen for the analysis of the relationships among the respondents' demographic, professional, dimension score and leadership style data because they offer the analyst certain advantages over other forms of analysis. The cells in a cross tabulation table display the interaction between the variables defining the rows and columns of the table very clearly. One may choose to examine the frequency counts in each cell, the distribution of frequency counts across the rows and columns, and/or to examine the cell counts with respect to the table total. One may also examine the row and column percentages in each cell, comparing them to the table's row totals and/or column totals. A variety of statistical measures of association are also available for the assessment of the interaction between variables. The SPSSX package offers one a choice among such measures as chi-square, Cramer's V, the Contingency Coefficient, Lambda, the Uncertainty

Coefficient, Kendall's tau-b and tau-c, Gamma, Somer's d, and Eta. Of these, chi-square was chosen because of its computational simplicity, its wide usage, and its interpretability. Contingency tables also offered the researcher a second major advantage, one directly related to the data.

The MSDT data may look like interval scale data, but Reddin's Leadership Style index is arrived at through the use of a complex decision-making tree, at whose branches a subject is routed into one style category or another. Reddin also divides his dimension score data between the scores of 33 and 34, labeling one group low and the other high. The arbitrary nature of this choice became clear when the distribution of the respondent's dimension scores was examined and the 33/34 breakpoint was found to segregate only 15.5 percent of the sample from the other 84.5 percent. As a result of these categorical procedures, it is difficult to treat the leadership style and dimension score data with the parametric statistics they seem to warrant at first glance.

The independent variables in this study were also nominal scale variables, i.e. academic background, or were grouped to simplify their distributions. Table II lists the variable groups used for hypotheses two through eight. The distributions of the raw non-nominal scale variables were extremely distorted, and grouping the data reduced those distortions somewhat. As a result, it seemed the more conservative course of action to treat the grouped data as categorical and discrete rather than as ordinal and continuous. This may have cost the analysis some of the explanatory power associated with a causal analysis, but the irregularity of the data distributions seemed to

suggest that measures of association might provide fewer problems of interpretation.

The first part of the data analysis, which tested hypothesis one, involved the classification of each leadership style dimension into high orientation and low orientation; that is, high TO, low TO; high RO, low RO; and high E, low E. This procedure established the leadership style of the administrators. The classifications were based upon Reddin's (1972) suggestion that individuals scoring 34 and above on a selected dimension be considered to have demonstrated a high orientation and those individuals scoring below 34 be considered to be low. Each administrator was assigned to one of the academic background groups based upon the information reported on the demographic data sheet. The groups were Vocational Agriculture, Business & Office, DE/Marketing, Health Occupations, Home Economics, Industrial Arts, Trade & Industrial, and Other). Since the situation for testing the hypothesis involved the need to test the differences among unordered groups, the academic discipline groups; with regard to the observed frequency of assignment to a classification, high orientation or low orientation, the chi-square test of independence was selected to determine the significance of the differences (Jaccard, 1983). A chi-square test was performed and the results were tested at the 0.10 level of significance.

The approach used to test hypotheses two through eight was similar, to identify and test the relationship between the variables. The chi-square test of independence was used to test the significance of the associations between each leadership style dimension; high TO, low TO; high RO, low RO; high E, low E; and each professional characteristic

of the respondents. Table II shows the hypothesis number, the variable, and the groups.

TABLE II

VARIABLE GROUPS FOR HYPOTHESES TWO THROUGH EIGHT

Hypothesis	Variable	Groups
2	Age	29 or less years 30 - 39 40 - 49 50 - 59 60 or more years
3	Experience in current position	0 - 5 years 6 - 10 11 - 15 16 - 20 21 - 25 26 or more years
4	Teaching experience	0 - 5 years 6 - 10 11 - 15 16 - 20 21 - 25 26 - 30 31 or more years
5	Experience in educational administration	0 - 5 years 6 - 10 11 - 15 16 - 20 21 - 25 26 - 30 31 - 35 36 or more years
6	Administrative experience in noneducational organizations	0 - 5 years 6 - 10 11 - 15 16 - 20 21 - 25 26 or more years
7	Educational levels	Less than Bachelors Bachelors Masters Dr. work completed Doctorate
8	Formal graduate hours in management or administration	0 - 10 hours 11 - 20 21 - 30 31 - 40 41 - 50 51 - 60 61 or more hours

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

Introduction

The analysis of the hypotheses stated in Chapter III and the descriptive data collected for this study is presented in this chapter. A demographic data questionnaire was completed by the administrators. The specific variables included on the questionnaire were title and academic background of the administrators, number of full-time employees supervised, years of experience in one's current position, years of teaching experience, years of experience in educational administration, years of administrative experience outside of education, sex, age, highest educational degree level, and number of college credits in management or administrative education. The Management Style Diagnosis Test (MSDT) was selected for use in determining the leadership styles of individual respondents. The findings were based on the MSDT scores and the demographic data questionnaires completed by 120 respondents. Three of the returned questionnaires were not used in the study. One respondent filled in the demographic data questionnaire but did not complete the MSDT. One respondent completed the MSDT but did not fill in the demographic data questionnaire. The third questionnaire was returned with no responses. Six administrators indicated they did not wish to participate in the study, either by letter or telephone conversation. There were 33 administrators who did not respond either

by returning the questionnaire or indicating they did not wish to participate in the study.

Descriptive Data

Title

Each administrator was asked to write in the title of the position currently held. The titles of the administrators varied. Some of the administrators holding similar positions had different titles. The number of respondents holding the various titles are reported in Table III.

Academic Discipline

Table IV illustrates the distribution and percentages of the responses to the item of academic discipline groups as reported by the administrators on the demographic data questionnaire. The disciplines available on the questionnaire for the administrators to check were Vocational Agriculture, Business & Office, DE/Marketing, Health Occupations, Home Economics, Industrial Arts, Trade & Industrial, and Other. The various responses to Other were as follows: Education Administration, Occupational and Adult Education, Social Studies, Guidance/Counseling, English, Agriculture Economics, Mathematics, History, Natural Science, Physical Education, Military Personnel Management, and Career Education. The percentages of the respondents in each academic discipline group are also reported in Table IV.

Table III

DISTRIBUTION OF ADMINISTRATORS BY TITLE

Title	Number of Respondents	Percent
Assistant Superintendent	21	17.9
Superintendent	14	12.0
Director/Adult Education	11	9.4
Director	9	7.7
Coordinator/Adult Education	8	6.8
Assistant Director/Adult Education	5	4.3
Principal	5	4.3
Deputy Superintendent	4	3.4
Director/Student Services	4	3.4
Director/Secondary Education	4	3.4
Business Manager	4	3.4
Director/Coordinator/Practical Nursing	3	2.6
Assistant Director	2	1.7
Coordinator/Student Services	2	1.7
Assistant Superintendent/Adult Education	2	1.7
Business/Industry Coordinator	2	1.7
Supervisor/Adult Education	2	1.7
Director/Branch Campuses	1	0.9
Supervisor/T & I	1	0.9
Administrative Assistant	1	0.9
Officer of Adult Records and Administration	1	0.9
Director/Instrutional Support Services	1	0.9
Coordinator/Instruction	1	0.9
Assistant Superintendent/Instruction	1	0.9
Counselor	1	0.9
Research and Development	1	0.9
Director/Career Education	1	0.9
Assistant Director/Secondary Education	1	0.9
Curriculum Coordinator	1	0.9
Director/Curriculum	1	0.9
Director/Industry Services	1	0.9
No Response	1	0.9
Total	117	100.0

TABLE IV

DISTRIBUTION OF ADMINISTRATORS BY ACADEMIC DISCIPLINE GROUP

Academic Discipline Group	Number	Percent
Vocational Agriculture	15	12.8
Business & Office	13	11.1
DE/Marketing	12	10.3
Health Occupations	3	2.6
Home Economics	3	2.6
Industrial Arts	5	4.3
Trade & Industrial	32	27.4
Other	26	22.2
No Response	8	6.8
Total	117	100.0

Number Of Full-time Employees Directly Supervised

Space was provided on the demographic data questionnaire for the respondents to report the number of full-time employees they directly supervised. This information was not to include students or secretaries. The information was grouped in increments of five employees as illustrated in Table V. The range of the number of full-time employees directly supervised was from zero to 200. The mean number of full-time employees directly supervised was 21.562.

Experience In Current Position

Each respondent was asked to report the number of years and months employed in the current position. The range of the information received by the respondents was two weeks to 25 years. The mean number of years respondents have held their current positions was 6.482. The information was grouped in increments of five years and tabulated. The distributions of the tabulation are shown in Table VI.

Teaching Experience

The administrators were asked to report the actual classroom teaching experience they have had in years and months. The range of teaching experience reported was from zero to 40 years nine months. The information was grouped in increments of five years as illustrated in Table VII. Table VII also reports the number of responses in each group and the percentage. The mean for years of teaching experience was 10.690 years.

TABLE V

FULL-TIME EMPLOYEES DIRECTLY SUPERVISED

Groups	Number	Percent
0 - 5	30	25.6
6 - 10	21	17.9
11 - 15	7	6.0
16 - 20	10	8.5
21 - 25	9	7.7
26 - 30	6	5.1
31 - 35	6	5.1
36 - 40	5	4.3
41 - 45	2	1.7
46 or more	9	7.7
No Response	12	10.3
Total	117	100.0

TABLE VI

DISTRIBUTION OF ADMINISTRATORS BY YEARS IN CURRENT POSITION

Years in Position	Number	Percent
0 - 5	61	52.1
6 - 10	21	17.9
11 - 15	20	17.1
16 - 20	7	6.0
21 - 25	1	0.9
No Response	7	6.0
Total	117	100.0

TABLE VII

DISTRIBUTION OF ADMINISTRATORS BY YEARS OF TEACHING EXPERIENCE

Years of Teaching Experience	Number	Percent
0 - 5	31	26.5
6 - 10	36	30.8
11 - 15	19	16.2
16 - 20	15	12.8
21 - 25	9	7.7
26 - 30	2	1.7
31 or more	1	0.9
No Response	4	3.4
Total	117	100.0

Experience in Educational Administration

The years and months of experience in education administration were reported by the respondents. The information was grouped into increments of five years as shown on Table VIII. The range of experience in education administration reported by the respondents was from eight months to 42 years. The mean for experience in education administration was 10.351 years. Table VIII shows the groups, the number in each group and the percentage for the sample.

Administrative Experience Outside of Education

Several of the respondents reported they had administrative experience outside of education. These experiences were full-time administration--not summer employment. The ranges of experience reported in years and months of service were from zero to 30 years. The information was grouped in increments of five years for this study. The mean for administrative experience outside of education was 2.778 years. Table IX reports the number and percent in each group.

Sex

Respondents were asked to check whether they were male or female on the demographic questionnaire. Table X reports the number and percentage in each group.

Age

The administrators were not asked to furnish their exact age. The demographic data questionnaire listed the age groups 30-39, 40-49, 50-59, and over 60. One respondent indicated that he was less than

TABLE VIII

DISTRIBUTION OF ADMINISTRATORS BY YEARS OF EXPERIENCE IN EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

Years of Experience in Educational Administration	Number	Percent
0 - 5	41	35.0
6 - 10	24	20.5
11 - 15	21	17.9
16 - 20	18	15.4
21 - 25	6	5.1
26 - 30	1	0.9
31 - 35	2	1.7
36 or more	1	0.9
No Response	3	2.6
Total	117	100.0

TABLE IX

DISTRIBUTION OF ADMINISTRATORS BY YEARS OF ADMINISTRATIVE EXPERIENCE OUTSIDE OF EDUCATION

Years of Experience Outside of Educational Administration	Number	Percent
0 - 5	87	74.4
6 - 10	4	3.4
11 - 15	2	1.7
16 - 20	3	2.6
21 - 25	1	0.9
26 - 30	2	1.7
No Response	18	15.4
Total	117	100.0

TABLE X

DISTRIBUTION OF ADMINISTRATORS BY SEX

Sex	Number	Percent
Male	95	81.2
Female	21	17.9
No Response	1	0.9
Total	117	100.0

30 years of age. Table XI reports the number of respondents and the percentage in each age group.

Highest Degree

Respondents were provided a place to indicate the highest academic degree they now hold on the demographic data questionnaire. The choices which were provided on the demographic data questionnaire were: Less than Bachelors; Bachelors; Masters; Doctoral coursework complete; and Doctorate. Table XII reports the number of respondents in each degree category and the percentage of the sample.

Number of Formal Graduate Hours in Management or Administration

The administrators were asked to report the number of formal credit hours they had taken in management or administration. Table XIII shows the groups, the number in each group and the percentage in each group.

