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LEADERSHIP STYLE DISTRIBUTIONS:
A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATORS
AND THE CORPORATE SECTOR

by
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A dissertation submitted to the Department of Education
and The Graduate School of the University of Wyoming
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
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DOCTOR OF EDUCATION
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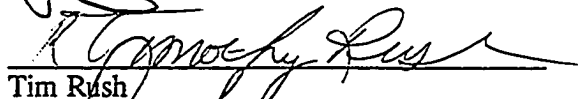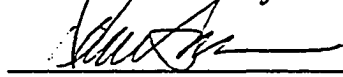300 North Zeeb Road
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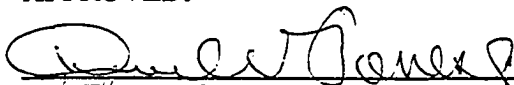
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The topic of this dissertation is leadership styles of district administrators in public education. The primary purpose of the study was to investigate the distributions of leadership styles of district administrators in comparison to corporate sector individuals.

A review of the literature centered on determining effective components of instruments that measure and define leadership styles. Four constructs recommended instruments that distinguish between task and relationships, do not emphasize a preferred style, include perceptions by others, and measure adaptability.

The Wilson Social Styles Profile was used as the data collection instrument that met the criteria of the four constructs. The Profile distributes styles into the four categories of driver, analytical, amiable, and expressive. The chi-square statistical test was used to test null hypotheses in seven areas of comparison. Data for significant levels of difference (.05) were reported for style distributions for age and tell and ask style orientations.

A second purpose of the study was to determine relationships between versatility, perception, and effectiveness in the success of district administrators. The Pearson r coefficient of correlation was used to compare the variables. The data collected substantiated correlations between versatility and effectiveness and between perception and effectiveness.

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The conclusions of the primary study emphasize that district administrators included in this study represent a different style distribution classification than the various corporate sector groups in the comparison. District administrators exhibited a tell orientation that was people directed. These administrators contained a high percentage of the expressive style that was most predominant in administrators who were less than 50 years in age.

The second part of this study concluded that the degrees of versatility and accuracy of how others viewed their styles were each related to the perceived effectiveness of district administrators.

The recommendations centered on administrator training on style identification, versatility growth, teaming, and the ramifications of uneven style distributions in educational systems.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

Reasons for the Inquiry

This study centers around the leadership styles of public school district administrators. The study investigates the distribution of different leadership styles and the effectiveness of district administrators in relation to style perceptions and adaptability.

Initiating this investigation was due to a perceived difference between two groups in relation to the percentage of individuals with different styles of leadership. The initial comparison was between a nationally normed large sample of individuals in the private sector and a small sample of University of Wyoming doctoral cohort groups specializing in educational leadership.

The instrument utilized by both groups was the Wilson Social Styles Profile (1991). This instrument is used to determine leadership styles and designates an individual as being in one of four style categories. The four style categories are referred to as driver, analytical, expressive, and amiable.

The statistically expected distribution in the national sample provides an equal percentage of individuals in each of the four styles. The private sector percentages, as reported by Wilson Learning Corporation (1991), are close to the expected distribution of frequency in each style. The doctoral cohort group percentage differed from the expected and private sector distributions. The following breakdown demonstrates a comparison between the expected distribution and the cohort group distribution of the four style categories.

Table 1

Leadership Style Percentage Comparison Between Expected Distribution and

Doctoral Cohort Distribution

	Style 1 (Driver)	Style 2 (Analytical)	Style 3 (Expressive)	Style 4 (Amiable)
Expected Distribution	25%	25%	25%	25%
Cohort Group Distribution	9%	9%	64%	18%

This comparison demonstrates a large percentage difference between the expected distribution and the cohort group distribution. This discrepancy was used as a basis for further investigation into whether this difference between style distribution is an isolated occurrence or a substantiated difference between the private sector and leaders in public education.

Leadership Style Background

One of the reasons for the success of leaders in education revolves around perception. Leaders who understand how others perceive their daily interactions and level of effectiveness are more likely to be successful (Cawelti, 1992). Many psychologists propose that the real person is defined through his/her predominant behaviors. One manner in which individuals gain a stronger insight into how others perceive them is by understanding one's style (Merrill and Reid, 1981).

Theorists who have studied social behaviors and characteristics have espoused the view that there are distinct behavior patterns exhibited by leaders. These patterns are commonly referred to as social styles (Merrill and Reid, 1981). The evolutionary history of leadership theories and styles has gradually centered on four style theory elements: (a) task and human relations, (b) perception by employees, (c) decision making, (d) and risk taking (Arter, 1990).

Over the past several decades numerous style instruments have been developed and used primarily by the private sector to determine the specific style exhibited by an individual. One basic objective of these instruments is to help individuals gain an understanding of their style (Vestor and Leslie, 1991). One form of current leadership style instruments provides a self-rating that provides personal awareness of one's style. A second style instrument provides both a self-report and a peer or employee report by several individuals. This multidimensional reporting provides an individual with a better understanding of the difference between how a person perceives himself/herself and how others perceive him/her.

A key element in leadership effectiveness and success is directly related to how accurately an individual understands how s/he is perceived by others (Merrill and Reid, 1981). Leadership style instruments can be a source for gaining such a perception.

Review of the Literature

The purpose for the review of the literature was to ascertain if there are studies and research that compare style distribution between the private sector

and leaders in public education. The review also surveys the evolutionary history of leadership style theory, the development of instruments that differentiate between styles, the components of instruments that are commonly utilized and viewed as effective, and an overview of social style theory as it relates to leader effectiveness.

Statement of the Purpose

The purpose of this study was to determine if the distribution of leadership styles of district administrators in public education was different from leadership styles in the private/corporate sector. Preliminary data collected from the University of Wyoming doctoral cohort groups suggest that there may be a difference between the style distributions of the two groups.

A second part of the study analyzed the areas of versatility (adaptability), difference between self and others perception of style, and perceived effectiveness. Comparisons were made between the three variables to determine possible correlations.

Statement of the Problem

The preliminary data suggest that there was a difference between the style distributions of the University of Wyoming cohort sample group (educational leaders) and the corporate sector. The study investigated this potential difference and determined if there was a tendency for leaders in public education to have a significantly different (.05) leadership style percentage distribution than sampled populations in the corporate sector.

Importance of the Study

This study investigated the possibility of a prevalent style or style group orientation that may exist for leaders in public education. If a prevalent style or orientation is substantiated for educational leaders it would be important to examine the inherent ramification of not having an even distribution in each of the four styles.

The behavior characteristics of each separate style demonstrate that individuals with different styles tend to behave and react differently to the same situation (Merrill and Reid, 1981). This premise suggests that there may be limitations to how a group of individuals with the same style approach a situation. Current research and thinking on team learning (Senge, 1990) and team effectiveness (Wilson Learning Corporation, 1991) suggest that teams of individuals with the same vision, yet with varying styles and modes of thinking, have a greater potential for developing a quality product.

The second area that may be important to study further is style orientation. Two styles together form the following style orientation groupings: tell versus ask orientations and task versus relationship orientations. The preliminary data on educational leaders (Table 1) demonstrate a predominant tell and relationship orientation. If a similar distribution is substantiated with targeted district administrators, it would be important to determine if the lack of task and ask orientations affect how organizations operate.

A second component of the study compared versatility (adaptability), effectiveness, and perception. If there is any correlation, it may be beneficial to

explore training opportunities that enhance improvement in any of the three areas.

Research Methods

This study utilized the Wilson Social Styles Profile (1991) as the instrument to collect data on leadership styles, style orientations, and versatility for district administrators in Wyoming and Wisconsin (n = 50). This is the same instrument used for the private sector participants (n = 114,062), and the University of Wyoming Cohort group (n = 32). The Wilson Social Styles Profile provides both a self-reporting and an others-reporting and includes an adaptability rating referred to as versatility.

The instrument was distributed to all district administrators in Wyoming and to district administrators in a section of northeast Wisconsin in an attempt to gather a sample size of at least fifty individuals. This study compared the data from district administrators included in the sample population to data from the overall corporate sector. It also compared district administrators with two sub-populations of the corporate sector: executives and human relations positions. A final comparison was made between district administrators and a sub-section of the corporate sector in relation to age.

A second part of the study utilized: (a) an instrument adapted from the AASA Standards for the Superintendency (Hoyle, 1993) that provides a rating on district administrator effectiveness, (b) a rating for versatility provided through the use of the Wilson Social Styles Profile (1991), (c) and a rating developed for this study which measures how closely district administrators perceive their

style in comparison to how other people perceive their style. Data from the three ratings were correlated.

Definition of the Terms

The following terms associated with the Wilson Social Style Profile (1991) were used throughout the study.

A style is a predominant behavior pattern that is exhibited by an individual and is constant in nature. In this study, leadership style and social style will be used interchangeably. An individual's social style is the style through which s/he leads others (Merrill and Reid,1981).

The four social styles are labeled amiable, analytical, driver, and expressive. Individuals with an amiable style are often perceived as quiet, unassuming, and supportive. They are seen as warm, friendly listeners who get along with people easily. Individuals with an analytical style are often perceived as deliberate, constrained, and logical and as listeners who follow procedures, weigh all alternatives, and remain steadfast in purpose. The driver style includes individuals who are perceived as businesslike and result-oriented and as people who like to take initiative. Expressive style individuals are perceived as aggressive, inspiring, and emotional. They are seen as people who feel comfortable taking social initiative.

The relationship orientation includes the amiable and expressive styles. This style orientation includes individuals who give more importance to relationships with co-workers than to tasks. The task orientation includes the driver and analytical styles. These individuals often start with tasks before relationships.

The tell orientation includes the driver and expressive styles. These individuals are more likely to tell others how something should be accomplished before asking for opinions. Ask oriented individuals included in the analytical and amiable styles are more likely to get others involved in helping make decisions. Versatility is referred to as the degree to which an individual is perceived as adapting his or her behavior to meet the concern and expectations of others.

Limitations of the Study

The limitations of the primary study revolve around the sample size and instrument return rate, the selection of raters, and reliability of style outcome.

A sample size of fifty was difficult to obtain due to the number of instruments that each participant was asked to return. Each individual style study requires five ratings by others and one self-rating by the participant. A style study may be completed with three raters but some reliability is sacrificed.

The instrument guidelines ask each participant to select a cross-section of superiors, peers, and subordinates as raters. Data may be somewhat different due to the fact that subordinates tend to rate superiors as more task- and tell-oriented due to role differences (Wilson Learning Corporation, 1991). If district administrators are unable to obtain the preferred cross-section, the ratings could be somewhat skewed in a certain direction.