The range reported by the respondents on the demographic data questionnaire was from zero to 110. The mean for the number of credit hours reported was 32.868. The number of credit hours were grouped in increments of 10 credit hours per group.

Description of Leadership Styles

Reddin (1970) stated that the two distinct elements of any manager's job are the task to be done and the human relationships skills he needs to see that the task is accomplished. Relationship orientation and task orientation are defined in Chapter I of this

TABLE XI

DISTRIBUTION OF ADMINISTRATORS BY AGE

Age Group	Number	Percent
29 or under	1	0.9
30 - 39	21	17.9
40 - 49	39	33.3
50 - 59	27	23.1
60 or over	27	23.1
No Response	2	1.7
Total	117	100.0

TABLE XII

DISTRIBUTION OF ADMINISTRATORS
BY HIGHEST DEGREE HELD

Highest Degree	Number	Percent
Less than Bachelors	4	3.4
Bachelors	5	4.3
Masters	78	66.7
Doctoral coursework complete	9	7.7
Doctorate	19	16.2
No Response	2	1.7
Total	117	100.0

TABLE XIII

DISTRIBUTION OF ADMINISTRATORS BY CREDIT HOURS

Credit Hours	Number	Percent
0 - 10	13	11.1
11 - 20	23	19.7
21 - 30	22	18.8
31 - 40	19	16.2
41 - 50	10	8.5
51 - 60	9	7.7
61 - 70	5	4.3
71 - 80	2	1.7
81 - 90	0	0
91 - 100	2	1.7
100 - 110	1	0.9
No Response	11	9.4
Total	117	100.0

study. Ninety-seven (82.9 percent) of the administrators who participated in this study showed a high task orientation score. A low task orientation score was shown by 15 (12.8 percent) of the administrators. A high relationship orientation score was shown by 103 (88.0 percent) of the administrators, and nine (7.7 percent) showed a low relationship orientation score. An illustration of the task orientation and relationship orientation scores are presented in Appendix D.

The Management Style Diagnosis Test scores may be combined to provide descriptive information which can be used to establish each individual's Leadership Style Profile and Style Synthesis. In addition the scores provide data which can be used to analyze the hypotheses stated in Chapter III.

The Leadership Style Profile is a quantitative description of the extent to which an individual is inclined toward each of the eight leadership styles. The score for each style was determined by summing the number of times an individual chose a MSDT statement which was descriptive of the style. The profile is a set of eight numbers, ranging from 0 to 15, which quantitatively describe the extent to which each style is exhibited. Reddin (1970) stated that the average score for any style is approximately eight.

Table XIV presents the composite Leadership Style Profile, the mean scores and ranges for the total sample. The Deserter Style mean score of 4.50 was the lowest. The Executive Style mean score of 10.90 was the highest.

The Leadership Style Synthesis is the average leadership style and is based upon the individual's overall behavior. It is determined

TABLE XIV

ADMINISTRATOR LEADERSHIP STYLE PROFILE,
MEAN SCORES AND RANGES

Leadership Style Profile*	Mean Score	Range
Deserter	4.50	0 - 11
Missionary	7.17	2 - 11
Autocrat	7.40	2 - 12
Compromiser	9.05	5 - 14
Bureaucrat	4.93	1 - 7
Developer	10.52	5 - 15
Benevolent Autocrat	8.87	4 - 14
Executive	10.90	7 - 15

*Each style includes 117 scores

by combining the Task Orientation, Relationship Orientation, and Effectiveness test scores as coordinates to identify a location on the three-dimensional model. The tally sheet for determining style synthesis can be found in Appendix B. Reddin (1970) stated that

> Because style synthesis is essentially an average, it can hide rather than reveal important elements in an individual manager's style behavior. Its particular usefulness lies in the description of an average manager in a particular organization. It then gives some indication of organization philosophy (p. 242).

The distribution of the administrator's Leadership Style Synthesis is reported in Table XV. This table provides an overall picture of the average leadership styles exhibited by the respondents in this study.

Analysis of the Hypotheses

The chi-square test of independence was used to test the hypotheses. Tables are provided to illustrate the findings of the chi-square test. The number of individuals reported on these tables may differ from the tables in the Descriptive Data section of this Chapter due to the decision-making process of the SPSSX cross-tabluation program.

Hypothesis 1

There are no significant differences in the proportions of task orientation, relationship orientation, effectiveness scores, and leadership style among administrators of different academic groups. Since individual leadership style scores were reported in terms of task orientation, relationship orientation, effectiveness, and leadership style, it was decided to construct four separate hypotheses

TABLE XV

LEADERSHIP STYLE SYNTHESIS

Leadership Style Synthesis	Number	Percent	Basic Style	Number	Percent
Executive	71	60.7	Integrated	92	78.6
Compromiser	21	17.9			
Benevolent Autocrat	7	6.0	Dedicated	8	6.8
Autocrat	1	0.9			
Developer	8	6.8	Related	12	10.3
Missionary	4	3.4			
Bureaucrat	0	0	Separated	5	4.3
Deserter	5	4.3			

dealing with the proportions of high dimension scores with respect to academic discipline group. The academic disciplines included in this study were: Vocational Agriculture; Business & Office; DE/Marketing; Health Occupations; Home Economics; Industrial Arts; and Trade & Industrial. The statement of each hypothesis is as follows:

Hypothesis 1a. There are no significant differences in the proportions of high task orientation scores among administrators of different academic discipline groups.

Hypothesis 1b. There are no significant differences in the proportions of high relationship orientation scores among administrators of different academic discipline groups.

Hypothesis 1c. There are no significant differences in the proportions of effectiveness scores among administrators of different academic discipline groups.

Hypothesis 1d. There are no significant differences in the proportions of leadership styles among administrators of different academic discipline groups.

Each of these hypotheses was tested to determine the significance of the observed differences using the chi-square test of independence.

Hypothesis 1a

There are no significant differences in the proportions of high task orientation scores among administrators of different academic groups.

To test this hypothesis each administrator was assigned to one of seven academic discipline groups based upon the information obtained through the demographic data questionnaire. Within each group the

MSDT task orientation scores were used to classify each administrator as either high task or low task oriented. This classification was based upon Reddin's (1972) suggestion regarding evaluation of the MSDT scores. A 7 x 2 chi-square analysis was performed, and the resulting contingency table is shown in Table XVI.

The chi-square generated by the data is not significant at the 0.10 level. The null hypothesis can not be rejected, and the conclusion drawn that there is no significant difference in the proportion of high task orientation scores for administrators of different academic discipline groups.

Hypothesis 1b

There are no significant differences in the proportions of high relationship orientation scores among administrators of different academic discipline groups.

This hypothesis was tested by assigning each administrator to one of the seven academic discipline groups based upon the information obtained through the demographic data questionnaire. Within each group the MSDT relationship orientation scores were used to classify each administrator as either high relationship or low relationship oriented. This classification was based upon Reddin's (1972) suggestion regarding evaluation of the MSDT scores. A 7 x 2 chi-square analysis was performed, and the resulting contingency table is shown in Table XVII.

The chi-square generated by the data is not significant at the 0.10 level. The null hypothesis can not be rejected, and the conclusion drawn that there is no significant difference in the proportion

TABLE XVI

CONTINGENCY TABLE FOR ACADEMIC DISCIPLINE GROUPS BY TASK ORIENTATION

Academic Group	High TO	Low TO
Vocational Agriculture	13	0
Business & Office	10	3
DE/Marketing	10	2
Health Occupations	2	1
Home Economics	2	1
Industrial Arts	4	1
Trade & Industrial	29	2
Column Total	70	10

Chi-square = 7.05225 with d.f. = 6

TABLE XVII

CONTINGENCY TABLE FOR ACADEMIC DISCIPLINE GROUPS BY RELATIONSHIP ORIENTATION

Academic Group	High RO	Low RO
Vocational Agriculture	12	1
Business & Office	13	0
DE/Marketing	12	0
Health Occupations	3	0
Home Economics	2	1
Industrial Arts	5	0
Trade & Industrial	27	4
Column Total	74	6

Chi-square = 6.86682 with d.f. = 6

of high relationship orientation scores for administrators of different academic discipline groups.

Hypothesis 1c

There are no significant differences in the proportions of effectiveness scores among administrators of different academic discipline groups.

To test this hypothesis each administrator was assigned to one of the seven academic discipline groups based upon the information obtained from the demographic data questionnaire. Within each group the MSDT effectiveness scores were used to classify each administrator as either high effectiveness or low effectiveness oriented. A 7 x 2 chi-square analysis was performed, and the resulting contingency table is shown in Table XVIII.

The chi-square generated by the data is not significant at the 0.10 level. The null hypothesis can not be rejected, and the conclusion drawn that there is no significant difference in the proportion of high effectiveness scores for administrators of different academic discipline groups.

Hypothesis 1d

There are no significant differences in the proportions of leadership styles among administrators of different academic discipline groups.

To test this hypothesis each administrator was assigned to one of the seven academic discipline groups based upon the information obtained through the demographic data questionnaire. Within each group

TABLE XVIII

CONTINGENCY TABLE FOR ACADEMIC DISCIPLINE GROUPS BY EFFECTIVENESS ORIENTATION

Academic Group	High E	Low E
Vocational Agriculture	11	2
Business & Office	9	4
DE/Marketing	9	3
Health Occupations	3	0
Home Economics	2	1
Industrial Arts	4	1
Trade & Industrial	24	7
Column Total	62	18

Chi-square = 2.02116 with d.f. = 6

the leadership style scores were used to classify each administrator. A 7 x 6 chi-square analysis was performed, and the resulting contingency table is shown in Table XIX. The leadership styles of Autocrat and Bureaucrat have been omitted because there were no respondents in these categories.

The chi-square generated by the data is significant at the 0.10 level. The null hypothesis can be rejected, and the conclusion drawn that there is a significant difference in the proportion of leadership style scores for administrators of different groups.

Hypothesis 2

There is no significant difference in the task orientation, relationship orientation, effectiveness scores, and leadership style among administrators of different ages.

The administrators were not asked to report their exact ages, instead they were asked to check the age group listed on the demographic data questionnaire in which they fell. The tables used to illustrate this hypothesis correspond with the age groups on the demographic data questionnaire.

Since individual leadership style scores were reported in terms of task orientation, relationship orientation, effectiveness, and leadership style, it was decided to construct four separate hypotheses dealing with the proportions of high dimension scores with respect to different age groups. The statement of each hypothesis is as follows:

TABLE XIX

CONTINGENCY TABLE FOR ACADEMIC DISCIPLINE GROUPS BY LEADERSHIP STYLE

Academic Group	Executive	Compromiser	Benevolent Autocrat	Developer	Missionary	Deserter
Vocational Agriculture	10	2	1	0	0	0
Business & Office	6	4	0	3	0	0
DE/Marketing	9	1	0	0	2	0
Health Occupations	2	0	0	1	0	0
Home Economics	2	0	0	0	0	1
Industrial Arts	4	0	0	0	1	0
Trade & Industrial	20	6	3	1	0	1
Column Totals	53	13	4	5	3	2

Chi-square = 44.55544 with d.f. = 30

Hypothesis 2a. There are no significant differences in the proportions of high task orientation scores among administrators of different ages.

Hypothesis 2b. There are no significant differences in the proportions of high relationship orientation scores among administrators of different ages.

Hypothesis 2c. There are no significant differences in the proportions of high effectiveness scores among administrators of different ages.

Hypothesis 2d. There are no significant differences in the proportions of leadership styles among administrators of different ages.

Each of these hypotheses was tested to determine the significance of the observed differences using the chi-square test of independence.

Hypothesis 2a

There are no significant differences in the proportions of high task orientation scores among administrators of different ages.

To test this hypothesis each administrator was assigned to the age group indicated on the demographic data questionnaire. Within each group the MSDT task orientation scores were used to classify each administrator as either high task or low task oriented. A 5 x 2 chi-square analysis was performed, and the resulting contingency table is shown in Table XX.

The chi-square generated by the data is not significant at the 0.10 level. The null hypothesis can not be rejected, and the

TABLE XX

CONTINGENCY TABLE FOR AGE GROUPS
BY TASK ORIENTATION

Age Group	High TO	Low TO
Under 30	1	0
30 - 39	17	4
40 - 49	32	6
50 - 59	21	4
60 or Over	24	1
Column Total	95	15

Chi-square = 2.91944 with d. f. = 4

conclusion drawn that there is no significant difference in the proportion of high task orientation scores for administrators of different ages.

Hypothesis 2b

There is no significant difference in the proportion of high relationship orientation scores among administrators of different ages.

The same method of grouping was used to classify each administrator as in Hypothesis 1a. Within each group the MSDT relationship orientation scores were used to classify each administrator as either high relationship or low relationship oriented. A 5 x 2 chi-square analysis was performed, and the resulting contingency table is shown in Table XXI.

The chi-square generated by the data is not significant at the 0.10 level. The null hypothesis can not be rejected, and the conclusion drawn that there is no significant difference in the proportion of high relationship orientation scores for administrators of different ages.

Hypothesis 2c

There is no significant difference in the proportion of high effectiveness scores among administrators of different ages.

The administators were grouped according to the age group they indicated on the demographic data questionnaire. Within each group the effectiveness scores were used to classify each administrator. A 5 x 2 chi-square analysis was performed and the resulting contingency table is shown in Table XXII.

TABLE XXI

CONTINGENCY TABLE FOR AGE GROUPS
BY RELATIONSHIP ORIENTATION

Age Group	High RO	Low RO
Under 30	1	0
30 - 39	20	1
40 - 49	35	3
50 - 59	22	3
60 or Over	23	2
Column Total	101	9

Chi-Square = 0.90647 with d. f. = 4

TABLE XXII

CONTINGENCY TABLE FOR AGE GROUPS
BY EFFECTIVENESS ORIENTATION

Age Group	High E	Low E
Under 30	1	0
30 - 39	16	5
40 - 49	28	10
50 - 59	21	4
60 or Over	17	8
Column Totals	83	27

Chi-square = 2.13158 with d.f. = 4

The chi-square generated by the data is not significant at the 0.10 level. The null hypothesis cannot be rejected, and the conclusion drawn that there is no significant difference in the high effectiveness scores for administrators of different ages.

Hypothesis 2d

There are no significant differences in the proportions of leadership styles among administrators of different ages.

Each administrator was grouped according to the demographic data questionnaire information. Within each group the MSDT leadership style scores were used to classify each administrator into one of the eight leadership styles. A 5 x 7 chi-square analysis was performed, and the resulting contingency table is shown in Table XXIII. None of the administrators were classified as the Bureaucrat leadership style and this style is not included in Table XXIII.

The chi-square generated by the data is not significant at the 0.10 level. The null hypothesis can not be rejected, and the conclusion drawn that there is no significant difference in the leadership styles of administrators of different ages.

Hypothesis 3

There is no significant difference in the task orientation, relationship orientation, effectiveness scores and leadership style among administrators with different lengths of experience in their current positions.

Since individual leadership style scores were reported in terms of task orientation, relationship orientation, effectiveness, and

TABLE XXIII

CONTINGENCY TABLE FOR AGE GROUPS
BY LEADERSHIP STYLE

Age Group	Executive	Compromiser	Benevolent Autocrat	Autocrat	Developer	Missionary	Deserter
Under 30	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
30 - 39	12	4	1	0	3	1	0
40 - 49	25	7	1	0	2	1	2
50 - 59	15	3	3	0	3	1	0
60 or Over	16	6	1	1	0	1	0
Column Total	69	20	6	1	8	4	2

Chi-square = 16.00308 with d. f. = 24

leadership style, it was decided to construct four separate hypo theses dealing with the proportions of high dimension scores with respect to different lengths of experience in current positions. The statement of each hypothesis is as follows:

Hypothesis 3a. There are no significant differences in the proportions of high task orientation scores among administrators having different lengths of experience in their current positions.

Hypothesis 3b. There are no significant differences in the proportions of high relationship orientation scores among administrators having different lengths of experience in their current positions.

Hypothesis 3c. There are no significant differences in the proportions of high effectiveness scores among administrators having different lengths of experience in their current positions.

Hypothesis 3d. There are no significant differences in the proportions of leadership styles among administrators having different lengths of experience in their current positions.

Each of these hypotheses was tested to determine the significance of the observed differences using the chi-square test of independence.

Hypothesis 3a

There are no significant differences in the proportions of high task orientation scores among administrators having different lengths of experience in their current positions.

To test this hypothesis each administrator was assigned to a group. The years and months of experience reported on the demographic data questionnaire were grouped in increments of five years. Within each group the MSDT task orientation scores were used to

classify each administrator as either high task or low task oriented. This classification was based upon Reddin's (1972) suggestion regarding evaluation of the MSDT scores. A 5 x 2 chi-square analysis was performed, and the resulting contingency table is shown in Table XXIV.

The chi-square generated by the data is not significant at the 0.10 level. The null hypothesis can not be rejected, and the conclusion drawn that there is no significant difference in the proportion of high task orientation scores for administrators having different lengths of experience in their current positions.

Hypothesis 3b

There are no significant differences in the proportions of high relationship orientation scores among administrators having different lengths of experience in their current positions.

This hypothesis was tested by assigning each administrator to one of the five groups described in Hypothesis 3a. Within each group the MSDT relationship orientation scores were used to classify each administrator as either high relationship or low relationship oriented. A 5 x 2 chi-square analysis was performed, and the resulting contingency table is shown in Table XXV.

The chi square generated by the data is not significant at the 0.10 level. The null hypothesis can not be rejected, and the conclusion drawn that there is no significant difference in the proportion of high relationship orientation scores for administrators having different lengths of experience in their current positions.

TABLE XXIV

CONTINGENCY TABLE FOR EXPERIENCE IN CURRENT POSITION GROUPS BY TASK ORIENTATION

Experience in Current Position	High TO	Low TO
0 - 5 Years	53	7
6 - 10	17	3
11 - 15	16	4
16 - 20	4	0
21 - 25	1	0
Column Total	91	14

Chi-square = 1.73077 with d. f. = 4

TABLE XXV

CONTINGENCY TABLE FOR EXPERIENCE IN CURRENT POSITION GROUPS BY RELATIONSHIP ORIENTATION

Experience in Current Position	High RO	Low RO
0 - 5 Years	56	4
6 - 10	19	1
11 - 15	17	3
16 - 20	3	1
21 - 25	1	0
Column Total	96	9

Chi-square = 3.12934 with d. f. = 4

Hypothesis 3c

There are no significant differences in the proportions of high effectiveness scores among administrators having different lengths of experience in their current positions.

The method used to test this hypothesis was the same as for Hypotheses 3a and 3b. Each administrator was assigned to one of the above-mentioned groups. Within each group the MSDT effectiveness scores were used to classify each administrator as either high effectiveness or low effectivenss oriented. A 5 x 2 chi-square analysis was performed, and the resulting contingency table is shown in Table XXVI.

The chi-square generated by the data is not significant at the 0.10 level. The null hypothesis can not be rejected, and the conclusion drawn that there is no significant difference in the proportion of high effectiveness scores for administrators having different lengths of experience in their current positions.

Hypothesis 3d

There are no significant differences in the proportions of leadership styles among administrators having different lengths of experience in their current positions.

To test this hypothesis each administrator was assigned to one of the five groups for length of experience in current position. Within each group the leadership style scores were used to classify each administrator. A 5 x 7 chi-square analysis was performed, and the resulting contingency table is shown in Table XXVII. The

TABLE XXVI

CONTINGENCY TABLE FOR EXPERIENCE IN CURRENT POSITION GROUPS BY EFFECTIVENESS ORIENTATION

Experience in Current Position	High E	Low E
0 - 5 Years	48	12
6 - 10	14	6
11 - 15	13	7
16 - 20	4	0
21 - 25	1	0
Column Totals	80	25

Chi-square = 3.84562 with d. f. = 4

TABLE XXVII

CONTINGENCY TABLE FOR EXPERIENCE IN CURRENT POSITION GROUPS BY LEADERSHIP STYLE

Experience in Current Position	Executive	Compromiser	Benevolent Autocrat	Autocrat	Developer	Missionary	Deserter
0 - 5 Years	40	10	3	0	5	1	1
6 - 10	12	5	1	0	1	1	0
11 - 15	10	4	1	1	2	1	1
16 - 20	3	0	1	0	0	0	0
21 - 25	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
Column Totals	66	19	6	1	8	3	2

Chi-Square = 12.87659 with d. f. = 24

leadership style of Bureaucrat has been omitted because there were no respondents in this category.

The chi square generated by the data is not significant at the 0.10 level. The null hypothesis can not be rejected, and the conclusion drawn that there is no significant difference in the proportion of leadership style scores for administrators having different lengths of experience in their current positions.

Hypothesis 4

There is no significant difference in the task orientation, relationship orientation, effectiveness scores, and leadership style among administrators with different amounts of teaching experience.

Since individual leadership style scores were reported in terms of task orientation, relationship orientation, effectiveness, and leadership style, it was decided to construct four separate hypotheses dealing with the proportions of high dimension scores with respect to different amounts of teaching experience.

Hypothesis 4a. There are no significant differences in the proportions of high task orientation scores among administrators with different amounts of teaching experience.

Hypothesis 4b. There are no significant differences in the proportions of high relationship orientation scores among administrators with different amounts of teaching experience.

Hypothesis 4c. There are no significant differences in the proportions of high effectiveness scores among administrators with different amounts of teaching experience.

Hypothesis 4d. There are no significant differences in the proportions of leadership styles among administrators of different amounts of teaching experience.

Each of these hypotheses was tested to determine the significance of the observed differences using the chi-square test of independence.

Hypothesis 4a

There are no significant differences in the proportions of high task orientation scores among administrators with different amounts of teaching experience.

On the demographic data questionnaire each respondent was asked to report the actual years and months spent in classroom teaching. To test Hypotheses 4a, 4b, 4c, and 4d, each administrator was assigned to one of the groups based upon the information obtained through the demographic data questionnaire. Within each group the MSDT task orientation scores were used to classify each administrator as either high task or low task oriented. This classification was based upon Reddin's (1972) suggestion regarding evaluation of the MSDT scores. A 7 x 2 chi-square analysis was performed, and the resulting contingency table is shown in Table XXVIII.

The chi-square generated by the data is not significant at the 0.10 level. The null hypothesis can not be rejected, and the conclusion drawn that there is no significant difference in the proportion of high task orientation scores for administrators with different amounts of teaching experience.

TABLE XXVIII

CONTINGENCY TABLE FOR TEACHING EXPERIENCE GROUPS BY TASK ORIENTATION

Teaching Experience	High TO	Low TO
0 - 5 Years	26	4
6 - 10	32	4
11 - 15	15	2
16 - 20	10	4
21 - 25	7	1
26 - 30	2	0
31 or More	1	0
Column Total	93	15

Chi-square = 3.32441 with d. f. = 6

Hypothesis 4b

There are no significant differences in the proportions of high relationship orientation scores among administrators with different amounts of teaching experience.

This hypothesis was tested by assigning each administrator to one of the above-mentioned groups based upon the information obtained through the demographic data questionnaire. Within each group the MSDT relationship orientation scores were used to classify each administrator as either high relationship or low relationship oriented. A 7 x 2 chi-square analysis was performed, and the resulting contingency table is shown in Table XXIX.

The chi-square generated by the data is not significant at the 0.10 level. The null hypothesis can not be rejected, and the conclusion drawn that there is no significant difference in the proportion of high relationship orientation scores for administrators with different amounts of teaching experience.

Hypothesis 4c

There are no significant differences in the proportions of high effectiveness scores among administrators with different amounts of teaching experience.

This hypothesis was tested by assigning each administrator to one of the teaching experience groups based upon the information obtained through the demographic data questionnaire. Within each group the MSDT effectiveness scores were used to classify each administrator as either high effectiveness or low effectiveness oriented. A 7 x 2

TABLE XXIX

CONTINGENCY TABLE FOR TEACHING EXPERIENCE GROUPS BY RELATIONSHIP ORIENTATION

Teaching Experience	High RO	Low RO
0 - 5 Years	28	2
6 - 10	34	2
11 - 15	14	3
16 - 20	13	1
21 - 25	7	1
26 - 30	2	0
31 or More	1	0
Column Total	99	9

Chi-square = 2.88373 with d. f. = 6

chi-square analysis was performed, and the resulting contingency table is shown in Table XXX.

The chi square generated by the data is not significant at the 0.10 level. The null hypothesis can not be rejected, and the conclusion drawn that there is no significant difference in the proportion of high effectiveness orientation scores for administrators with different amounts of teaching experience.

Hypothesis 4d

There are no significant differences in the proportions of leadership styles among administrators with different amounts of teaching experience.

To test this hypothesis each administrator was assigned to one of the teaching experience groups based upon the information obtained through the demographic data questionnaire. With each group the MSDT leadership style scores were used to classify each administrator. An 8 x 7 chi-square analysis was performed, and the resulting contingency table is shown in Table XXXI. The leadership style of Bureaucrat has been omitted because there were no respondents in this category.

The chi-square generated by the data is not significant at the 0.10 level. The null hypothesis can not be rejected, and the conclusion drawn that there is no significant difference in the proportion of leadership style scores for administrators with different amounts of teaching experience.