The reliability of style outcome is approximately eighty percent (Wilson Learning Corporation, 1991). This means that, if given five times to different raters, the style will be measured the same four of those five times. While this style outcome reliability rate would be reflected for both groups, there is a

chance that this percentage could be proportionately higher or lower with a small sample group.

A limitation of the second part of the study centers around the comparison of versatility, effectiveness, and perception. As a part of the Wilson Social Styles Profile (1991), the versatility rating is validated. The perceived effectiveness and perception ratings for district administrators are designed for use in this study and are not validated.

Null Hypotheses

Data collected from the primary study will support or fail to support the following null hypotheses:

1. The leadership style distribution of district administrators is not significantly different from:

    a. the overall style distribution in the corporate sector.

    b. the style distribution of executives in the corporate sector.

    c. the style distribution of corporate sector individuals in people - oriented positions.

    d. the style distribution by age in a sub-section of the overall corporate sector.

2. The leadership style distribution between task and relationships orientations for district administrators is not significantly different from the same orientations in the corporate sector.

3. The leadership style distribution between tell and ask distributions for district administrators is not significantly different from the same orientations in the corporate sector.

Data collected from a second part of the study will support or fail to support the following null hypotheses:

1. The versatility ratings of district administrators is not significantly different from the versatility ratings in the corporate sector.

2. District administrator versatility ratings are not significantly related to effectiveness and/or perception ratings.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

The overall emphasis of this review of literature and research was to determine if there is a preferred social style that equates with effective leadership. The review covers a history of leadership theories and definitions that has led to a wide gamut of instruments and models that attempt to identify effective leadership through the use of traits, behaviors, personality types, skills, styles, and/or situations.

In the search for a preferred leadership dimension, numerous questions surface that will be addressed. Is there a leadership theory that is commonly accepted by current researchers? What kind of leadership effectiveness instruments have been developed? Is there a predominant leadership model that is more commonly accepted by practitioners? Is it possible to identify certain types of personal leadership styles? Are there any indications that there is a preferred style of leadership that equates with effectiveness on the job? Is it more important to understand the situation or the personal social style? Do certain leadership styles positively affect the productivity of others? Is leadership ability learned or partly innate?

This review traced its way through an evolutionary history of leadership that provides a framework for helping determine if there is a leadership theory, approach, model, and/or instruments that can be best utilized to determine if there is a preferred leadership style that is more effective.

Review of the Literature

Section I provides an historical perspective of the research on leadership theory. Four constructs are formulated that reflect the current research and thinking on what constitute the elements of instruments that measure effective leadership. Section II provides a review of the current literature on leadership theory and instruments. The four constructs are tested through this review. Section III provides a comprehensive survey of the contemporary leadership feedback instruments that utilize the findings of the four constructs. Section IV introduces the social styles theory. A social styles instrument has been developed that utilizes the four constructs in a unique manner which provides leaders with feedback on their effectiveness in relating to others. Section V provides an overview of the research on the Wilson Social Styles Profile.

Section I: Leadership Theory Research

The nature of leadership has been an area of considerable attention, debate and overall reflection. Several psychological theories of the 1900's have led to the concept of leadership style that embodies the way in which a person leads. Leadership style will be investigated after the general area of leadership has been explored.

Definitions of leadership abound. It appears that few agree on a definition of leadership or what constitutes leadership:

1. Leadership is power-based predominantly on personal characteristics, usually normative in nature (Etzioni, 1961).

2. The leader is the individual in the group given the task of directing and coordinating task-related group activities (Fiedler, 1967).

3. Leadership is the initiation of a new structure or procedure for accomplishing an organization's goals and objectives or for changing an organization's goals or objectives (Lipham, 1964).

There are a myriad of variables involved in leadership. Hence, the overall concept of leadership is extremely elusive due to factors such as behaviors, position, the situation, and the individual characteristics of a specific leader.

One of the initial theories on leading is referred to as the leader trait approach or the great man theory (Hoy and Miskel, 1987). It was the predominant theory used for study before the 1950's. Basically, researchers tried to determine specific traits or characteristics that separated effective leaders from their followers.

Both Stogdill (1981) and Mann (cited in Hoy and Miskel, 1987) reviewed numerous studies using identified traits. They concluded that the trait approach by itself yielded negligible and confusing results. These early attempts which tried to use leadership traits to differentiate followers from leaders proved to be unsuccessful (Hoy and Miskel, 1987).

Researchers, however, were reluctant to drop the trait theory. Instead of comparing leaders to followers, the studies next focused on traits versus effectiveness. This set of studies produced more consistent findings. After reviewing another 163 new trait studies, Stogdill concluded:

> The leader is characterized by a strong drive for responsibility and task completion, vigor and persistence in pursuit of goals,

venturesomeness and originality in problem solving, drive to
exercise initiative in social situations, self-confidence and sense of
personal identity, willingness to accept consequences of decision
and action, readiness to absorb interpersonal stress, willingness to
tolerate frustration and delay, ability to influence other persons'
behavior--and capacity to structure interaction systems to the
purpose at hand (1948, p. 64).

From this assessment by Stogdill, it appears that personality becomes a
factor in leadership, which implies that situations combined with traits needed to
be addressed.

The trait theory became so controversial and questionable researchers
started taking a completely different approach. They isolated their studies on
situations usually centered around organizational structure and climate, role
characteristics and subordinate characteristics (Campbell, 1970). Hence, this
approach basically supported the notion that leaders are made by the situation.
It became evident that just restricting leadership to either traits or situations
proved to be equally restrictive and not necessarily very productive in nature
(Hoy and Miskel, 1987).

Many of the 1990's models are centered around a theory known as the
contingency approach (House and Baetz, 1979). This approach suggests that
situational variables moderate leadership traits (behaviors) and performance
criteria. Under one set of circumstances, one type of leader is effective and,
under other circumstances, a different type of leader is effective. The

unfortunate dilemma is that equating effectiveness with leaders in different situations remains something of a mystery (Hoy and Miskel, 1987).

Some researchers negated the contingency approach and made reference to leadership in context with social interaction. "Leadership does not, indeed cannot, result merely from the individual traits of leaders; it must also involve attributes of the transactions between those who lead and those that follow....Leadership is, then, some sort of social transaction" (Merton, 1969, p. 2615).

As research progressed in this area, most conceptualization of leadership became multidimensional in nature. Dorwin Cartwright and Alvin Zander (1953), on the basis of findings at the Research Center for Group Dynamics, describe leadership in terms of two sets of group functions. The two headings usually include goal achievement and group maintenance.

The endeavors of Etzioni (1951) centered on two basic sets of needs: (a) instrumental needs–the mobilization of resources to achieve the task, and (b) expressive needs–the social normative integration of group members (p. 91).

Several Ohio State University researchers collaborated with Stogdill (1963) to propose twelve dimensions of leadership. They divided these dimensions into two distinct general categories: system-oriented and person-oriented. These two basic components have different labels in a variety of instruments (task versus social leaders, employee versus production orientations, and initiating structure versus consideration).

If there is a common element of many of the major leadership instruments, it appears to be in this area. Many theorists and researchers agree that there are

two distinct categories: one centered around tasks, production, and systems, and another centered around people and interpersonal relations. While many instruments that attempt to measure leadership effectiveness present a wide variety of dimensions, most can be collapsed into these two major categories. Researchers and theorists have used varying descriptions in referring to these separate categories of task and people: Barnard's effectiveness and efficiency, Cartwright and Zander's goal achievement and group maintenance, Halpin's initiating structure and consideration, Kahn's production orientation and employee orientation, Bales' task leader and social leader, and Brown's system orientation and person orientation (Hoy and Miskell, 1987) are some of the terms.

The research on leadership behavior supports the generalization that there are two distinct categories: people/interpersonal relations and task/production. This generalization will henceforth be referred to as Construct #1.

With these two distinct categories of leadership defined, a variety of models and instruments began to emerge. One of the major focuses was to determine if there was a preferred leadership style that created the best or most effective results. Douglas McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y concept proposes that people hold one of two opposing theories of human behavior: X- oriented people as basically lazy, needing to be prodded, motivated by material rewards; Y-oriented as self-motivated, with a desire to make a real contribution (cited in Smith and Piele, 1989). It is obvious which kind of leader McGregor believes is most effective. The critics of this style theory maintain that "too much

participative management can impede accomplishment of organizational goals" (Smith and Piele, 1989, p. 31).

One of the major leadership effectiveness instruments was initiated at Ohio State University. The LBDQ (Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire) (1963) measures two basic dimensions of leader behavior--initiating structure and consideration. An initiating structure item would be: He or she maintains definite standards of performance. A consideration item would be: He or she is friendly or approachable. A five-point scale was utilized to describe behaviors. Early studies using the LBDQ indicated that the consideration and initiating structure factors seemed separate and distinct, not opposite ends of the same continuum (Hoy and Miskel, 1987). The instrument defined four leadership style possibilities: high consideration/high initiating structure, high consideration/low initiating structure, low consideration/high initiating structure, low consideration/low initiating structure.

Halpin (1958) conducted studies of superintendents in trying to determine a style that worked best. His findings indicated that superintendents who scored high in both initiating structure (task) and consideration (people) were viewed as most effective by board members and staff. Halpin explained: "An effective leader can initiate structure without sacrificing consideration" (p. 3). Halpin believes this represented a preferred style.

On the other hand, Brown (1967) suggested that, although strength in both dimensions is highly desirable, principals committed to developing effective organizational dynamics may make up for weaknesses in one dimension with unusual strength in the other.

After many years of analytical study, the findings on the LBDQ (1963) seem to Indicate that to neglect initiation of structure limits the effectiveness of the school and to Ignore consideration for relationships reduces the satisfaction of the subordinates. Integrating strengths In both areas appears to be most desirable.

A University of Michigan survey (Hoy and Miskel, 1987) looked at two distinct styles of leadership that were similar to those of Ohio State: production-oriented/ employee-centered. The basic findings suggested that supportive relationships were Important and that effective leaders also used group supervision and set high performance goals.

Bales (1954) studied social behavior through observation. He found task leaders and social leaders. This was remarkably similar to the two previous studies that defined two different kinds of leaders that developed in social groups and organizations.

A recent theory on leadership centers around the contingency approach. Contingency theories maintain that there is a fit between personality characteristics, situations, behavior, position, and subordinate skills and attitudes (Hoy and Miskel, 1987). Contingency theories try to predict which types of leaders will be most effective in varying situations. Fiedler's least preferred co-worker scale (1976) was a simple personality measure that separated style from behavior. Fiedler's findings are:

1. In favorable situations, task-oriented leaders are more effective than relationship-oriented leaders.

2. In moderately favorable situations, relationship-oriented leaders are more effective than task-oriented leaders.

3. In unfavorable situations, task-oriented leaders are more effective than relationship-oriented leaders.

The basic explanation from Fiedler's research is that favorableness of the situation elicits leadership behavior that is consistent with the motivational system of the leader (1976).