TABLE XXX

CONTINGENCY TABLE FOR TEACHING EXPERIENCE GROUPS BY EFFECTIVENESS ORIENTATION

Teaching Experience	High E	Low E
0 - 5 Years	23	7
6 - 10	26	10
11 - 15	12	5
16 - 20	10	4
21 - 25	7	1
26 - 30	2	0
31 or More	1	0
Column Total	81	27

Chi-square = 2.13097 with d. f. = 6

TABLE XXXI

CONTINGENCY TABLE FOR TEACHING EXPERIENCE
GROUPS BY LEADERSHIP STYLE

Teaching Experience	Executive	Compromiser	Benevolent Autocrat	Autocrat	Developer	Missionary	Deserter
0 - 5 Years	18	6	2	0	3	1	0
6 - 10	23	9	1	0	2	0	1
10 - 15	10	3	2	0	0	1	1
16 - 20	7	2	1	0	2	2	0
21 - 25	6	0	0	1	1	0	0
26 - 30	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
31 or More	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
Column Totals	67	20	6	1	8	4	2

Chi-square = 31.23518 with d. f. = 36

Hypothesis 5

There is no significant difference in the task orientation, relationship orientation, effectiveness scores, and leadership style among administrators with different amounts of experience in educational administration.

The demographic data questionnaire provided space for the respondents to fill in the years and months of experience in educational administration. In preparing the data for analyses the amount of experience in educational administration were assigned to groups of five year increments.

Since individual leadership style scores were reported in terms of task orientation, relationship orientation, effectiveness, and leadership style, it was decided to construct four separate hypotheses dealing with the proportions of high dimension scores with respect to different amounts of experience in educational administration. The statement of each hypothesis is as follows:

Hypothesis 5a. There are no significant differences in the proportions of high task orientation scores among administrators with different amounts of experience in educational administration.

Hypothesis 5b. There are no significant differences in the proportions of high relationship orientation scores among administrators with different amounts of experience in educational administration.

Hypothesis 5c. There are no significant differences in the proportions of high effectiveness scores among administrators with different amounts of experience in educational administration.

Hypothesis 5d. There are no significant differences in the proportions of leadership styles among administrators with different amounts of experience in education administration.

Each of these hypotheses was tested to determine the significance of the observed differences using the chi-square test of independence.

Hypothesis 5a

There are no significant differences in the proportions of high task orientation scores among administrators with different amounts of experience in educational administration.

To test this hypothesis each administrator was assigned to one of the above-mentioned groups based upon the information obtained through the demographic data questionnaire. Within each group the MSDT task orientation scores were used to classify each administrator as either high task or low task oriented. This classification was based upon Reddin's (1972) suggestion regarding evaluation of the MSDT scores. A 7 x 2 chi-square analysis was performed, and the resulting contingency table is shown in Table XXXII. None of the respondents were in the 26-30 year group so it was not included in the analysis.

The chi-square generated by the data is not significant at the 0.10 level. The null hypothesis can not be rejected, and the conclusion drawn that there is no significant difference in the proportion of high task orientation scores for administrators with different amounts of experience in educational administration.

TABLE XXXII

CONTINGENCY TABLE FOR EXPERIENCE IN EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION GROUPS BY TASK ORIENTATION

Educational Administration Experience	High TO	Low TO
0 - 5 Years	34	7
6 - 10	19	4
11 - 15	18	3
16 - 20	16	0
21 - 25	4	1
31 - 35	2	0
36 or More	1	0
Column Total	94	15

Chi-square = 3.83499 with d. f. = 6

Hypothesis 5b

There are no significant differences in the proportions of high relationship orientation scores among administrators with different amounts of experience in educational administration.

The administrators were grouped according to the groups described in Hypothesis 5 based upon the information obtained through the demographic data questionnaire. Within each group the MSDT relationship orientation scores were used to classify each administrator as either high relationship or low relationship oriented. This classification was based upon Reddin's (1972) suggestion regarding evaluation of the MSDT scores. A 7 x 2 chi-square analysis was performed, and the resulting contingency table is shown in Table XXXIII. None of the respondents were in the 26-30 year group so it was not included in the analysis.

The chi-square generated by the data is not significant at the 0.10 level. The null hypothesis can not be rejected, and the conclusion drawn that there is no significant difference in the proportion of high relationship orientation scores for administrators with different amounts of experience in educational administration.

Hypothesis 5c

There are no significant differences in the proportions of high effectiveness scores among administrators with different amounts of educational administration.

The analysis of this hypothesis was done in the same manner as Hypotheses 5a and 5b. The administrators were assigned to groups based upon the information obtained through the demographic data

TABLE XXXIII

CONTINGENCY TABLE FOR EXPERIENCE IN EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION GROUPS BY RELATIONSHIP ORIENTATION

Educational Administration Experience	High RO	Low RO
0 - 5 Years	38	3
6 - 10	21	2
11 - 15	18	3
16 - 20	15	1
21 - 25	5	0
31 - 35	2	0
36 or More	1	0
Column Total	100	9

Chi-square = 1.86634 with d. f. = 6

questionnaire. Within each group the MSDT effectiveness scores were used to classify each administrator as either high effectiveness or low effectiveness oriented. A 7 x 2 chi-square analysis was performed, and the resulting contingency table is shown in Table XXXIV. None of the respondents were in the 26-30 year group so it was not included in the analysis.

The chi-square generated by the data is not significant at the 0.10 level. The null hypothesis can not be rejected, and the conclusion drawn that there is no significant difference in the proportion of high effectivenss scores for administrators with different amounts of experience in educational administration.

Hypothesis 5d

There are no significant differences in the proportions of leadership styles among administrators with different amounts of experience in educational administration.

To test this hypothesis each administrator was assigned to one of the seven groups based upon the information obtained through the demographic data questionnaire. Within each group the leadership style scores were used to classify each administrator. A 7 x 7 chi-square analysis was performed, and the resulting contingency table is shown in Table XXXV. The leadership style of Bureaucrat has been omitted because there were no respondents in this category.

The chi-square generated by the data is not significant at the 0.10 level. The null hypothesis can not be rejected, and the conclusion drawn that there is no significant difference in the proportion

TABLE XXXIV

CONTINGENCY TABLE FOR EXPERIENCE IN
EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION GROUPS
BY EFFECTIVENESS ORIENTATION

Educational Administration Experience	High E	Low E
0 - 5 Years	29	12
6 - 10	16	7
11 - 15	17	4
16 - 20	15	1
21 - 25	3	2
31 - 35	1	1
36 or More	1	0
Column Total	82	27

Chi-square = 5.79003 with d. f. = 6

TABLE XXXV

CONTINGENCY TABLE FOR EXPERIENCE IN EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION GROUPS BY LEADERSHIP STYLE

Experience in Educational Administration	Executive	Compromiser	Benevolent Autocrat	Autocrat	Developer	Missionary	Deserter
0 - 5 Years	22	10	2	0	5	1	1
6 - 10	13	5	2	0	1	2	0
11 - 15	14	2	1	1	2	0	1
16 - 20	14	1	1	0	0	0	0
21 - 25	3	1	0	0	0	1	0
31 - 35	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
36 or More	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
Column Total	68	20	6	1	8	4	2

Chi-square = 24.39407 with d. f. = 36

of leadership style scores for administrators with different amounts of experience in educational administration.

Hypothesis 6

There is no significant difference in the task orientation, relationship orientation, effectiveness scores, and leadership style among administrators with different amounts of experience in administration in noneducational organizations.

On the demographic data questionnaire respondents were asked to report the actual years and months of administrative experience outside of education. The experience was to have been full-time administrative experience and not to include summer or part-time employment. For the purpose of this study groups were established with increments of five years.

Since individual leadership style scores were reported in terms of task orientation, relationship orientation, effectiveness, and leadership style, it was decided to construct four separate hypotheses dealing with the proportions of high dimension scores with respect to experience in administration in noneducational organizations. The statement of each hypothesis is as follows:

Hypothesis 6a. There is no significant difference in the proportions of high task orientation scores among administrators with different amounts of experience in administration in noneducational organizations.

Hypothesis 6b. There is no significant difference in the proportions of high relationship orientation scores among administrators

with different amounts of experience in administration in noneducational organizations.

Hypothesis 6c. There is no significant difference in the proportions of high effectiveness scores among administrators with different amounts of experience in administration in noneducational organizations.

Hypothesis 6d. There is no significant difference in the proportions of leadership styles among administrators with different amounts of experience in administration in noneducational organizations.

Each of these hypotheses was tested to determine the significance of the observed differences using the chi-square test of independence.

Hypothesis 6a

There are no significant differences in the proportions of high task orientation scores among administrators with different amounts of experience in administration in noneducational organizations.

To test this hypothesis each administrator was assigned to one of the groups according to the information obtained through the demographic data questionnaire. Within each group the MSDT task orientation scores were used to classify each administrator as either high task or low task oriented. This classification was based upon Reddin's (1972) suggestion regarding evaluation of the MSDT scores. A 6 x 2 chi-square analysis was performed, and the resulting contingency table is shown in Table XXXVI.

The chi-square generated by the data is not significant at the 0.10 level. The null hypothesis can not be rejected, and the

TABLE XXXVI

CONTINGENCY TABLE FOR ADMINISTRATIVE EXPERIENCE IN NONEDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATION GROUPS BY TASK ORIENTATION

Experience in Noneducational Organizations	High TO	Low TO
0 - 5 Years	73	11
6 - 10	3	1
11 - 15	2	0
16 - 20	3	0
21 - 25	1	0
26 - 30	2	0
Column Total	84	12

Chi-square = 1.74150 with d. f. = 5

conclusion drawn that there is no significant difference in the proportion of high task orientation scores for administrators with amounts of experience in administration in noneducational organizations.

Hypothesis 6b

There are no significant differences in the proportions of high relationship orientation scores among administrators with different amounts of experience in administration in noneducational organizations.

This hypothesis was tested by assigning each administrator to one of the six groups based upon the information obtained through the demographic data questionnaire. Within each group the MSDT relationship orientation scores were used to classify each administrator as either high relationship or low relationship oriented. A 6 x 2 chi-square analysis was performed, and the resulting contingency table is shown in Table XXXVII.

The chi-square generated by the data is not significant at the 0.10 level. The null hypothesis can not be rejected, and the conclusion drawn that there is no significant difference in the proportion of high relationship orientation scores for administrators with different amounts of experience in administration in noneducational organizations.

Hypothesis 6c

There are no significant differences in the proportions of high effectiveness scores among administrators with different amounts of experience in administration in noneducational organizations.

TABLE XXXVII

CONTINGENCY TABLE FOR ADMINISTRATIVE EXPERIENCE IN NONEDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATION GROUPS BY RELATIONSHIP ORIENTATION

Experience in Noneducational Organizations	High RO	Low RO
0 - 5 Years	77	7
6 - 10	4	0
11 - 15	2	0
16 - 20	3	0
21 - 25	1	0
26 - 30	2	0
Column Total	89	7

Chi-square = 1.07865 with d. f. = 5

The method used to test this hypothesis was the same as for Hypothesis 6a and 6b. Each administrator was assigned to one of the six groups based upon the information obtained through the demographic data questionnaire. Within each group the MSDT effectiveness scores were used to classify each administrator as either high effectiveness or low effectiveness oriented. A 6 x 2 chi-square analysis was performed, and the resulting contingency table is shown in Table XXXVIII.

The chi-square generated by the data is not significant at the 0.10 level. The null hypothesis can not be rejected, and the conclusion drawn that there is no significant difference in the proportion of high effectiveness scores for administrators with different amounts of experience in administration in noneducational organizations.

Hypothesis 6d

There is no significant difference in the proportions of leadership styles among administrators with different amounts of experience in administration in noneducational organizations.

To test this hypothesis each administrator was assigned to one of the six groups based upon the information obtained through the demographic data questionnaire. Within each group the leadership style scores were used to classify each administrator. A 6 x 6 chi-square analysis was performed, and the resulting contingency table is shown in Table XXXIX. The leadership styles of Autocrat and Bureaucrat have been omitted because there were no respondents in these categories.

The chi square generated by the data is not significant at the 0.10 level. The null hypothesis cannot be rejected, and the

TABLE XXXVIII

CONTINGENCY TABLE FOR ADMINISTRATIVE EXPERIENCE IN NONEDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATION GROUPS BY EFFECTIVENESS ORIENTATION

Experience in Noneducational Organizations	High E	Low E
0 - 5 Years	65	19
6 - 10	2	2
11 - 15	2	0
16 - 20	3	0
21 - 25	0	1
26 - 30	2	0
Column Total	74	22

Chi-square = 7.10986 with d. f. = 5

TABLE XXXIX

CONTINGENCY TABLE FOR ADMINISTRATIVE EXPERIENCE IN NONEDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATION GROUPS BY LEADERSHIP STYLE

Experience in Noneducational Organizations	Executive	Compromiser	Benevolent Autocrat	Developer	Missionary	Deserter
0 - 5 Years	54	14	6	5	4	1
6 - 10	1	2	0	1	0	0
11 - 15	2	0	0	0	0	0
16 - 20	3	0	0	0	0	0
21 - 25	0	1	0	0	0	0
26 - 30	2	0	0	0	0	0
Column Total	62	17	6	6	4	1

Chi-square = 14.78088 with d. f. = 25

conclusion drawn that there is no significant difference in the proportion of leadership style scores for administrators with different amounts of experience in administration in noneducational organizations.

Hypothesis 7

There is no significant difference in the task orientation, relationship orientation, effectiveness scores, and leadership style among administrators with different educational levels.

Each administrator was asked to check on the demographic data questionnaire the degree level attained. The selections available on the demographic data questionnaire were: less than a Bachelors degree, Bachelors degree, Masters degree, Doctoral work completed, and Doctors degree.

Since individual leadership style scores were reported in terms of task orientation, relationship orientation, effectiveness, and leadership style, it was decided to construct four separate hypotheses dealing with the proportions of high dimension scores with respect to highest degree attained. The statement of each hypothesis is as follows:

Hypothesis 7a. There are no significant differences in the proportions of high task orientation scores among administrators with different educational levels.

Hypothesis 7b. There are no significant differences in the proportions of high relationship orientation scores among administrators with different educational levels.

Hypothesis 7c. There are no significant differences in the proportions of high effectiveness scores among administrators with different educational levels.

Hypothesis 7d. There are no significant differences in the proportions of leadership styles among administrators with different educational levels.

Each of these hypotheses was tested to determine the significance of the observed differences using the chi-square test of independence.

Hypothesis 7a

There are no significant differences in the proportions of high task orientation scores among administrators with different educational levels.

To test this hypothesis each administrator was assigned to one of the five educational level groups based upon the information obtained through the demographic data questionnaire. Within each group the MSDT task orientation scores were used to classify each administrator as either high task or low task oriented. This classification was based upon Reddin's (1972) suggestion regarding evaluation of the MSDT scores. A 5 x 2 chi-square analysis was performed, and the resulting contingency table is shown in Table XL.

The chi-square generated by the data is significant at the 0.10 level. The null hypothesis can be rejected, and the conclusion drawn that there is a significant difference in the proportion of high task orientation scores for administrators with different education levels.

TABLE XL

CONTINGENCY TABLE FOR EDUCATIONAL LEVEL GROUPS BY TASK ORIENTATION

Educational Level	High TO	Low TO
Less than Bachelors	4	0
Bachelors	2	3
Masters	67	8
Doctors Work Completed	7	1
Doctors	15	3
Column Total	95	15

Chi-square = 10.46865 with d. f. = 4

Hypothesis 7b

There are no significant differences in the proportions of high relationship orientation scores among administrators with different educational levels.

The demographic data questionnaire information was used to assign each administrator to one of the five educational level groups to test this hypothesis. Within each group the MSDT relationship orientation scores were used to classify each administrator as either high relationship or low relationship oriented. A 5 x 2 chi-square analysis was performed, and the resulting contingency table is shown in Table XLI.

The chi-square generated by the data is significant at the 0.10 level. The null hypothesis can be rejected, and the conclusion drawn that there is a significant difference in the proportion of high relationship orientation scores for administrators with different educational levels.

Hypothesis 7c

There are no significant differences in the proportions of high effectiveness scores among administrators with different educational levels.

The method used to test this hypothesis was the same as for Hypotheses 7a and 7b. Each administrator was assigned to one of the five educational level groups based upon the information obtained through the demographic data questionnaire. Within each group the MSDT effectiveness scores were used to classify each administrator as either high effectiveness or low effectiveness oriented. A 5 x 2

TABLE XLI

CONTINGENCY TABLE FOR EDUCATIONAL LEVEL GROUPS BY RELATIONSHIP ORIENTATION

Educational Level	High RO	Low RO
Less than Bachelors	4	0
Bachelors	5	0
Masters	69	6
Doctors Work Completed	5	3
Doctors	18	0
Column Total	101	9

Chi-square = 11.56270 with d. f. = 4

chi-square analysis was performed, and the resulting contingency table is shown in Table XLII.

The chi-square generated by the data is not significant at the 0.10 level. The null hypothesis can not be rejected, and the conclusion drawn that there is no significant difference in the proportion of high effectiveness scores for administrators with different educational levels.

Hypothesis 7d

There are no significant differences in the proportions of leadership styles among administrators with different educational levels.

Each administrator was assigned to one of the educational level groups based upon the demographic data questionnaire to test this hypothesis. Within each group the leadership style scores were used to classify each administrator. A 5 x 7 chi-square analysis was performed, and the resulting contingency table is shown in Table XLIII. The leadership style of Bureaucrat has been omitted because there were no respondents in this category.

The chi square generated by the data is not significant at the 0.10 level. The null hypothesis cannot be rejected, and the conclusion drawn that there is no significant difference in the proportion of leadership style scores for administrators with different educational levels.

Hypothesis 8

There is no significant difference in the task orientation, relationship orientation, effectiveness scores, and leadership style

TABLE XLII

CONTINGENCY TABLE FOR EDUCATIONAL LEVEL GROUPS
BY EFFECTIVENESS ORIENTATION

Educational Level	High E	Low E
Less than Bachelors	4	0
Bachelors	3	2
Masters	57	18
Doctors Work Completed	7	1
Doctors	12	6
Column total	83	27

Chi-square = 3.33534 with d. f. = 4

TABLE XLIII

CONTINGENGY TABLE FOR EDUCATIONAL LEVEL
GROUPS BY LEADERSHIP STYLE

Educational Level	Executive	Compromiser	Benevolent Autocrat	Autocrat	Developer	Missionary	Deserter
Less than Bachelors	4	0	0	0	0	0	0
Bachelors	1	1	0	0	2	1	0
Masters	49	14	4	1	4	2	1
Doctors Work Completed	5	0	2	0	0	0	1
Doctors	10	5	0	0	2	1	0
Column total	69	20	6	1	8	4	2

Chi-square = 32.31829 with d. f. = 24

among administrators with different numbers of credit hours of formal management or administrative education.

The demographic data questionnaire provided space for the administrators to respond with the number of credit hours they had of formal management or administrative education. For the purpose of analysis, the information provided by the respondents was grouped in increments of 10 credit hours.

Since individual leadership style scores were reported in terms of task orientation, relationship orientation, effectiveness, and leadership style, it was decided to construct four separate hypotheses dealing with the proportions of high dimension scores with respect to formal management or administrative credit hours. The statement of each hypothesis is as follows:

Hypothesis 8a. There are no significant differences in the proportions of high task orientation scores among administrators with different numbers of credit hours of formal management or administrative education.

Hypothesis 8b. There are no significant differences in the proportions of high relationship orientation scores among administrators with different numbers of credit hours of formal management or administrative education.

Hypothesis 8c. There are no significant differences in the proportions of high effectiveness scores among administrators with different numbers of credit hours of formal management or administrative education.

Hypothesis 8d. There are no significant differences in the proportions of leadership style scores among administrators with

different numbers of credit hours of formal management or administrative education.

Each of these hypotheses was tested to determine the significance of the observed differences using the chi-square test of independence.

Hypothesis 8a

There are no significant differences in the proportions of high task orientation scores among administrators with different numbers of credit hours of formal management or administrative education.

To test this hypothesis each administrator was assigned to one of the nine credit hours groups based upon the information obtained through the demographic data questionnaire. Within each group the MSDT task orientation scores were used to classify each administrator as either high task or low task oriented. This classification was based upon Reddin's (1972) suggestion regarding evaluation of the MSDT scores. A 9 x 2 chi-square analysis was performed, and the resulting contingency table is shown in Table XLIV.

The chi-square generated by the data is not significant at the 0.10 level. The null hypothesis can not be rejected, and the conclusion drawn that there is no significant difference in the proportion of high task orientation scores for administrators with different amounts of formal management or administrative education.

Hypothesis 8b

There are no significant differences in the proportions of high relationship orientation scores among administrators with different

TABLE XLIV

CONTINGENCY TABLE FOR CREDIT HOURS
GROUPS BY TASK ORIENTATION

Credit Hours	High TO	Low TO
0 - 10 Hours	12	1
11 - 20	17	5
21 - 30	18	4
31 - 40	18	1
41 - 50	9	1
51 - 60	9	0
61 - 70	4	1
71 - 80	1	1
81 or More	1	0
Column total	89	14

Chi-square = 7.58023 with d. f. = 8

numbers of credit hours of formal management or administrative education.

Each respondent as assigned to one of the nine credit hours groups based upon the information obtained through the demographic data questionnaire to test this hypothesis. Within each group the MSDT relationship orientation scores were used to classify each respondent as either high relationship or low relationship oriented. A 9 x 2 chi-square analysis was performed, and the resulting contingency table is shown in Table XLV.

The chi-square generated by the data is not significant at the 0.10 level. The null hypothesis can not be rejected, and the conclusion drawn that there is no significant difference in the proportion of high relationship orientation scores for administrators with different amounts of formal management of administrative education.

Hypothesis 8c

There are no significant differences in the proportions of high effectiveness scores among administrators with different numbers of credit hours of formal management or administrative education.

This hypothesis was tested in the same manner as Hypotheses 8a and 8b. Each administrator was assigned to one of the nine credit hours groups based upon the information obtained through the demographic data questionnaire. Within each group the MSDT effectiveness scores were used to classify each administrator as either high effectiveness or low effectiveness oriented. A 9 x 2 chi-square analysis was performed, and the resulting contingency table is shown in Table XLVI.

TABLE XLV

CONTINGENCY TABLE FOR CREDIT HOURS GROUPS BY RELATIONSHIP ORIENTATION

Credit Hours	High RO	Low RO
0 - 10 Hours	13	0
11 - 20	19	3
21 - 30	22	0
31 - 40	18	1
41 - 50	9	1
51 - 60	7	2
61 - 70	4	1
71 - 80	1	1
81 or More	1	0
Column total	94	9

Chi-square = 11.53395 with d. f. = 8

TABLE XLVI

CONTINGENCY TABLE FOR CREDIT HOURS GROUPS BY EFFECTIVENESS ORIENTATION

Credit Hours	High E	Low E
0 - 10 Hours	11	2
11 - 20	15	7
21 - 30	15	7
31 - 40	14	5
41 - 50	7	3
51 - 60	8	1
61 - 70	5	0
71 - 80	1	1
81 or More	0	1
Column total	76	27

Chi-square = 7.81441 with d. f. = 8

The chi-square generated by the data is not significant at the 0.10 level. The null hypothesis can not be rejected, and the conclusion drawn that there is no significant difference in the proportion of high effectiveness scores for administrators with different numbers of credit hours of formal management or administrative education.

Hypothesis 8d

There are no significant differences in the proportions of leadership style scores among administrators with different numbers of credit hours of formal management or administrative education.

To test this hypothesis each administrator was assigned to one of the nine credit hours groups based upon the information obtained through the demographic data questionnaire. Within each group the leadership style scores were used to classify each administrator. A 9 x 7 chi-square analysis was performed, and the resulting contingency table is shown in Table XLVII. The leadership style Bureaucrat has been omitted because there were no respondents in this category.

The chi-square generated by the data is significant at the 0.10 level. The null hypothesis can be rejected, and the conclusion drawn that there is a significant difference in the proportion of leadership style scores for administrators with different amounts of formal management or administrative education.

Summary

The findings presented in this chapter include descriptive information concerning selected professional characteristics and leadership styles of administrators as well as the statistical testing

TABLE XLVII

CONTINGENCY TABLE FOR CREDIT HOURS
GROUPS BY LEADERSHIP STYLE

Credit Hours	Executive	Compromiser	Benevolent Autocrat	Autocrat	Developer	Missionary	Deserter
0 - 10 Hours	10	2	0	0	1	0	0
11 - 20	10	5	3	0	2	2	0
21 - 30	13	5	0	0	2	2	0
31 - 40	13	4	0	1	1	0	0
41 - 50	7	2	0	0	0	0	1
51 - 60	6	1	2	0	0	0	0
61 - 70	3	0	1	0	1	0	0
71 - 80	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
81 or More	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
Column total	63	20	6	1	7	4	2

Chi-square = 61.79863 with d. f. = 48

of the hypotheses which were developed to identify significant differences between reported leadership dimensions based upon selected factors.