Fiedler's model goes beyond the generalization that leadership depends on the situation. It basically says that a good match between leadership style and the situation will create a better chance for effectiveness.

The path/goal/contingency theory was refined in the 1970's (House and Mitchell, 1974). It integrates concepts and explains how leaders influence subordinates' perceptions. It explains four leadership behaviors that relate directly to task (directive and achievement-oriented) versus people (supportive and participative) styles. Basically, it proposes that leaders can exhibit the type of behavior that is most appropriate to the situation (Hoy and Miskel, 1987).

This contingency theory stresses environmental variables that may affect effectiveness in a situation and stresses the importance of the psychological state of the subordinates. If they feel good, they will be more productive. Hence, the effective leader creates situations that stimulate employee satisfaction through recognition, environment, and guidance. This brings clarity for subordinates on their path to a goal (Hoy and Miskel, 1987). For Fiedler (1976), effectiveness is measured through group task accomplishment. For House (1974), effectiveness is measured through subordinate satisfaction.

Basically, the contingency instruments, the LBDQ, and other current models strongly suggest that there may not be a preferred style. Many of the earlier attempts to substantiate a preferred style have been tempered by studies that attempt to show that effective styles may depend on many variables.

Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid (1985) indicates that an integrated style of leadership is the ideal. Situational theorist Schein (1965) observes that leaders must have the personal flexibility and the range of skills necessary to vary their own behavior according to the needs and drives of their subordinates.

Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership (Hoy and Miskel, 1987) revolves around the basic assumption that leader effectiveness requires appropriate matching of leader behavior with the maturity of the group or individual. Maturity directly relates to a specific task and is defined as the capacity to set high but attainable goals and take responsibility. Therefore, different styles will work with different people at given times.

Reddin's Tri-Dimensional Leadership Effectiveness Model (1966) cross-sections task behavior and relationship behavior into four leadership styles that provides a three-layered approach. Each of the styles can be effective depending upon the situation. This ties in directly with Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership.

Situational theory (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982) does not give a concise definition of effectiveness. In brief, effectiveness is a function of productivity and performance, the conditions of the human resources, and the extent to which long-term goals are obtained (Hoy and Miskel, 1987).

Basically, what Hersey, Blanchard and Reddin are saying is that leaders create effective situations by varying their styles to meet the maturity level of the group or individual they are working with at that particular time. This assumes that effective leaders can change their style with appropriate training and practice. Flexibility is the key.

In summary, the current research suggests that there may not be a preferred style of effective leadership. The most effective leaders appear to be flexible and adaptable. They can adapt their behavior to the situation. Henceforth, this will be referred to as Construct #2.

Some of the current education-related authorities like Lipham and Sergiovani (Smith and Piele, 1989) speak of effective leadership as making things better and the wish to make a human difference. They suggest that human-relations oriented styles are most effective in schools as compared to business. This aspect is investigated later in this study to determine if there may be some correlation to school leadership effectiveness and a style that is human relations oriented.

The next important area centers around how a person identifies his or her style and if he or she can identify it. Fiedler (1979) cites two studies that found that most leaders are not able to see their styles as others see them. One assumption is that others' perceptions are more objective than ones' own; therefore it seems that most leaders do not see themselves accurately. Fiedler's Least Preferred Coworker Scale (1978) projects others' perception.

Sergiovanni and Elliott have also formulated a questionnaire to help leaders identify their styles. "They warn, 'Don't be surprised if others see you differently

than you see yourself" (Smith and Piele, 1989, p. 39). Bonoma and Slevin (Smith and Piele, 1989) have developed a gridded leadership model that helps leaders differentiate between their actual leadership style and their preconceived image of leadership style.

The Wilson Learning Social Styles Profile (Wilson Learning Corporation, 1991) differentiates between perceived style and others' perceptions. Merrill and Reid's work (1981) in this area suggests that the real you is how others perceive you through your predominant behaviors.

Most of the current surveys in the past decade use an others' perception component to describe a leader's style. Some of these instruments include: Educational Administrator Effectiveness Profile (1984), the Leader Behavior Questionnaire (1988), the Leader Behavior Analysis II (1985), the LBDQ (1963), the Leader Practices Inventory (1988), the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire-Form S (1989), the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (1983), Situational Leadership (1979-82), Styles of Leadership Survey (1986), the Styles of Management Inventory (1986), and the Wilson Social Styles Profile (1990).

This research leads to what will henceforth be referred to as Construct #3. Construct #3 asserts that effective leaders understand how others perceive their style and accept this perception as valid.

Another important aspect centers around whether one can change his/her style at will. Researchers vary considerably on this aspect. Some deny style flexibility, some refer to some flexibility, some insist that styles must change, and others say that style is a constant.

Fiedler's (1967) theory leaves little room for style flexibility. Leaders are either task or relationship oriented. Although one can't change style, one can alter the situation by changing position power, the task structure, or leader-member relations.

Hall (Smith and Piele, 1989) maintains that style is so closely linked to personality that it is not easily changed. Leaders can change their behaviors over time periods, but their overall style continues.

Reddin (1966) and Hersey and Blanchard (1982) see that successful leaders adapt their leadership behavior to meet the needs of people. While their four style/behavior categories relate to how to work with people with different maturity levels, their model essentially involves task versus human relationships as the framework. What they are saying is that effective leaders change their behaviors with people to fit their situational maturity. Hence, it would appear that they are talking more about leadership behavior than style, and as related earlier, there is a basic difference.

Merrill and Reid (1981) contend that style is a constant. The vital element is versatility: the ability to understand another person's style and make adjustments to accommodate his of her needs.

In short, effective leaders have a constant style. They are effective at adapting their behaviors to accommodate the needs of others. This will be referred to as Construct #4.

Section II: Review of Current Literature

With the four constructs in mind, the current literature was surveyed to see if contemporary trends upheld or disputed these assumptions. Bailey and Adams (1990) have presented a leadership model that dichotomizes the leadership strategies used in bureaucratic versus non-bureaucratic approaches. They addressed this as the old versus the emerging style of leadership. The descriptors of each style were basically the same as task- versus people-oriented as put forth in Construct #1. Some current terminology, such as empowerment and entrepreneurship, were placed in the non-bureaucratic style.

Mahoney (1990) used an elaborate process to identify the exemplary superintendents in Ohio. One of the major characteristics that he found was knowing one's style and relying on that style.

In recent years, Glasser (1990) has espoused his boss management versus lead management approach based on control theory. Once again, Glasser's two management styles refer directly back to the task versus people orientation that has become so prevalent.

Howes (1993) suggests that there are three different leadership styles: glacial, driven, and human. Glacial leaders are single-minded and goal-oriented and are consistent in thought and action. Driven leaders are over-achievers who are obsessed with power. Human leaders concentrate on high morale and cohesiveness. There is a clear division between task and people once again but with a new twist.

While most theorists and the leadership instruments that have been developed lead us to believe that there are basically two distinct styles

(task/Initiating structure and people/consideration), there have been recent studies that partially dispute these contentions. Lane (1987) conducted studies that presented evidence that the two styles "are not independent dimensions....The two constructs may be inherently multi-dimensional and linked to judgmental bias...Consideration and initiating structure may be attributional categories of leader behavior rather than true descriptive categories" (p. 818) .

In a 1986 study at Memphis State University, seven tests and inventories that used the two dimensions of leadership style, consideration and initiating structure, were examined. "While most of the correlations were fairly small, the results technically do not support the view that these two leadership styles are unrelated to each other or other measures of individual difference" (Shipman and Prien, p. 818).

A 1988 article in <u>Human Relations</u> suggests that leaders view their behaviors differently than being placed either in one category or another. "As such, these findings are closer to Hall's (1973) suggestion that leaders' styles are flexible rather than rigid" (Bryman, Bresne, Beardsworth, and Keil, 1988, p. 24).

Many of the research studies attempted to find a preferred style. In a study of community college presidents, it was related that a preferred style of subordinates was Blanchard's S3 high relationship-low task. The combination of participation, shared governance, and empowerment are directly related to S3 and may create the best model for effectiveness at the community college level (McKee, 1991).

In an article on preferred style with elementary teachers which used a cognitive style instrument and the LBDQ, the findings showed that analytical people preferred a more task-oriented leader, while non-analytical people preferred leaders who stressed process rather than task (Kagan, 1989). The major point was that it is important to match a subordinate's cognitive style with a similar leadership style. Hence, while there was not a preferred style per se, there were matches of styles that created higher effectiveness.

In a study of college level department chairpersons, it was suggested that a preferred style of high consideration and high initiating structure was more effective as defined by the faculty's perception (Knight and Holen, 1985). In a 1987 article on situational leadership, it was stressed that the major gist of the model emphasizes that you treat people differently. Hence, leaders are expected to change their behaviors to meet the maturity level of each individual. Leaders must become good at diagnosing the capacity of individuals on a given task and to vary their style to ensure task accomplishment (Blanchard, Zigarmi, and Zigarmi, 1987).

In a study of public school administrators on communication competence as compared to social/leadership styles, it was found that expressives and amiables (human relations oriented) were perceived as being somewhat more communicative. It was also found that analyticals and drivers (task-oriented) need to make greater attempts to demonstrate adaptiveness. Overall, the study came to the conclusions that no style was found to be best and that no single style would be best for all occupations (Snavely and Walters, 1983).

In a managerial study done at the University of South Florida (Karlins and Hargis, 1988), it was found that 85% of the subordinates viewed their leader's style differently than the leader. The study suggests that most leaders view themselves as having a good balance between people and task, but subordinates see them differently. Leaders need to understand "the way they actually behave rather than the way they think they behave" (p. 666). A study of 54 principals and 180 subordinates using Blanchard's LEAD survey found that a school "principal's perceptions of leadership style does differ from those of the principal's selected subordinates" (Roesner and Sloan, 1981, p. 70). It was stressed that leaders must be more in tune with others' perceptions of their style.

From this review of current literature, it appears that the constructs presented in the first research history section are basically upheld. While there is some recent debate over consideration/human relations versus task/initiating structure being distinct categories, it appears that most instruments that attempt to demonstrate leadership effectiveness use this differentiation. There seems to be sufficient evidence that leaders tend to be oriented towards one or the other of these two style divisions.

The second construct also appears to be commonly accepted. There does not seem to be a preferred style. Some articles tend to view Blanchard's or Fiedler's dimension of high task and high relationship as an ideal style. This may be an adjustment of a leader's behaviors within a style to accommodate individual needs such as maturity levels.

The third construct is gradually gaining more acceptance. Numerous contemporary instruments use others' perceptions as a critical element in understanding one's own style. Nothing was found that actually disputed this assumption.

For the most part, the final construct is also commonly accepted. Leaders appear to have a predominant style that does not change in different settings or circumstances. Effective leaders may change those behaviors toward others to accommodate needs, but their overall style is a constant.

Section III: Survey of Leadership Feedback Instruments

This section presents a variety of leadership feedback instruments that are currently being used throughout the United States and internationally. This information has been gathered from two sources (Vetsor and Leslie, 1991, and Arter, 1990) that provide input on current instruments, placed in a format that attempts to provide facts on instruments which pertain to the four previously mentioned constructs. This covers: (a) instruments that can be tailored to educational leadership, (b) instruments that have some variation of task versus people orientations, (c) instruments that allow for growth within a constant leadership style, (d) instruments that have reports of others' perceptions, and (e) instruments that do not prescribe a preferred leadership style. Included in this format are some factors that relate both to educational settings and the cost factors given restricted budgets in education.

Many of the instruments have been developed in the past decade. Nearly all of the instruments were developed for the corporate world and are generally

expensive to administer. Some of the new trends are toward a greater research base, a more sophisticated feedback display, a 360-degree feedback comparing self-view to views of boss, peers, and subordinates, computerized scoring, and an expanded international use. The earlier instruments were basically an academic exercise: their main use was for research. Today, managers are the biggest market. There is an increased customer orientation by firms developing and marketing instruments (Velsor and Leslie, 1991).

One of the weaknesses of these instruments is that they tend to have been developed for the corporate white male. Also, very few instruments have been used by other professions in the public sector and there are sparse data on ethnic groups or women. Most of the instruments appear to be adaptable to education as this profession gradually takes on many corporate management characteristics (Velsor and Leslie, 1991).

1. The Educational Administrator Effectiveness Profile (Arter, 1990), developed in 1984, diagnoses administrative behavior with twelve sub-tests. It takes about thirty minutes to complete self- and other-reports. The statistical reliability and validity are fair to good. It can be adapted to educational leadership and there is some use in this area.

2. The Profile of School: Staff Questionnaire (Arter, 1990), developed in 1986, takes forty minutes for students, staff, parents, and board to complete. It breaks down administrative styles into authoritative, benevolent, consultive, and participative. The reliability/validity rating is good to excellent. It has been used throughout the nation in educational settings.

3. The Leader Behavior Analysis II (Velsor and Leslie, 1991), developed in 1985 around leadership style, takes twenty minutes for self, associates, and subordinates to administer with a fair statistical reliability/validity. It is easily adaptable and has some use in educational settings.

4. The Leader Behavior Descriptive Questionnaire (Arter, 1990), developed in 1963, takes twenty minutes for self, subordinates, and superiors to complete. It has been rated as having a fair-good reliability/validity and has been used in educational settings. It is one of the older instruments that has maintained its appeal. It centers around consideration and initiating structure.

5. The Leadership Practice Inventory (Velsor and Leslie, 1991) of 1988 focuses on leadership behavior and activities with a fifteen-minute survey for self and subordinates. It has a good to excellent reliability/validity rating. It is adaptable to educational settings with some use in educational leadership.

6. The Multi-factor Leadership Questionnaire (Velsor and Leslie, 1991), developed in 1989, takes twenty minutes for self and subordinates to complete and has a good reliability/validity rating. It can be adapted and there is some use in educational leadership. Its focus is on styles and behaviors.

7. The Myers Briggs Type Indicator (Arter, 1990) was developed in 1983, takes sixty minutes to administer, and has a focus on leadership style. It has widespread educational and military use. It has a fair to good reliability rating and validity and stresses personality.

8. Situational Leadership (1979-1982) (Arter, 1990) focuses on matching leadership style to individual and group needs. It has self, subordinate, and

observation forms and has widespread use in education. Reliability and validity ratings are not available.

9. The Administrator Professional Leadership Scale (Arter, 1990), developed in 1974, has a fair validity rating and is used primarily for principal leadership. It utilizes a subordinate form.

10. The Leader Authenticity Scale (Arter, 1990), developed in 1982, focuses on principal effectiveness and uses a subordinate questionnaire. It has an excellent reliability rating and a fair validity rating.

11. The Leadership/Climate Survey (Arter, 1990), developed in 1985, also stresses principal effectiveness through a subordinate questionnaire and has an excellent reliability and a fair validity rating.

12. The Management Behavior Questionnaire (Arter, 1990), developed in 1981, focuses on general management function and style. It utilizes a subordinate questionnaire and has poor to fair reliability and validity ratings.

13. The Leader Adaptability and Style Inventory (Arter, 1990), developed in 1981, centers on general leadership style and uses self and subordinate reports. There are no reliability or validity ratings.

14. The ACUMEN (Velsor and Leslie, 1991), developed in 1987, measures attitudes and thinking styles that affect managerial effectiveness. It measures twelve styles and is patterned after the Life Styles Inventory by Human Synergistics. It has good validity and reliability ratings. It can be used easily in education.

15. Benchmarks (Velsor and Leslie, 1991), developed in 1988 and 1990, assesses manager strengths and weaknesses. There are twenty-two scales

broken into two sections: managerial skills/perspectives of potential flaws. It has good to excellent reliability and validity scores and uses feedback from peers, superiors, and subordinates. It requires a two-day training session. There is no evidence of educational setting use.

16. The Campbell Leadership Index (Velsor and Leslie, 1991), developed in 1988 and 1990, compares self and subordinate ratings on characteristics such as dynamic, empowering, productive, trusting. The five major orientations are leadership, energy, affability, dependability and resilience. The reliability and validity ratings are good. It takes one day to administer three surveys. No present use in education could be found.

17. The COMPASS: The Managerial Practices Survey (Velsor and Leslie, 1991), developed in 1984, 1988, and 1990, provides information on current behavior on the job. It identifies strengths and expands the manager's repertoire of effective practices. It was designed for broad field use. It appears to have fair to good reliability and validity ratings and has been used with principals and superintendents. The training consists of a one-day feedback workshop.

18. The Executive Success Profile (Velsor and Leslie, 1991), developed in 1991, provides boss, peer, and subordinate feedback on twenty-one scales of effective skills and behaviors of executives. It appears to have fair to good statistical reliability and validity, but no evidence of use in educational leadership could be found. It requires three days of training.

19. The Visionary Leader: Leader Behavior Questionnaire (Velsor and Leslie, 1991, developed in 1988, centers upon leader performance and

approach. It is based on the work by Warren Bennis and delves into the realm of cultural leadership. The reliability and validity ratings seem to be above average and there is some use in education due to its short fifty-question form.

20. The Life Styles Inventory (Velsor and Leslie, 1991) by Human Synergistics (1972-89) focuses on thinking patterns and self-concept. It contains twelve thinking styles rated on a three-point scale. It has a fair to good reliability and validity rating. It is easy to administer (thirty minutes) with excellent feedback in a workshop format. There has been ample use in educational leadership settings.

21. The Management Effectiveness Profile System (Velsor and Leslie, 1991), developed in 1983, assesses on-the-job skills and behaviors as seen by self and other people. It has fifteen scales and four feedback areas: task, people, personal factors, results factor. The reliability and viability are undetermined. There is a six-week follow-up program. It takes thirty minutes with ninety skill items.

22. The Management Skills Profile (Velsor and Leslie, 1991), developed in 1982, provides feedback on behavior and performance as perceived by others. It consists of nineteen scales with eighteen skills. There is excellent reliability and validity data. No use could be found in educational settings. It only takes thirty to forty minutes to administer.

23. PRAXIS (Velsor and Leslie, 1991), developed in 1990, measures management skills described in behavioral terms. It is used with middle management and is very business oriented. There are sparse reliability and validity data. It is difficult to adapt to educational leadership.

24. The Survey of Leadership Practices (Velsor and Leslie, 1991),
developed between 1987 and 1989, emphasizes the skills of practice
associated with changing organizations and cultures. It is a change-oriented
instrument, but has very sparse reliability/validity data. It is not time-consuming.

25. The Survey of Management Practices (Velsor and Leslie, 1991),
developed from 1981-84, provides feedback on behaviors that must change in
order to improve effectiveness and quality. It has six task scales and four
interpersonal relations scales. It appears to be a good team-building survey
with fair to good validity and reliability ratings. It is easy to administer (thirty
minutes).

26. SYMLOG (Velsor and Leslie, 1991), developed between 1983 and
1991, provides feedback to individuals, groups and organizations on
leadership, culture, and teamwork. While reliability and validity ratings are
unavailable, it may be a valuable tool for an administrative team.

Section IV: Social Styles Theory

As the data were compiled on leadership theories and instruments and the
four constructs formulated, the common factor of task versus human relationship
orientations became apparent. Almost everyone, especially in the business
world, has a strategy for dealing with the people factor. What usually appears to
happen is that these theories and instruments work well with one person and
not with another. Keeping the four constructs in mind, this section will present a
theory and research which brings a new light into how to become more effective
as a leader.

Merrill and Reid (1981) espouse a new approach in their book Personal Styles and Effective Performance. "Our position is that because people are uniquely different, each person merely responds individually to the behavior of others. By behavior we mean only those things you say and do, which others can observe and report about you" (p. 1). Their definition of behavior is limited to a person's social action.

The basic premise of social action is that "all people exhibit patterns of behavior that can be identified and responded to, and if we can describe and adjust to these behavior, we can achieve more satisfactory relationships" (p. 2). Merrill and Reid claim that this is an original social styles theory that is "based on years of empirical research and scientific observations of human behavior" (p. 2).

In creating meaningful and productive relationships, Merrill and Reid contend that each of us is in control of what we say and do. Being in control means that "we consider the behavior of the other individual and that person's probable preference" (p. 2).

In a social relationship, "if you take the time both to learn about the effects your actions have upon others and to learn to control what you say and do when you are with them" (p. 3), you are a large step ahead in creating a meaningful relationship which enhances that chance of more effective outcome or performance.

This focus brings up the classic debate on which is the real you: the inner or outer self. Merrill and Reid's perspective is that "one's external, public actions

are the only 'you' most people get to know. You are what you say and do–no more, no less" (p. 3).