Seventy-five percent of the selected administrators responded to the study. The largest academic discipline group responding were administrators with backgrounds in Trade & Industrial education. The mean number of full-time employees supervised by the respondents was 21.562. Over half (52.1 percent) of the administrators have been in their current positions less than five years. The mean number of years of classroom teaching experience was 10.69 for the administrators responding to the study. The administrators reported a mean number of years in educational administration of 10.351. Less than five years of administrative experience in noneducational organizations was reported by seventy-four percent of the administrators responding to the study. Four-fifths (81.2 percent) of the respondents were male. One-third (33.3 percent) of the respondents fell into the age category of 40-49 years of age. Two-thirds of the administrators (66.7 percent) have attained Masters degrees. The mean number of credit hours reported in management or administration courses was 32.868.

In the overall study the leadership style of Executive was the most prominent. A high task orientation score was reported for 82.9 percent of the participants. A high relationship orientation score was reported for 88.0 percent of the participants.

Only four of the eight hypotheses showed significance. The analysis of Hypothesis 1d showed that there is a significant difference in the proportion of leadership style scores for administrators

with different academic discipline backgrounds. The analysis of Hypothesis 7a showed that there is a significant difference in the proportion of high task orientation scores and the educational level of the administrators. The analysis of Hypothesis 7b showed that there is a significant difference in the proportion of high relationship orientation and the educational level of the administrators. The analysis of Hypothesis 8d showed that there is a significant difference in the proportion of leadership style scores for administrators with different numbers of credit hours of management or administrative education.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The purpose of this research was to determine the leadership styles of area vocational school administrators in Oklahoma. Respondents were also asked to provide demographic data which could be used to identify certain characteristics and backgrounds of present administrators. From the information provided by the respondents a profile of the leadership styles of the area vocational school administrators in Oklahoma emerged.

The Management Style Diagnosis Test (MSDT) developed by W. J. Reddin was used to investigate the leadership styles of selected administrators in the 24 area vocational school districts in Oklahoma. The questionnaires were mailed to a total of 159 administrators who were selected to participate in the study. One hundred seventeen of the selected administrators chose to participate in the study. The MSDT questionnaires were tallied and scores for each of the three leadership dimensions were computed. The demographic data provided was used to group the participants, to stratify the groups for the analysis of the leadership data, and to provide base-line data for future studies. Using the three leadership style dimensions of Task Orientation (TO), Relationship Orientation (RO), Effectiveness (E), and overall Leadership Style as the dependent variables, the observed

differences between identified strata of selected independent variables were analyzed. The independent variables were: academic discipline groups, age, length of experience in current position, teaching experience, experience in educational administration, experience in administration in noneducational organizations, educational levels, and formal administration/management education.

The basic statistical approach employed in the study was to locate and measure the significance of differences among the various groups of participants on the three leadership style dimensions as well as on the overall leadership style. Each of the eight hypotheses were expanded to four separate hypotheses dealing with the high dimension scores of task orientation, relationship orientation, effectiveness, and overall leadership style. Four statistically significant differences were identified, indicating that real differences existed within the associated variables. There was a significant difference in the proportion of overall leadership style scores for administrators with different academic discipline backgrounds. There was a significant difference in the proportion of high task orientation scores and the educational level of the administrators. A significant difference in the proportion of high relationship orientation scores and the educational level of the administrators was also identified. There was also a significant difference in the proportion of overall leadership style scores for administrators with different numbers of credit hours of management or administrative education.

The descriptive data on the demographic data questionnaire produced some interesting information. The information provided by the

respondents regarding their titles showed that the titles of administrators in the area vocational technical schools are varied as shown in Table III. The academic discipline group with the highest number of respondents was Trade & Industrial education followed by the category of Other. The range of the number of full-time employees directly supervised by the administrators was from zero to 200. In response to the item of length of experience in current position a range of two weeks to 25 years was found. Most of the respondents had previous classroom teaching experience prior to becoming an administrator. The largest amount of classroom teaching experience reported was 40 years nine months. The range of experience in education administration reported by the respondents was from eight months to 33 years. Several of the administrators reported they had administrative experience outside of education. The range was from zero to 30 years experience. Most of the respondents were male. One-third of the respondents were in the age category of 40-49 years. It was also found that 23.1 percent were in the 50-59 age category and another 23.1 percent were in the over 60 age category. The largest number of respondents reported completing their Masters degrees. The second highest group (16.2 percent) had earned Doctors degrees. There was a wide range of credit hours in management or administration courses reported by the respondents. The range was from zero to 110 credit hours. The mean for the number of credit hours reported was 32.868. This would appear to correlate with the fact that a large percentage of the respondents have completed Masters or Doctors degrees.

Conclusions

The findings that there are significant differences in educational level of the administrators and their task orientation and relationship orientation scores appears to suggest that the coursework they have completed had an influence on their behavior as managers as scored on the MSDT. There were two significant differences in the administrators' leadership styles and other professional characteristics. One significant difference occurred within the grouping of the administrators by academic discipline background. The other significant difference occurred within the grouping of number of management or administrative credit hours completed. This would suggest that education background may affect the administrators managerial behavior as scored on the MSDT.

The leadership style of Executive was the most prominent among the respondents. This would appear to correlate with Reddin's (1970) findings that when the administrators of an organization congregate in a specific leadership style some indication is given of the organization's philosophy. The Executive leadership style is defined, by Reddin (1970), as that of an administrator who is using a high task orientation and a high relationship orientation in a situation where such behavior is appropriate and who is, therefore, more effective; perceived as a good motivating force who sets high standards, treats everyone somewhat differently, and prefers team management.

The second most prominent leadership style was Developer. This style is defined, by Reddin (1970), as that of an administrator who is using a high relationship orientation and a low task orientation in a

situation where such behavior is appropriate and who is, therefore, more effective; perceived as having implicit trust in people and as primarily concerned with developing them as individuals.

The findings of this study would appear to substantiate Stewart's (1982) comments that the success of vocational technical education in Oklahoma has been largely due to the strong leadership which has been displayed by administrators. The findings of this study would appear to refute the statement made by Bjorkquist (1982) that

> Frequently, individuals with supervisory responsibilities in vocational education have had no formal preparation for performing those functions. Most of those in vocational education who are supervising have learned through informal means and on the job (page ix).

The findings showed that a large percentage of the administrators reported having formal training in management and administrative courses as well as several years experience in administration.

Recommendations

It is recommended that further research be done in the area of leadership of area vocational technical schools in Oklahoma. One possible area of research may be to correlate the philosophy of the vocational technical education programs in Oklahoma with the leadership styles of the administrators.

This study did not delve into the prerequisites required to become an administrator of an area vocational technical school in Oklahoma. This could be another avenue for further research.

Another recommended area of further research would be to study the leadership styles of administrators of area vocational technical

schools in other states. A comparison of leadership styles of administrators in other states with administrators in Oklahoma could prove both interesting and valuable.

A SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

Abrell, Ronald L. "Educational Leadership Without Carrot and Club." The Clearing House, 52, 6 (Feb., 1979), pp. 280-285.

Argyris, C. Personality and Organization. New York: Harper & Row, 1957.

Barlow, Melvin L. History of Industrial Education in the United States. Peoria: Charles A. Bennett Co., Inc., 1967.

Barnard, Chester I. Organization and Management: Selected Papers. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1949.

Bennis, W. G., and P. T. Slater. The Temporary Society. New York: Harper & Row, 1968.

Bjorkquist, David C. Supervision in Vocational Education: Management of Human Resources. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, Inc., 1982.

Blake, R. R., J. S. Mouton, and A. C. Bidwell. "Managerial Grid." Advanced Management Office Executive, (September, 1962).

Blake, R. R., and J. S. Mouton. The New Managerial Grid. Houston: Gulf Publishing Co., 1964.

Boles, Harold W. and James A. Davenport. Introduction to Educational Leadership. Revised Edition. Lanham: University Press of America, Inc., 1983.

Brown, A. F. "Reactions to Leadership." Educational Administration Quarterly, Vol. 3, No. 1 (1967) pp. 62-73.

Bryant, Doris D. "A Comparison of the Leadership Behavior Style, Leadership Style Range and Leadership Effectiveness of Female Administrators and Teachers in Vocational Education." Doctoral dissertation, Rutgers University The State University of New Jersey, New Brunswick, 1983.

Daves, Lois Marion. "Leadership Approaches of Nonpublic School Administrators of the Upper Midwest." Doctoral dissertation, University of South Dakota, 1983.

Davies, L. W. "How Good Are The Grids?" Management, (October, 1972), pp. 353-357.

Dilworth, C.B. "Understanding the Best Approach to Educational Leadership." NASSP Bulletin, Vol. 61, No. 40B (April, 1977), pp. 41-45.

Doll, Ronald C. Leadership to Improve Schools. Worthington: Charles A. Jones Publishing Co., 1972.

Evans, Rupert N. and Edwin L. Herr. Foundations of Vocational Education. Second Edition. Columbus: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1978.

Fiedler, F. E. Theory of Leadership Effectiveness. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1967.

Firth, Gerald R. "Theories of Leadership: Where Do We Stand?" Educational Leadership, Vol. 33 No. 5 (February, 1976), pp. 327-331.

Freed, A. Marie and N. Alan Sheppard. "Leadership Style: 'The Missing Factor' in Developing Instructionally Effective Schools." Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association (Montreal, Quebec, Canada, April 11-15, 1983).

Gates, Philip E., Kenneth H. Blanchard, and Paul Hersey. "Diagnosing Educational Leadership Problems: A Situational Approach." Educational Leadership, (February, 1976), pp. 348-354.

Getzels, J. W. and E. G. Guba. "Social Behavior and the Administrative Process." School Review, Vol. 65 No. 4 (1957), pp. 423-441.

Giammatteo, Michael C. and Dolores M. Giammatteo. Forces on Leadership. Reston: The National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1981.

Gibb, C. A. "Group Psychology and the Phenomenon of Interaction." 2nd ed., Vol. 4. Edited by G. E. Lindsey and E. Aronson. Reading: Addison-Wesley, 1968.

Gilli, Angelo C., Sr. Modern Organizations of Vocational Education. University Park: The Pennsylvania State University Press, 1976.

Halpin, A. W. The Leadership Behavior of School Superintendents. 2nd Ed. Chicago: Midwest Administration Center, University of Chicago, 1959.

Halpin, Andrew W. Theory and Research in Administration. New York: The MacMillan Company, 1966.

Hersey, Paul and Kenneth H. Blanchard. "Life Cycle Theory of Leadership." Training and Development Journal, Vol. 23 No. 5 (1969) pp. 26-34.

Hershey, Paul. "Situational Leadership: Some Aspects of Its Influence on Organizational Development." Doctoral dissertation, University of Massachusetts, 1975.

Hill, Walter A. and David Hughes. "Variations in Leader Behavior as a Function of Task Type." Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, (February, 1974), pp. 83-96.

Jaccard, James. Statistics for the Behavioral Sciences. Belmont, California: Wadsworth Publishing Company, 1983.

Killian, R. A. Managers Must Lead. New York: American Management Association, 1966.

LaPiere, R. R. Collective Behavior. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1938.

Likert, R. Resolving Social Conflict. New York: Harper & Row, 1958.

Likert, R. Human Organization. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1967.

Lippitt, R. and R. K. White. "An Experiemental Study of Leadership and Group Life." in T. M. Newcomb & E. L. Hartley (Eds.) Readings in Social Psychology. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1947.

McGregor, D. V. Line Management's Responsibility for Human Relations. New York: American Management Association, 1953.

Nie, N. H., C. H. Hall, J. G. Jenkins, K. Steinbrenner, and O. H. Bent. Statistical Package for the Social Sciences. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1975.

Nystrand, Raphael O. "Leadership Theories for Principals." Theory Into Practice, Vol. 20 No. 4 (Fall, 1981), pp. 260-263.

Polk, Harold Jackson. "Characteristics of Directors of Area Vocational-Technical Schools." Doctoral dissertation, University of Missouri, Columbia, 1969.

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

Reddin, William J. Management Style Diagnosis Test. 3rd ed. Fredericton, N. B., Canada: Organizational Test, Ltd., 1972.

Reddin, William J. Manual Management Style Diagnosis Test. 3rd ed. Fredericton, N. B., Canada: Organizational Tests Ltd., 1974.

Rogers, Carl R. Freedom to Learn for the 80's. Columbus: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1983.

Rogers, Carl R. Freedom to Learn. Columbus: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1969.

Ruley, M. J. Leadership Through Supervision in Industrial Education. Bloomington: McKnight & McKnight, 1971.

Sergiovanni, Thomas J. "Leadership and Excellence in Schooling." The Education Digest, Vol. L No. 2 (October, 1984), pp. 6-9.

Shartle, C. L. Executive Performance and Leadership. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, 1956.

Silver, Paula F. Educational Administration: Theoretical Perspectives on Practice and Research. New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1983.