This theory is based on some important assumptions and understandings:

1. People perform more effectively in a positive relationship.

2. The perceptions of others are at least as important as one's own.

3. A mutually productive relationship is an asset.

4. Your personal actions have an effect on your success.

5. The way you act when you are with others, your social style, sends a message that influences the way that they, in turn, act with you.

6. No one style is good or bad.

7. If what a person says or does destroys relationships...such behaviors become self-limiting (Merrill and Reid, 1981, pp. 4-5).

Merrill and Reid (1981) talk about the public self: "Your social style, the 'you' that is on display every day, can be quite independent of what we may believe about ourselves, or wish we were" (p. 7) . "Kirk Vonnegut has said, 'You are what you pretend to be.' Those character traits, those attitudes, that behavior–that strange and alien stuff sticking out all over you–that's the real you" (Gaglin, as cited in Merrill and Reid, 1981, p. 9) . In simple terms you are what you say and do, not what you intend to be. Our intentions do not get us in trouble with others as does what we say and do.

Merrill and Reid's first step in developing their social styles instrument was the understanding that "our greatest challenge is learning to accept the fact that we are all creatures of habit–that everyone exhibits typical behavioral

preferences" (p. 17). Their second step was to learn what the basic patterns were, and which pattern we as individuals fall into.

Merrill and Reid contend that while each of us is truly unique, "we tend to act in fairly consistent, describable ways" (p. 19). People do those things that make them happy and comfortable and avoid those tasks that cause tension or stress. We repeat actions that have been positively reinforced. Some behaviors then become automatic and a habit without realizing it. "People simply repeat the patterns that have made them comfortable in the past" (p. 20).

Tension tends to be a major stimulus. We all create a string of behaviors based on a need to reduce our own personal tensions. Sometimes as we work in our own comfort zones, we create a tension for others. We also tend to develop patterns of behavior to protect ourselves from tension which results in defensiveness. Defensiveness is self-serving and creates less than productive results (Merrill and Reid, 1981).

Hence, Merrill and Reid's thrust is twofold: it requires understanding what our behavior patterns are and when they are non-productive, and broadening our comfort zones by accepting behaviors in others before we become non-productively defensive. We must understand that we do behave in predictable ways most of the time, therefore we have it in our power to develop personal relationships that can spur effectiveness and productivity (Merrill and Reid, 1981).

Merrill and Reid's theory revolves around what we do most often. We repeat certain behaviors when we're with other people. People tend to generalize about us due to these repeated behaviors. This generalization is basically our

perceived social style. Merrill and Reid's social style model, which is based on statistical research, puts objective descriptions of behavior into a simple framework (Merrill and Reid, 1981).

Other social style theories are a product of the field of behavioral psychology in contrast with psychoanalytical theorists. B.F. Skinner was a major contributor with the emphasis on watching people and describing what they do in an attempt to analyze why people act in a certain way. In the 1950's and 1960's, social theories became more sophisticated as the focus centered on social interaction and human resource development (Merrill and Reid, 1981).

Sociologists and psychologists characterized people as actors playing their special parts and that personality theories were bankrupt. It was more important to understand human interaction in social situations. Jean Paul Sartre in Being and Nothingness looked at social style as he wrote, "But all of a sudden I hear footsteps—someone is looking at me—I now exist as myself—I see myself because somebody sees me" (cited in Merrill and Reid, 1981, p. 41).

In the 1950's, extensive study was conducted on the theory of style in an attempt to determine the factors of effective leadership. As mentioned earlier, researchers at Ohio State University (1963) developed a list of descriptive behaviors of leaders and asked people to identify which behaviors they felt good leaders show. A list of 110 behaviors of effective leaders were developed. They then placed these behaviors into four categories that seemed to account for effective leadership: consideration, structure, production emphasis, and sensitivity.

Researchers then tried to find which of the four facts characterized the best leader. No reliable results were obtained (Merrill and Reid, 1981).

As mentioned earlier, Fiedler (1967) took a new approach. He felt it was inappropriate to look at a person's leadership style in a vacuum. He wanted to look at the environment. Fiedler concluded that there is no good or bad leadership style. Different style leaders can be effective in different situations. He found that both relationship-oriented and task-oriented styles could be successful.

In the 1960's, Taylor used adjectives to describe leadership. A list of 150 words was finally generated which gave statistically reliable results. Taylor grouped these adjectives into five descriptive categories: "1) self-confident; 2) considerate; 3) conforming; 4) thoughtful; and 5) rigid" (as cited in Merrill and Reid, 1981, p. 43).

As part of Merrill and Reid's research, they adopted Taylor's adjective list. They found a different clustering through their statistical analysis. Computer analysis revealed three clusters: "1) assertiveness; 2) responsiveness; and 3) versatility" (p. 43). "Ordinary people describing the everyday actions of others...which would reliably picture how a person acts most of the time" (Merrill and Reid, 1981, p. 43).

Assertiveness measures whether an individual tells or asks, and to what degree others see a person trying to influence their decisions. Responsiveness indicates how a person emotes or controls feelings and how others see this person displaying emotions. Versatility indicates how others see us as being resourceful, competent, and adaptable (Merrill and Reid, 1981).

Task-Directed

Responsiveness

Ask-Directed   Tell-Directed

Assertiveness   Assertiveness

People-Directed

Responsiveness
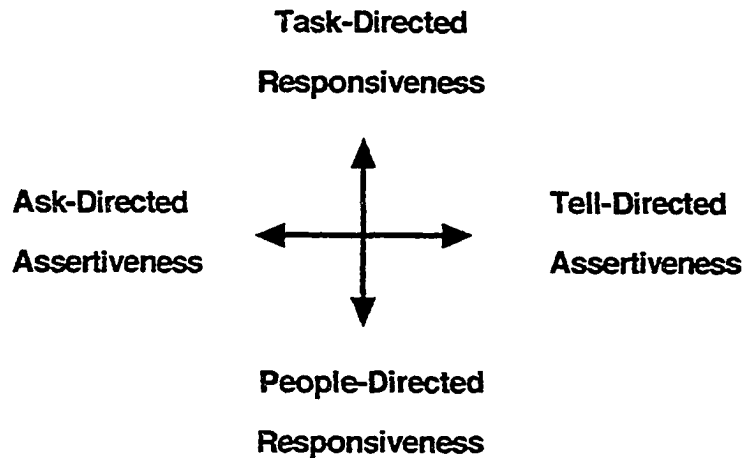
Figure 1: The working style matrix.

Note. From Working Styles: Working with People Effectively (p. 7) by Wilson

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Assertiveness and responsiveness can be observed in everyone. We deal

with people on the basis of our perceptions of their assertiveness and

responsiveness. These labels do not define what a person is thinking or

feeling; they only describe aspects of observable behavior (p. 51).

Assertiveness combined with responsiveness equates to social style.

CONTROL-RESPONSIVE

	D	C	B	A

ASK-

ASSERTIVE

— Analytical — Driver —

— Amiable — Expressive

TELL-

ASSERTIVE

EMOTE-RESPONSIVE
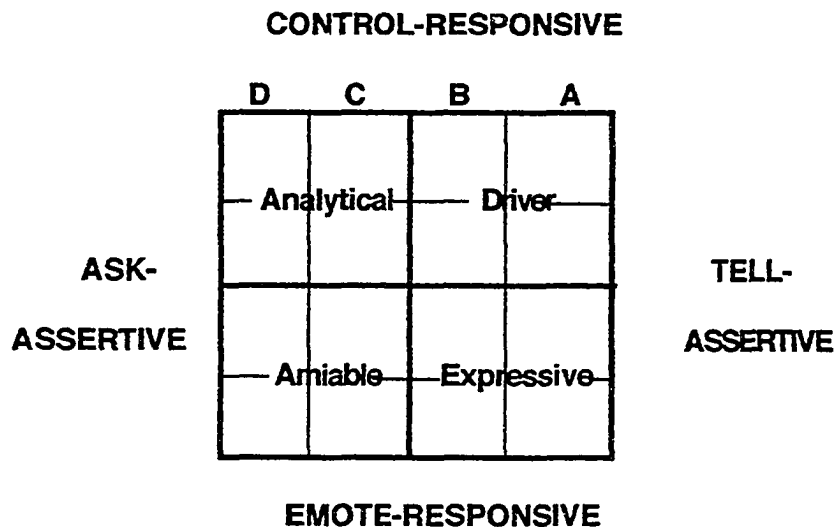
<u>Figure 3</u>: The social styles matrix

<u>Note.</u> From <u>Social Styles Summary</u> (p. 2) by Wilson Learning Corporation, 1989, San Diego, CA: University Associates, Inc. Copyright 1989 by Wilson Learning Corporation. Reprinted with permission. All rights reserved. Duplication prohibited.

"Mathematically, an equal number of people in a randomly selected population will fall into each of the four quadrants or squares combining assertiveness and responsiveness. There is no predominance of any racial or sexual group in any one quadrant" (Merrill and Reid, 1981, p. 88).

Social style is surface behavior. People react to us on our observable behavior and repetitive patterns of action (our social style) rather than our capacity for variation.

Versatility is the final dimension of human behavior. "Statistical research demonstrates that people who are seen by others as highly versatile in

interpersonal situations can be found along all ranges of the 'scale'" (Merrill and Reid, 1981, p. 88). People with high versatility ratings create and maintain valuable interpersonal relationships which greatly enhance their effectiveness as leaders. A highly versatile relationship increases the effectiveness and productivity of both individuals.

> Versatility...represents how others view a person's ability to adapt to
>
> others and deal with relationships effectively....Versatility is not simply the
>
> ability to get along with others. Rather, it is dealing with others in such a
>
> way that they walk away from encounters with us feeling better about
>
> themselves thanks to what we said and did" (Merrill and Reid, 1981, p.
>
> 89).

The Wilson Social Styles Profile (1991) uses the four constructs that represent the best current research and thinking in the field. It is an instrument that can be used by leaders in all fields of endeavor. While so many other instruments attempt to pinpoint effectiveness through behavior, characteristics, or traits, the Wilson Social Styles Profile (1991) provides a way to become more effective through day-to-day interpersonal relationships. Effectiveness and productivity are a direct product of relationship building skills, attitude, and understanding.

The investigation in this chapter indicates that the Wilson Social Styles Profile (1991) is a model that is current, research-based, and proven to be effective in helping leaders understand their own style and how to interact with people in a more productive manner. No other instrument served better as an initial instrument for personal understanding and thought on the interactions

that foster effective leadership. Several of the other instruments could be used as a follow-up to the Profile in an attempt to identify specific skills and practices that enhance leadership effectiveness.