Staw, Barry M. and Jerry Ross. "Commitment in an Experimenting Society: A Study of the Attribution of Leadership from Administrative Scenarios." Journal of Applied Psychology, (June, 1980), pp. 249-260.

Stewart, Roy P. Programs for People. Oklahoma City: Western Heritage Books, Inc., 1982.

Stogdill, Ralph M. Handbook of Leadership: A Survey of Theory and Research. New York: The Free Press, 1974.

Stogdill, Ralph M. and A. E. Coons (Eds.). Leader Behavior: Its Description and Measurement. Columbus: Ohio State University Press, Bureau of Business Research, 1957.

Tead, O. The Art of Leadership. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1935.

Todd, Robert Patton. "Leadership Styles and Characteristics of Oklahoma State-Supported Two-Year College Division/Department Chairpersons." Doctoral dissertation, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, 1977.

Trusty, Francis M. Administering Human Resources. Berkeley: McCutchan Publishing Corp., 1971.

U. S. Congress. Vocational Education Act 1963. PL88-910. 88th Congress.

The Vo-Tech Personnel Directory 1984-85. Stillwater: Systems Design and Computer Services, 1984.

Vroom, Victor H. and Phillip W. Yetton. Leadership and Decision-Making. Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh Press, 1973.

Weber, Clarence A. and Mary E. Weber. Fundamentals of Educational Leadership. New York: Exposition Press, 1955.

Wenrich, Ralph C. and J. William Wenrich. Leadership in Administration of Vocational and Technical Education. Columbus: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1974.

APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

DEMOGRAPHIC DATA QUESTIONNAIRE

DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

CHARACTERISTICS OF VOCATIONAL ADMINISTRATORS
AND LEADERSHIP STYLES

A. Current Job Title: _____

B. Academic Discipline: Indicate classification below:

Vocational Agriculture ____, Business & Office ____,

DE/Marketing ____, Health Occupations ____, Home Economics ____,

Industrial Arts ____, Trade & Industrial ____, Other ____

Specify: _____

C. Number Full-Time Employees Directly Supervised (Not Students or Secretary): _____

D. Experience in Current Position: _____ years _____ months

E. Teaching Experience (Full-time classroom teaching):

_____ years _____ months

F. Experience in Educational Administration (Full-time):

_____ years _____ months

G. Administrative Experience Outside of Education (Full-time administrative--not summer):

_____ years _____ months

H. Sex: Male ___, Female ___,

I. Age: ____ 30-39, _____ 40-49, _____ 50-59, _____ over 60

J. Highest Degree: Less than Bachelor's ___, Bachelors ___,

Master's ____, Doctoral Course Work Completed ___, Doctorate ___

Highest degree held in: _____

K. Number of Formal Graduate Hours in Management or Administration:

_____ credit hours

APPENDIX B

MANAGEMENT STYLE DIAGNOSIS TEST

AND SCORING PROCEDURE

MANAGEMENT STYLE DIAGNOSIS TEST

The Management Style Diagnosis Test is designed solely for use by managers. It enables them to look closely at their unique style of on-the-job behavior and provides them with valuable insights about it. The test is directly related to the 3-D Theory of Managerial Effectiveness and has been widely tested in business, government, and universities. Over 100,000 managers have taken it. The test takes about 20 minutes to answer and score.

INSTRUCTIONS

Look at the 64 pairs of statements in the Questionnaire. If you think the first statement of a pair is the one that best applies to you, circle a. If you think the second statement is the one that best applies to you, circle b. When you have finished, each item will have either an a or a b circled.

EXAMPLE

The first pair of statements is:

a. I overlook violations of rules if I an sure that no one else knows of the violations.

b. When I announce an unpopular decision, I may explain to my subordinates that my own boss has made the decision.

If you think that statement a is a better description of your behavior than b, circle a. If you think that statement b applies, circle b.

To decide which statement best applies, ask yourself: Of the two statements given, which best describes what I actually do on the job I now have? It may be helpful, in difficult cases, to answer as someone would who really knew and understood your present approach to your job.

Some statments you may find a little ambiguous, sometimes both will apply, often neither will seem to apply. However, in every case, pick the one statement that best describes you at present, if you were faced with the circumstances described.

MANAGEMENT STYLE DIAGNOSIS TEST

1. a. I overlook violations of rules if I am sure that no one else knows of the violations.

   b. When I announce an unpopular decision, I may explain to my subordinates that my own boss has made the decision.

2. a. If an employee's work is continually unsatisfactory, I will wait for an opportunity to have the person transferred rather than dismiss him/her.

   b. If one of my subordinates is not a part of the group, I will go out of my way to have the others befriend him/her.

3. a. When the boss gives an unpopular order, I think it is fair that it should carry the boss's name and not my own.

   b. I usually reach my decisions independently and then inform my subordinates of them.

4. a. If I am reprimanded by my superiors, I call my subordinates together and passes it on to them.

   b. I always give the most difficult jobs to my most experienced workers.

5. a. I allow discussions to get off the point quite frequently.

   b. I encourage subordinates to make suggestions, but do not often initiate action from them.

6. a. I sometimes think that my own feelings and attitudes are as important as the job.

   b. I allow my subordinates to participate in decision making and always abide by the decision of the majority.

7. a. When the quality or quantity of departmental work is not satisfactory, I explain to my subordinates that my own boss is not satisfied and that they must improve their work.

   b. I reach my decisions independently and then try to "sell" them to my subordinates.

8. a. When I announce an unpopular decision, I may explain to my subordinates that my own boss has made the decision.

   b. I may allow my subordinates to participate in decision making, but I reserve the right to make the final decision.

9. a. I may give difficult jobs to inexperienced subordinates, but if they get into trouble I will relieve them of the responsibility.

   b. When the quality or quantity of departmental work is not satisfactory, I explain to my subordinates that my own boss is not satisfied and that they must improve their work.

10. a. I feel it is as important for my subordinates to like me as it is for them to work hard.

    b. I let other people handle jobs by themselves, even though they may make mistakes.

11. a. I show an interest in my subordinates' personal lives because I feel they expect it of me.

    b. I feel it is not always necessary for subordinates to understand why they do something as long as they do it.

12. a. I believe that disciplining subordinates will not improve the quality or quantity of work in the long run.

    b. When confronted with a difficult problem, I attempt to reach a solution which will be at least partly acceptable to all concerned.

13. a. I think that some of my subordinates are unhappy and try to do something about it.

    b. I look after my own work and feel it is up to higher management to develop new ideas.

14. a. I am in favor of increased fringe benefits for management and labor.

    b. I show concern for increasing my subordinates' knowledge of the job and the company, even though it is not necessary in their present position.

15. a. I let other people handle jobs by themselves, even though they may make mistakes.

    b. I make decisions independently, but may consider reasonable suggestions from my subordinates to improve them if I ask for them.

16. a. If one of my subordinates is not a part of the group, I will go out of my way to have the others befriend him/her.

    b. When an employee is unable to complete a task I help him to arrive at a solution.

17. a. I believe that one of the uses of discipline is to set an example for other workers.

    b. I sometimes thinks that my own feelings and attitudes are as important as the job.

18. a. I disapprove of unnecessary talking among my subordinates while they are working.

    b. I am in favor of increased fringe benefits for management and labor.

19. a. I am always aware of lateness and absenteeism.

    b. I believe that unions may try to undermine the authority of management.

20. a. I sometimes oppose union grievances as a matter of principle.

    b. I feel that grievances are inevitable and try to smooth them over as best I can.

21. a. It is important to me to get credit for my own good ideas.

    b. I voice my own opinions in public only if I feel that others will agree with me.

22. a. I believe that unions may try to undermine the authority of management.

    b. I believe that frequent conferences with individuals are helpful in their development.

23. a. I feel it is not always necessary for subordinates to understand why they do something, as long as they do it.

    b. I feel that time clocks reduce tardiness.

24. a. I usually reach my decisions independently and then inform my subordinates of them.

    b. I feel that unions and management are working towards similar goals.

25. a. I favor the use of individual incentive payment schemes.

    b. I allow discussions to get off the point quite frequently.

26. a. I take pride in the fact that I would not usually ask someone to do a job I would not do myself.

    b. I think that some of my subordinates are unhappy and try to do something about it. 27. a. If a job is urgent, I might go ahead and tell someone to do it, even though additional safety equipment is needed.

27. a. If a job is urgent, I might go ahead and tell someone to do it, even thouigh additional safety equipment is needed.

    b. It is important to me to get credit for my own good ideas.

28. a. My goal is to get the work done without antagonizing anyone more than I have to.

    b. I may assign jobs without much regard for experience or ability, but insist on getting results.

29. a. I may assign jobs without much regard for experience or ability, but insist on getting results.

    b. I listen patiently to complaints and grievances, but often do little to rectify them.

30. a. I feel that grievances are inevitable and try to smooth them over as best I can.

    b. I am confident that my subordinates will do satisfactory work without any pressure from me.

31. a. When confronted with a difficult problem I attempt to reach a solution which will be at least partly acceptable to all concerned.

    b. I believe that training through on-the-job experience is more useful than theoretical education.

32. a. I always give the most difficult jobs to my most experienced workers.

    b. I believe in promotion only in accordance with ability.

33. a. I feel that problems among my workers will usually solve themselves without interference from me.

    b. If I am reprimanded by my superiors, I call my subordinates together and pass it on to them.

34. a. I am not concerned with what my employees do outside of working hours.

    b. I believe that disciplining subordinates will not improve the quality or quantity of their work in the long run.

35. a. I pass no more information to higher management than they ask for.

    b. I sometimes oppose union grievances as a matter of principle.

36. a. I sometimes hesitate to make a decision which will be unpopular with my subordinates.

    b. My goal is to get the work done without antagonizing anyone more than I have to.

37. a. I listen patiently to complaints and grievances, but often do little to rectify them.

    b. I sometimes hesitate to make a decision which I feel will be unpopular with my subordinates.

38. a. I voice my own opinions in public only if I feel that others will agree with me.

    b. Most of my subordinates could carry on their jobs without me if necessary.

39. a. I look after my own work and feel it is up to higher management to develop new ideas.

    b. When I give orders, I set a time limit for them to be carried out.

40. a. I encourage subordinates to make suggestions, but do not often initiate action from them.

    b. I try to put my workers at ease when talking to them.

41. a. In discussion, I present the facts as I see them and leave others to draw their own conclusions.

    b. When the boss gives an unpopular order, I think it is fair that it should carry the boss's name and not my own.

42. a. When unwanted work has to be done, I ask for volunteers before assigning it.

    b. I show an interest in my subordinates' personal lives because I feel they expect it of me.

43. a. I am as much interested in keeping my employees happy as in getting them to do their work.

    b. I am always aware of lateness and absenteeism.

44. a. Most of my subordinates could carry on their jobs without me if necessary.

    b. If a job is urgent, I might go ahead and tell someone to do it, even though additional safety equipment is needed.

45. a. I am confident that my subordinates will do satisfactory work without any pressure from me.

    b. I pass no more information to higher management than they ask for.

46. a. I believe that frequent conferences with individuals are helpful in their development.

    b. I am as much interested in keeping my employees happy as in getting them to do their work.

47. a. I show concern for increasing my subordinates' knowledge of the job and the company, even though it is not necessary in their present position.

    b. I keep a very close watch on workers who get behind or do unsatisfactory work.

48. a. I allow my subordinates to participate in decision making and always abide by the decision of the majority.

    b. I make my subordinates work hard, but try to make sure that they usually get a fair deal from higher management.

49. a. I feel that all workers on the same job should receive the same pay.

    b. If any employee's work is continually unsatisfactory, I would wait for an opportunity to have the person transferred rather than dismiss him/her.

50. a. I feel that the goals of union and management are in opposition, but try not to make my view obvious.

    b. I feel it is as important for my subordinates to like me as it is for them to work hard.

51. a. I keep a very close watch on workers who get behind or do unsatisfactory work.

    b. I disapprove of unnecessary talking among my subordinates while they are working.

52. a. When I give orders, I set a time limit for them to be carried out.

    b. I take pride in the fact that I would not usually ask someone to do a job I would not do myself.

53. a. I believe that training through on-the-job experience is more useful than theoretical education.

    b. I am not concerned with what my employees do outside of working hours.

54. a. I feel that time clocks reduce tardiness.

    b. I allow my subordinates to participate in decision making and always abide by the decision of the majority.

55. a. I make decisions independently, but may consider reasonable suggestions from my subordinates to improve them if I ask for them.

    b. I feel that the goals of union and management are in opposition, but try not to make my view obvious.

56. a. I reach my decisions independently and then try to "sell" them to my subordinates.

    b. When possible, I form work teams out of people who are already good friends.

57. a. I would not hesitate to hire a handicapped worker if I felt he/she could learn the job.

    b. I overlook violations of rules if I am sure that no one else knows of the violations.