Section V: Research on the Wilson Social Styles Profile

A review of the research on the Wilson Social Style Profile (1991) provided numerous published and unpublished research papers, articles, master's theses, and doctoral dissertations. This review found no formalized research comparing social/leadership styles in educational administration.

The following research provided information that is peripherally related to this study. Doctoral dissertations include topics on the ability to determine social styles (Buchholz, 1976) and college teacher comparison of perceived style and student perceptions (Knutson, 1979). Master's theses found were on forms of communication and social style (Anderson, 1979) and social style and communication interaction (Parsley, 1976). Research reports covered such areas as a comparison of Norwegian and American populations using the Wilson Social Styles Profile (Lashbrook, 1978) and teacher perceptions of versatility compared to students' perceptions (Knutson, 1980).

Summary

The purpose of this review was to determine if there is a model that can be utilized which measures leadership effectiveness. Four constructs were formulated that were substantiated by the aforementioned overview of the history of leadership theory and a review of the current literature.

The constructs espouse the premise that leaders have a tendency to be either task- or people-driven, that there is no one preferred style for effective leaders, that the perception of others is important, and that effective leaders have a relatively constant style that allows for flexibility and adaptability.

An overview of the contemporary leadership feedback instruments that incorporated the four constructs led to an understanding that numerous instruments have been developed primarily for the corporate world and that each one measures leader effectiveness from a different perspective. The question then revolved around whether there is an instrument that can be used by the public and private sectors that provides meaningful feedback to any leader regardless of his/her style.

In an overview of the social styles theory, it was related that the success of a leader directly corresponds to how effectively an individual relates to those people with whom he/she works. The Wilson Social Styles Profile (1991) is an instrument that all leaders can use to understand their styles and to measure how effectively they relate to others in regard to increased productivity. The Profile bridges the gap between the public and private sectors. No other instrument was found that centers around the social aspect of effective leadership. If the social aspect (interpersonal relations) is not addressed first and foremost in leaders, then the chances of being effective are lessened. The Wilson Social Styles Profile (1991) provides the base of understanding for leaders to become more effective. No other instrument provides such an essential framework.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH DESIGN

Introduction

The four constructs presented in Chapter II established the rationale behind the design and current instruments that help determine a leader's style. The Wilson Social Style Profile was established as a leadership style instrument that met the criteria of the four constructs and centered on the social aspect of effective leadership.

This study was developed to determine if the distribution of leadership social styles of district administrators in education differed from leadership social styles found in the corporate sector. A second part of the study centered around district administrator perceived effectiveness in relation to versatility and social style perception. The following sections of this chapter provide the characteristics of the sample populations and the methods used to collect the data.

Instrumentation Method # 1

The Wilson Learning Corporation's Social Styles Profile was used as the data gathering instrument for this study. Developed for the corporate sector, the Wilson Social Styles Profile has limited use in educational settings due to a cost factor (M. Leimbach, personal communication, March, 1994). Therefore, there are limited data on the styles and versatility of leaders in education in reference to this tool.

Data from Wilson Learning Corporation (1991) reflect a relatively equal distribution of styles in the four quadrants for corporate leaders. The baseline data from the University of Wyoming cohort groups (see Table 1) suggested a tendency toward a human relations/people orientation with educational leaders. This study gathered data that provided an insight into leadership styles in education.

The reliability measures for the Wilson Social Styles Profile are as follows: assertiveness (0.93), responsiveness (0.70), and versatility (0.90). The validity measures reflect a positive correlation of (+0.52) for females and (+0.48) for males (Merrill and Reid, 1981).

The Social Styles Profile was administered to willing district administrators. Through a sample size of 50, the null hypotheses areas were tested using the chi-square test of significance. The data collected on participating district administrators were compared to the data provided by Wilson Learning Corporation for corporate sector populations including an overall sample, an executive sample, a people-related position sample, and an age-related sample.

The Wilson Social Styles Profile was hand-scored and district administrators received feedback on style, versatility and perceived effectiveness. Each administrator's style fell within a subsection in one of the four social style quadrants. Figures 3 and 4 provide a graphic description of the four styles, the four style orientations, and the subsections of each style quadrant.

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Instrumentation Method # 2

A second part of the study included a Wilson Social Style Profile versatility rating for each district administrator. Versatility represents how others view a person's ability to adapt to other people and deal with relations effectively. It reflects the effort that a person makes to have a relationship succeed. A truly versatile relationship increases the effectiveness and productivity of both parties (Merrill, 1981). Figure 5 and the following description explain the versatility rating concept.

Lack of Perceived   Perceived

Versatility   0% ◄——|———|———|——► 100%   Versatility

W   X   Y   Z
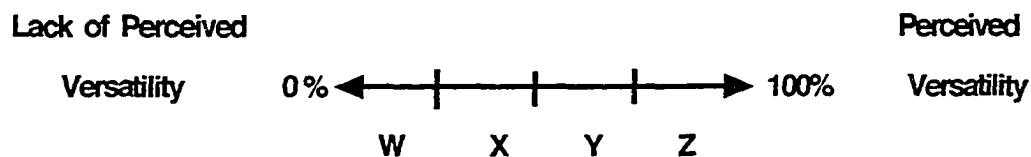
Figure 5. Perceived versatility ratings.

In a normal distribution, 25% of the population will be expected to receive a W rating. People with this rating are perceived as being low in versatility and adaptability.

Individuals with X ratings are more versatile than 25% of the population. People displaying this level of versatility do a below average job of managing relationships.

Individuals with Y ratings are in the range of the upper 50% of the population. These people do an above average job of managing relationships.

Individuals with Z ratings represent the highest range of perceived versatility. They are more versatile than 75% of the population (Merrill, 1981).

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Figure 6
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The rater scores provided a versatility number for each district administrator. These numbers were averaged to provide Wilson Social Style Profile versatility rating for each district administrator in the study. The following figure provides a score of 1 to 4 for the average ratings.

Figure 6. Representative numerical scores for Wilson Social Style Profile versatility rating.

Note. The four number scores represent a range of confidential numerical versatility ratings from Research Use of the Social Style Profile (p. 3), by Michael Leimbach, 1991, Minneapolis, MN: Wilson Learning Corporation. Copyright 1991 by Wilson Learning Research and Development Corporation.

Instrumentation Method # 3

An analysis of social style in relation to perception was also conducted utilizing the Wilson Social Style Profile. This analysis provided a social style variance rating which represents the level of correlation between self-perception and others' perception of style. Figure 7 demonstrates how this difference between self- and others' style perception was determined.

	Analytical		Driver	
	3	2	1	Self Dr.-Dr.
	4			1
	5			2
	6 Others Am.-Am.	5	4	3

Amiable   Expressive

Figure 7. Social style variance illustrating the difference in levels between self-and others' perceptions.

The variation example between self and others in Figure 7 is represented by a difference of six horizontal or vertical levels. Figure 8 represents numerical scores used to demonstrate the difference (or variation) between self- and others' perceptions.

Score Number	Description	Level of Difference
4	High perception correlation	0 or 1
3	Strong perception correlation	2
2	Limited perception correlation	3 to 4
1	Low perception correlation	5 to 6

Figure 8. Numerical scores for levels of difference between self- and others' perceptions.

Instrumentation Method # 4

The next component of the study analyzed district administrator effectiveness. The inventory was developed for this study utilizing the Professional Standards for the Superintendency defined by the American Association of School Administrators. In developing these standards, an emphasis was placed on team building, shared leadership, collaboration, and instructional improvement (Hoyle, 1993).

AASA has validated the skills and guidelines in the standards. The standards consolidate the skills needed by effective superintendents (Hoyle, 1993).

The numerical scores of Figure 9 represent an overall average of the eight professional standards by the participant's raters. This inventory is displayed in Appendix A.

Score Number	Average Rating	Description
4	4.0 and above	High effectiveness
3	3.0 and above	Moderate effectiveness
2	2.0 and above	Limited effectiveness
1	1.0 and above	Low effectiveness

Figure 9. Numerical scores for averaged ratings on the AASA Professional Standards for the Superintendency.

The Corporate Sector Sample

Confidential data on the distribution of corporate sector styles were provided by Wilson Learning Corporation for personal use in conducting the research. The data on style distribution percentages were used for statistical comparisons and are reflected in statistical test results.

The data on style distribution percentages for overall corporate sector represented a population size of 114,061 participants. Also included in the statistical comparisons between the corporate sector and public education district administrators are three other distributions that compare the styles in relation to age, executives, and human relation positions. The age group size of 12,403 is divided into age categories of 20-49 and 50 years and older. The executive group represents a population size of 794 participants and the human-relations positions group represents a population size of 42,013 participants.

Data on the second part of this study on versatility are used for statistical comparisons for the overall corporate population and the human-relation position population. The chi-square test of significance of difference (.05) was used to compare the data from the corporate sector and district administrators. The formula was:

$$x^2 = \sum \frac{(O-E)^2}{E}$$

$\sum$ represents the summation of squares of the difference between the observed (O) and expected (E) frequencies divided by the expected frequency.

Analytical 25%	Driver 25%
Amiable 25%	Expressive 25%

Figure 10. Wilson Social Style Profile expected style percentage distributions.
Note. Statistically expected distribution from Statistical Analysis of the Social
Style Profile (p. 29) by R. Jason Wiley and Michael Leimbach, 1991,
Minneapolis, MN: Wilson Learning Corporation. Copyright 1991 by Wilson
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The District Administrator Sample

The following tables contain the data from a sample population of fifty district
administrators. The district administrators were comprised of superintendents
and central office administrators. Thirty-two district administrators were from
Wyoming and 18 were from Wisconsin. Table 2 provides style distribution
percentages and the sample numbers in each style. Also provided are age
distributions for the sample population: (a) 20-49 (n = 29), (2) 50 plus (n = 21)
and versatility rating percentages.

The Wilson Social Styles Profile (1991) instrument was administered in
Wyoming during June, 1994, and in Wisconsin during January, 1995. The
instrument was mailed to district administrators in all 49 school districts in

Wyoming and to 10 school districts that are designated as part of the northeast regional cooperative educational agency in Wisconsin. Fifty of 70 surveys were returned, representing a return rate of 71.43%.

Each district administrator received a self-rating instrument and the same instrument that was to be administered to a combination of peers, subordinates, and/or superiors. Each participant was asked not to select all subordinates. District administrators were also mailed five performance effectiveness surveys that were to be distributed to the same five raters. The effectiveness survey was used to collect data for the second part of the study.

Table 2

Style Distribution Data of Participating District Administrators in Wyoming and Wisconsin during 1994 and 1995.

Participants	Social Styles (n = 50)			
	Analytical	Driver	Amiable	Expressive
Percentage	18	22	14	46
Number	9	11	7	23

Table 3

Style Grouping Data of Participating District Administrators in Wyoming and Wisconsin during 1994-95

Participants	Style Groupings (n = 50)			
	Task	People	Ask	Tell
Percentage	40	60	32	68
Number	20	30	16	34

Note. Task styles are a summation of analyticals and drivers. People styles are a summation of amiables and expressives. Ask styles are a summation of analyticals and amiables. Tell styles are a summation of drivers and expressives.

Table 4

Versatility Distribution Data of Participating District Administrators in Wyoming and Wisconsin during 1994-1995

Participants	Versatility Ratings (n = 50)			
	W	X	Y	Z
Percentage	8	16	28	48
Number	4	8	14	24

Table 5

Distribution Data of Participating District Administrators Age 20-49 in Wyoming and Wisconsin during 1994-95.

Participants	Social Styles (n = 29)			
	Analytical	Driver	Amiable	Expressive
Percentage	14	21	7	58
Number	4	6	2	17

Table 6

Style Grouping Data of Participating District Administrators Age 20-49 in Wyoming and Wisconsin 1994-1995

Participants	Style Groupings (n = 29)			
	Task	People	Ask	Tell
Percentage	35	65	21	79
Number	10	19	6	23

Table 7

Distribution Data of Participating District Administrators Age 50 and above in Wyoming and Wisconsin during 1994-95.

Participants	Social Styles (n = 21)			
	Analytical	Driver	Amiable	Expressive
Percentage	24	24	24	28
Number	5	5	5	6

Table 8

Style Grouping Data of Participating District Administrators Age 50 and above in Wyoming and Wisconsin 1994-1995

Participants	Style Groupings (n = 21)			
	Task	People	Ask	Tell
Percentage	48	53	48	53
Number	10	11	10	11

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

Introduction

The primary purpose for conducting this study was to determine if the distribution of leadership styles of district administrators in education differed from leadership styles found in the corporate sector. Preliminary data collected from a small homogeneous sample suggested that there may be a significant difference in the distribution of styles between these two groups.

In this chapter, the primary study included four components for comparison of significant difference. The sample data from educational administrators were compared to data from: (a) the overall distribution of the corporate sector, (b) executives in the corporate sector, (c) people/human-relation positions in the corporate sector, and (d) age. Each of the four components contained the following distribution areas: (a) the four styles (amiable, driver, analytical, and driver), (b) task-oriented styles (analytical/driver) versus relationship styles (amiable/expressive), (c) and tell-oriented styles (driver/expressive) versus ask-oriented styles (amiable/analytical). Null hypotheses 1, 2, and 3, presented in Chapter I were tested and analyzed for each of the aforementioned components.

A second part of the study analyzed the areas of versatility, perceptions, and perceived effectiveness for district administrators. The purpose of this part of the study was to compare these three areas for correlations. Data are presented in each area and cross-analyzed to provide two variable

comparisons: (a) versatility and perceptions, (b) versatility and effectiveness, and (d) perceptions and effectiveness. A three-variable comparison was also conducted.

Data Analysis - Tests for Significance of Difference

The chi-square test of significance was used to compare expected frequencies and observed frequencies for each of the components of the primary study. The statistical significance of difference level of .05 was used for each analysis. The chi-square rules for a sample size of 50 and five or more observed frequencies in each cell were met.

Null Hypothesis 1a: The leadership style distribution of district administrators is not significantly different from the overall style distribution in the corporate sector.

The expected frequency for the corporate sector group of 114,061 participants was compared with the observed frequency for 50 district administrators. The critical value was greater than or equal to 7.815 and chi-square equaled 7.671. Since the chi-square value was less than the critical value, the null hypothesis was accepted. The distributions between the two populations were not significantly different.

Null Hypothesis 1b: The leadership style distribution of district administrators is not significantly different from the style distribution of executives in the corporate sector.

The expected frequency for 794 corporate sector executives was compared with the observed frequency for 50 district administrators. The critical value was greater than or equal to 7.815 and chi-square equaled 5.577. Since the chi-square value is less than the critical value, the null hypothesis was accepted. The distribution between corporate executives and district administrators was not significantly different.

Null Hypothesis 1c: <u>The leadership style distribution of district administrators is not significantly different from the style distribution of corporate sector individuals in people oriented positions.</u>

The expected frequency of 42,013 corporate sector individuals in people oriented positions was compared to the observed frequency for 50 district administrators. The critical value was greater than or equal to 7.815 and chi-square equaled 1.599. Chi-square was less than the critical value, hence the null hypothesis is accepted. There was not a significant difference between the district administrator population distribution and the corporate people position distribution.

Null Hypothesis 1d: <u>The leadership style distribution of district administrators is not significantly different from the style distribution by age in the corporate sector.</u>

The chi-square goodness of fit test was used for this age comparison due to the size of some cells less than 5. In order to obtain a significant cell size for

this test, it was necessary to combine several age ranges into two ranges: 20-49 years and 50 years and older.

In the age range of 20-49, the expected frequency for 10,387 corporate sector individuals was compared to the observed frequency for 29 district administrators. The critical value was greater than or equal to 5.991 and chi-square equaled 13.165. The null hypothesis was rejected. The distribution of styles in this age range for district administrators was significantly different from the corporate sector.

In the age range of 50 years and older, the expected frequency for 2,016 corporate sector individuals was compared to the observed frequency of 21 district administrators. The critical value was greater than or equal to 5.991 and chi-square equaled 3.495. The null hypothesis was accepted. There was no significant difference in the 50 years and older age range for the two groups.

Null Hypothesis 2: The leadership style distribution between task- and people - orientations for district administrators is not significantly different from the same orientations in the corporate sector.

Chi-square results for the overall corporate sector provided a critical value that was greater than or equal to 3.841 and a chi-square value equal to 2.000. The null hypothesis was accepted. There was not a significant difference between task- and people- orientations for the overall corporate sector participants and district administrators.

For the corporate executive comparison, the critical value was greater than or equal to 3.841 and chi-square equaled .983. The null hypothesis was

accepted. There was not a significant difference between task- and people-orientations for the executives in the corporate sector and district administrators.

For corporate people-oriented positions, the critical value was greater than or equal to 3.841 and chi-square equaled .085. The null hypothesis was accepted for this comparison. There was not a significant difference between task- and people- orientations for people-oriented positions in the corporate sector and district administrators.

Null Hypothesis 3: The leadership style distribution between tell- and ask-orientations for district administrators in not significantly different from the same orientations in the corporate sector.

The chi-square results for the overall corporate sector for tell- and ask-orientations provided a critical value that was greater than or equal to 3.841 and a chi-square value equal to 4.549. The null hypothesis was rejected. There was a significant difference between tell- and ask-orientations for the overall corporate sector group and district administrators.

For corporate executives, the critical value was greater than or equal to 3.841 and chi-squareequaled 1.306. The null hypothesis was accepted. There was not a significant difference between corporate executives and district administrators when comparing tell- and ask-orientations.

For corporate people-oriented positions, the critical value was greater than or equal to 3.841 and chi-square equaled 2.000. The null hypothesis was accepted. There was no significant difference between corporate people-

oriented positions and district administrators when comparing tell- and ask-orientations.

Null Hypothesis 4: The versatility ratings of district administrators are not significantly different from the versatility ratings in the corporate sector.

The expected frequency for 114,061 corporate sector participants was compared to the observed frequency of 50 district administrators for the four versatility cells (W, X, Y, and Z). The critical value was greater than or equal to 7.815 and chi-square equaled 10.75. Since the chi-square value was larger than the critical value from the table, the null hypothesis was rejected. There was a significant difference for versatility ratings between the corporate sector participants and district administrators.

Data Analysis–Summary of the Primary Study

Table 9

Chi-Square Test Values for Null Hypothesis 1 Comparing District Administrators and the Corporate Sector

Null Hypothesis 1	Critical Value	Chi-Square
Null Hypothesis 1a–Overall	7.815	7.671
Null Hypothesis 1b–Executives	7.815	5.577
Null Hypothesis 1c–People positions	7.815	1.599
Null Hypothesis 1d–Age (20-49)	5.991	13.167
Null Hypothesis 1d–Age (50+)	5.991	3.495

The only null hypothesis that was rejected was for the age range (20-49). The difference between the values reveals the following key points. The 1a figures demonstrate a minimal difference in values. The chi-square value for 1c was close to zero.

The following is a comparison of chi-square at critical values for Null Hypotheses 2 (task/people) and 3 (tell/ask).

Table 10

Chi-Square Test Values for Null Hypotheses 2 and 3 Comparing District Administrators and the Corporate Sector

Null Hypothesis 2	Critical Value	Chi-Square
Null Hypothesis 2a—Overall	3.841	2.000
Null Hypothesis 2b—Executives	3.841	.783
Null Hypothesis 2c—People positions	3.841	.085
Null Hypothesis 3a—Overall	3.841	4.549
Null Hypothesis 3b—Executives	3.841	1.306
Null Hypothesis 3c—People positions	3.841	2.000

Null Hypothesis 3a was the only one that was rejected. The difference between the values reveals the following key points. The chi-square values in 2b and 2c are close to zero and the chi-square value in 3b is less than half of the critical value.

Data Analysis: The Second Part of the Study

The Pearson r Product Moment Correlation (a two-tailed test) was used for the four components of this study.

Null Hypothesis 5: District administrators versatility ratings are not significantly related to effectiveness and perception ratings.

The research on social styles correlates high versatility with success and effectiveness (Merrill and Reid, 1981). Versatility represents a person's ability to adapt to others and deal with relations effectively.

The first analysis of this part of the study compared versatility and perceived effectiveness rating of district administrators. A versatility rating represents the average of the versatility scores of the five raters and the perceived effectiveness rating represents the average of raters' scores on the Superintendent Effectiveness Inventory (Hoyle, 1993). Table 11 presents the scores for district administrators in versatility and perceived effectiveness.

Table 11

Versatility and Effectiveness Ratings for District Administrators, 1994-95.

Group	Versatility	Effectiveness
Five individuals	4	4
Six individuals	4	3
Seven individuals	3	3
Three individuals	2	3
One individual	2	2
Two individuals	1	2

The data from Table 11 demonstrate that there was a variation of no more than one rating point for each individual. Each participant who had an above average versatility rating also had an above average effectiveness rating (3 or 4) and each participant had an effectiveness rating at or above his/her versatility rating. Thirteen participants had the same rating for both variables and five participants received higher effectiveness ratings than versatility ratings.

The Pearson r test results for the correlation between versatility and effectiveness provided a correlation coefficient r of +.733, a critical figure t_c of greater than or equal to the absolute value of 2.074. The significance level t was 5.122.