58. a. When possible, I form work teams out of people who are already good friends.

    b. I may give difficult jobs to inexperienced subordinates, but if they get in trouble I will relieve them of the responsibility.

59. a. I make my subordinates work hard, but try to make sure that they usually get a fair deal from higher management.

    b. I believe that one of the uses of discipline is to set an example for other workers.

60. a. I try to put my workers at ease when talking to them.

    b. I favor the use of individual incentive payment schemes.

61. a. I believe in promotion only in accordance with ability.

    b. I feel that problems among my workers will usually solve themselves without interference from me.

62. a. I feel that unions and management are working towards similar goals.

    b. In discussion, I present the facts as I see them and leave others to draw their own conclusions.

63. a. When an employee is unable to complete a task, I help him to arrive at a solution.

    b. I feel that all workers on the same job should receive the same pay.

64. a. I may allow my subordinates to participate in decision making, but I reserve the right to make the final decision.

    b. I would not hesitate to hire a handicapped workers if I felt he/she could learn the job.

Step 1:
Total the A's
in each
Horizontal Row

A _____	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
B _____	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
C _____	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24
D _____	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32
E _____	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40
F _____	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48
G _____	49	50	51	52	53	54	55	56
H _____	57	58	59	60	61	62	63	64

Step 2:
Total the B's
in each
Vertical Column _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ _____

Step 3:
Step 1 Totals _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ _____

Step 4:
Step 2 plus 3 _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ _____

Step 5:
Adjustment Factor ____ _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ _____

Step 6:
Step 4 plus 5
(Style Profile) _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ _____
A B C D E F G H

DIMENSION SCORES

Task Orientation:

TO = C + D + G + H = _____

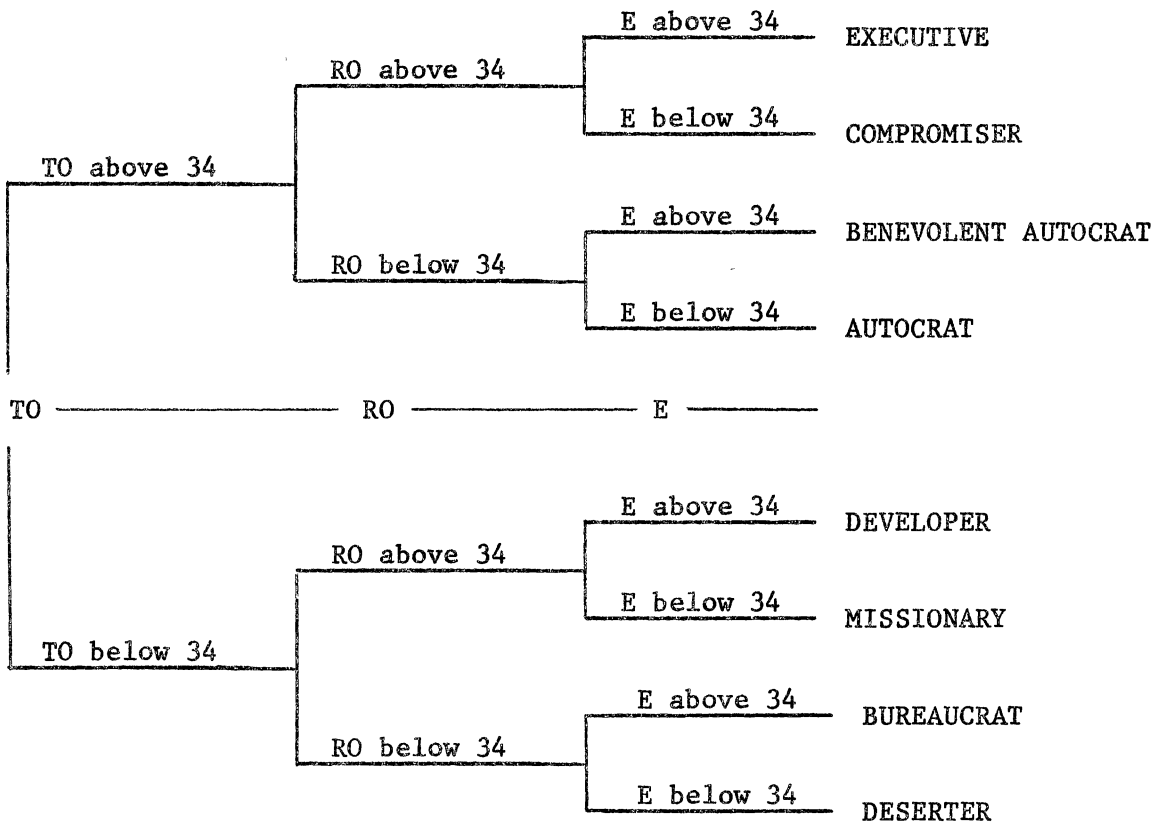
Relationship Orientation:

RO = B + D + F + H = _____

Effectiveness:

E = E + F + G + H = _____

LEADERSHIP STYLE SYNTHESIS



APPENDIX C

LETTERS TO SELECTED ADMINISTRATORS

OKLAHOMA STATE DEPARTMENT OF VOCATIONAL AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION
FRANCIS TUTTLE, DIRECTOR • 1515 WEST SIXTH AVE., • STILLWATER, OKLAHOMA 74074 • A C. (405) 377-2000

February 5, 1985

Dear Vocational Administrator:

Lois Sharpton, a doctoral student in Occupational and Adult Education at Oklahoma State University, is conducting a study which will be of interest to vocational administrators in our state. She has asked for our assistance. The enclosed questionaire is a survey of leadership styles. The surveys are not coded in any way so you or your school will not be identified. The survey will take about 20 minutes of your time but I suspect you will find it interesting.

I know you have responded many times in the past to requests from doctoral students and that your time is valuable but hope you will find the time to assist this student in her work.

Sincerely,

Roy Peters, Jr.

Roy Peters, Jr.
Associate Director

Enclosures

February 5, 1985

Dear :

The significant growth and changes experienced in the Oklahoma Area Vocational Technical school system requires dynamic leadership. Since some have suggested that administrative personnel are the key to an effectively functioning vocational school, the demand for leadership at this level is critical. As a result of the need to develop such leadership and my interest in leadership of vocational education in Oklahoma, I am undertaking a study of leadership styles of administrative personnel in Oklahoma Area Vocational Technical schools. I believe the results might contribute to the success of those seeking leadership positions in the administration of Oklahoma Area Vocational Technical Schools.

Let me assure you that your responses will be kept confidential. The questionnaire is not coded in any way. Neither you nor your school will be identified in the written results of this project. If you desire the results of your personal leadership style and/or a copy of the abstract of the results please fill in the form on the last page of the questionnaire.

Your willingness to participate in the study is certainly appreciated. Thank you in advance.

Sincerely,

Lois Sharpton

Enclosures

February 15, 1985

Dear :

Approximately two weeks ago you should have received a questionnaire regarding leadership style of Area Vocational Technical School Administrators in Oklahoma. Some of the questionnaires were damaged in the mail. If you have not received your questionnaire please let me know and I will send you another. If you have received your questionnaire I would appreciate your taking the time to complete and return it.

The questionnaires are not coded in any way so you may have returned your questionnaire already. If you have returned it let me take this opportunity to thank you for your cooperation and quick response.

Sincerely,

Lois Sharpton

February 15, 1985

Dear :

Thank you so much for your prompt response. An analysis of your leadership style has been completed, your style was _____. Enclosed is a sheet with a brief summary of the MSDT, and the definitions of the eight leadership styles it measures.

I am hoping to complete the study in May, 1985. Your copy of the abstract should be arriving during the summer months.

Again I want to thank you for your cooperation.

Sincerely,

Lois Sharpton

Enclosure

The 3-D Theory of Managerial Effectiveness is based on the concept that there are two main elements in managerial behavior; the task to be done and the relationships with other people. These two elements of behavior can be used in small or large amounts and managers sometimes emphasize one and sometimes emphasize the other. Some managers have learned that to be effective they must sometimes create an atmosphere which will induce self-motivation among their subordinates and sometimes act in ways that appear either hard or soft. At other times, they must quietly efface themselves for a while and appear to do nothing. It would seem more accurate to say, then, that any basic style may be used more or less effectively, depending on the situation.

Styles are best seen in relation to specific situations. Any style has a situation appropriate to it, and many situations inappropriate to it. The added third dimension of appropriateness of style to situation results in effectiveness. In the space of a day an effective manager may well use all eight basic styles when dealing with such a variety as a dependent subordinate, an aggressive pair of coworkers, a secretary whose work has deteriorated, and his superior who is interested only in the immediate task at hand. The effectiveness of any behavior depends on the situation in which it is used.

The Management Style Diagnosis Test (MSDT) was developed to identify styles of managers and of organizations. Through an analysis of the answers selected from the MSDT questionnaire, the test measures a manager's perception of his/her management style in the present job. The test does not reveal managers as autocrats or some other style--only that they describe their behavior that way. Managers who change their jobs and take the test again usually score differently. As the job demands change, so does the style to deal with them. The MSDT provides the manager with his/her style profile.

The various styles and their definitions are as follows.

Autocrat is a manager who is using a high Task Orientation and a low Relationships Orientation in a situation where such behavior is inappropriate and who is, therefore, less effective; perceived as having no confidence in others, as unpleasant, and as interested only in the immediate task.

Benevolent Autocrat is a manager who is using a high Task Orientation and a low Relationships Orientation in a situation where such behavior is appropriate and who is, therefore, more effective; perceived as knowing what he wants and how to get it without creating resentment.

Bureaucrat is a manager who is using a low Task Orientation and a low Relationships Orientation in a situation where such behavior is appropriate and who is, therefore, more effective; perceived as being primarily interested in rules and procedures for their own sake, as wanting to control the situation by their use, and as conscientious.

Compromiser is a manager who is using a high Task Orientation and a high Relationships Orientation in a situation that requires a high orientation to only one or neither and who is, therefore, less effective; perceived as being a poor decision maker, and one who allows various pressures in the situation to influence him too much, and as avoiding or minimizing immediate pressures and problems rather than maximizing long-term production.

Developer is a manager who is using a high Relationships Orientation and a low Task Orientation in a situation where such behavior is appropriate and who is, therefore more effective; perceived as having implicit trust in people and as being primarily concerned with developing them as individuals.

Deserter is a manager who is using a low Task Orientation and a low Relationships Orientation in a situation where such behavior is inappropriate and who is, therefore, less effective; perceived as uninvolved and passive or negative.

Executive is a manager who is using a high Task Orientation and a high Relationships Orientation in a situation where such behavior is appropriate and who is, therefore, more effective; perceived as a good motivating force who sets high standards, treats everyone somewhat differently, and prefers team management.

Missionary is a manager who is using a high Relationships Orientation and a low Task Orientation in a situation where such behavior is inappropriate and who is, therefore, less effective; perceived as being primarily interested in harmony.

APPENDIX D

ILLUSTRATION OF RELATIONSHIP ORIENTATION AND TASK ORIENTATION

TABLE XLVIII

RELATIONSHIP ORIENTATION

TO	Frequency	Percent
High	103	88.0
Low	9	7.7
Missing Data	5	4.3
Total	117	100.0

TABLE XLIX

TASK ORIENTATION

RO	Frequency	Percent
High	97	82.9
Low	15	12.8
Missing Data	5	4.3
Total	117	100.0

VITA

Lois Faye Hartung Sharpton

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Education

Thesis: LEADERSHIP STYLES OF ADMINISTRATIVE PERSONNEL IN THE AREA VOCATIONAL SCHOOLS IN THE STATE OF OKLAHOMA

Major Field: Occupational and Adult Education

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Glencoe, Oklahoma, October 31, 1941, the daughter of Claudie Vernon and Sadie Faye Hartung.

Education: Graduated from Mulvane High School, Mulvane, Kansas, in May, 1959; received Bachelor of Science Degree in Business Education from Phillips University in Enid, Oklahoma in May, 1962; received Master of Education degree from Phillips University in Enid, Oklahoma in April, 1975; completed requirements for the Doctor of Education degree at Oklahoma State University in July, 1985.

Professional Experience: Teaching Associate, Affirmative Action, Oklahoma State University, August 1984 to present; Senior Secretary, Oklahoma Council on Economic Education, August, 1981 to June, 1985; Instructor, O. T. Autry Area Vocational Technical Center, Enid, Oklahoma, August, 1971 to May, 1981; Secretary, O. T. Autry Area Vocational Technical Center, July, 1967 to July, 1971; Secretary, Nigh Savings, Inc., November, 1964 to July, 1967.

Professional Organizations: Kappa Delta Pi - Honor Society; Phi Delta Kappa; American Business Women's Association; and Business and Professional Women