Values of r closer to 1.0 are considered higher in correlation. Since t is larger than t_c, there is a significant correlation. The null hypothesis that there is no relationship between the two variables was rejected.

Social style variance and versatility analysis

This analysis compared the versatility rating and a social style variation. Construct #3 in Chapter II suggests that effective leaders understand how other people perceive their style. The social style variation represents the level of correlation between self-perception and others' perception of style. Table 12 presents the scores for district administrators on the versatility and social style variation.

Table 12

Social Styles Variation and Versatility Ratings for District Administrators, 1994-95.

Participants	Social Style Variation	Versatility
Seven individuals	4	4
Two individuals	4	3
One individual	4	1
Two individuals	3	4
Three individuals	3	3
One individual	3	2
Two individuals	2	4
Three individuals	2	3
Three individuals	2	2

Only three individuals received a difference of more than one rating point while 13 individuals had the same rating for both variables. Five individuals with low perception correlations had higher versatility ratings.

Pearson r test results for social style variance and versatility ratings provided a correlation coefficient r of +.311, a critical figure t_c of 2.074 (absolute value), and a significance level t of 1.757.

The values indicate that there is not a correlation. The correlation coefficient r is in the lower range for correlation of two variables. The null hypothesis that there is not a relationship between versatility and social style variation is accepted.

Social style variance and effectiveness analysis

This analysis compares an individual's social style perception variance and the perceived effectiveness rating. Both ratings are described in Chapter III.

Table 13

Social Style Variation and Effectiveness Ratings for District Administrators, 1994-95

Participants	Social Style Variation	Effectiveness Rating
Four individuals	4	4
Three individuals	4	3
One individual	4	2
Seven individuals	3	3
One individual	3	2
One individual	2	4
Six individuals	2	3
One individual	2	2

Table 13 demonstrates that two individuals had a difference in ratings of more than one. Twelve individuals had the same rating for both variables and seven individuals had higher lower perception variances than effectiveness ratings.

Pearson test results for social style variance and effectiveness provide a correlation coefficient r of +.368, a critical figure of 2.171 (absolute value), and a significance level t of 2.171. Since t is larger than t_c, there was a correlation between social style variance and effectiveness. The null hypothesis was rejected. A correlation between the two variables exists.

Social style variance, versatility, and effectiveness analysis

Table 14 presents the number of participants with the same scores for the three variables.

Table 14

Social Styles Variance, Versatility, and Effectiveness Ratings for District Administrators, 1994-95.

Participants	Scores in Variance, Versatility, and Effectiveness
Four individuals	All 4's
Six individuals	4's and 3's
One individual	4's and one 2
Three individuals	All 3's
Six individuals	2's and 3's
One individual	All 2's
One individual	3, 2, 1
One individual	4, 3, 2
One individual	4, 2, 1

The table demonstrates that eight individuals had the same three numerical scores and 12 individuals had combined ratings within one. Four individuals had combined ratings of more than a difference of one numerical score.

The Pearson test results for the three variables provide a correlation coefficient r of .248, with a significance level t of 1.340, and critical figure t_c of 2.074 (absolute value). The values indicate that there was not a relationship between the variables. The null hypothesis was accepted.

Data Analysis - Summary of the Second Part of the Study

Table 15 provides the Pearson r results for the two- and three-variable tests.

Table 15

Pearson r Results for District Administrators, 1994-95

Hypothesis Tested	r	t_c	t
Null Hypothesis 5a	+.733	2.074	5.122
Null Hypothesis 5b	+.311	2.074	1.757
Null Hypothesis 5c	+.368	2.074	2.171
Null Hypothesis 5d	+.248	2.074	1.340

Null Hypotheses 5a (versatility and effectiveness correlation) and 5c (social style variance and effectiveness correlation) were rejected. Null Hypotheses 5b (versatility and social style variance correlation) and 5d (versatility, social style variance, and effectiveness correlation) were accepted.

CHAPTER V

A SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS,

AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

The topic of this study was leadership styles of district administrators in education. The primary purpose of the study was to investigate the distributions of leadership styles of district administrators in comparison to leadership styles in the corporate sector. A second purpose of the study was to determine relationships between versatility, perception, and effectiveness in the success of district administrators. Answers were sought for the following questions as the null hypotheses were analyzed:

1. Do leadership style distributions of district administrators differ from distributions in the overall corporate sector?

2. How do leadership style distributions of district administrators compare to distributions for executives and people-oriented positions in the corporate sector?

3. Are there leadership style distribution differences in relation to tell- and ask-orientations and task- and people-style orientations between district administrators and the corporate sector?

4. Are there relationships between versatility, perception, and effectiveness for the district administrators in this study?

Data were collected through the use of the Wilson Social Styles Profile (1991) and a survey developed from the AASA Standards for the

Superintendency (Hoyle, 1993). The instruments were administered to district administrators in Wyoming and northeastern Wisconsin during 1994-95.

Findings from the Literature

The review of the literature centered around the evolution of the concept of leadership styles and the basis for determining effective components of instruments that define leadership styles. Four constructs were proposed through the review. These constructs pointed towards instruments that (a) have a distinction between task and relationships, (b) do not emphasize a preferred style, (c) include perceptions by others, and (d) measure adaptability.

A survey of the leadership style feedback instruments found that most instruments have been developed for and used primarily in the corporate world for increased customer orientation and marketing. Most of the contemporary instruments include the aforementioned elements.

A review of social style theory demonstrated that social style is also a personal leadership style and that versatility (adaptability) is a key element in potential effectiveness. The literature investigation indicated that the Wilson Social Styles Profile was an instrument that was validated for use in this study.

Findings in the Primary Study

As a result of the data analysis of each null hypothesis, the following findings emerged and interpretations of these findings are presented.

District Administrators and the Corporate Section

While the data demonstrated that the null hypothesis was not rejected, there was minimal difference between the values. While this difference was not significant, the results suggest that the style distributions may be different enough to warrant further study. It was initially thought that the district administrator distribution of styles would be similar to the University of Wyoming cohort distribution. The data show that the district administrator distribution fell somewhere between the University of Wyoming cohort group and the corporate sector.

From these data, it was found that district administrators have a somewhat different style distribution from the corporate sector. This difference in style distribution is not as radically different as the University of Wyoming cohort group distribution. Speculation on these differences will be included later in the conclusions.

District Administrators and Executives

This investigation concentrated on similar role positions between district administrators and executives in the corporate sector. The data demonstrated that the null hypothesis was not rejected due to the similarity of distribution breakdown of styles. The larger difference between the critical values indicated a closer match. Executives were more tell-oriented than the district administrators in this study and less relationship-oriented. Executives also had considerably more who could be classified as drivers than district administrators.

The findings indicated that the style distribution between district administrators and executives was much closer than the comparison with the overall corporate sector. From this study, it appeared that the role of an administrator may be a factor in determining style distributions.

District Administrators and People-Oriented Positions

This investigation separated people-oriented positions such as personnel and development and training from the rest of the corporate sector. The null hypothesis was not rejected. In fact, the differences in values (7.815 to 1.599) was larger than comparison with executives. Also, it was important to note that the chi-square value was approaching zero. This was an indication that the distribution of styles between the groups was very close. Each style distribution percentage was within 8%. The tell- versus ask-ratio was also within 8% and the task versus relationship ratio was within 2%.

From the chi-square values, it was found that the district administrator style distribution was similar to the people-oriented positions style distribution in the corporate sector.

District Administrators and the Corporate Sector: Age Comparisons

Due to statistical test requirements, age range distributions were narrowed to two categories. In the age range 20-49, the null hypothesis was rejected. There was a significant difference between the district administrators in this study and the corporate sector for this age range. District administrators are more tell-oriented and more relationship-oriented. The major difference was in

the expressive style. District administrators in this age range were twice as likely to be expressives than individuals in the corporate sector. This same disparity was seen in the University of Wyoming cohort distribution.

The null hypothesis was not rejected for the age range of 50 years and older. The distribution between the two populations was statistically similar. From the results of this study, it appears that there were proportionately more drivers in the 50 and older age range for district administrators in this study.

From the results of this comparison, it was found that the district administrator style distributions in the age range of 20-49 were significantly different than the corporate sector. The expressive social style was predominant. It was also concluded that there is not a significant difference for the over-50 age range.

District Administrators and the Corporate Sector: Task Versus People Orientations

While the data analyzed did not find a significant difference between task and people orientations for district administrators and the corporate sector executives and human-relations positions, there were important tendencies.

The value difference indicates that the task versus people distribution ratio for executives was proportionately similar to the district administrators. There was a 7% difference. The value difference was even less between human relations positions. There was only a 2% difference in the two orientation areas. While this difference was not significant, it was found that this was another indication that district administrator distributions were similar to executives and even closer to human-relations positions than to the overall corporate sector.

District Administrators and the Corporate Sector: Tell Versus Ask Orientations

The null hypothesis was rejected for the comparison of tell versus ask style orientations with the overall corporate sector. The distribution ratio for tell versus ask between the corporate sector and the district administrator group was significantly different.

The finding was that district administrators were more tell-oriented than the general corporate sector. This did not hold true for the comparison with executives and people-oriented positions. While there was not a significant difference, district administrators were more tell-oriented than people-oriented positions and less tell-oriented than executives.

District Administrators and the Corporate Sector: Versatility Comparisons

The data collection and analysis for this part of the study were conducted to ascertain if there was a difference of versatility ratings between the overall corporate sector and district administrators. The null hypothesis was rejected. For this study, it was found that the district administrators were statistically higher in overall versatility. The rating percentages for W (low versatility) and Z (high versatility) demonstrated the greatest disparity.

Conclusions of the Primary Study

District administrators represented in this study were in a style distribution classification that was different from the various corporate groups studied.

District administrators exhibited a tell (driver and expressive) orientation similar to corporate executives and a people (amiable and expressive) orientation similar to human-relations positions. This may be a natural occurrence due to the role of a district administrator. District administrators in education are executives who work within a people/human-relations oriented business. It may be reasonable to assume that both orientations would be present.

A second conclusion was related to specific style. The district administrators in this study contained a higher proportion of expressives than any other group investigated. In particular, the age range of less than 50 years old contains 58% expressives. Expressives are tell and relationship oriented. While this style directly corresponds to the overall district administrator style distribution classification (tell and relationship), there are other interesting factors.

The 50 years and older group was more task-oriented (with a higher percentage of drivers in comparison); the less than 50 age group of district administrators was predominantly expressive. This may be due to a change in the style orientation priority in education. The reform/restructuring movement in education appears to be emphasizing a new leadership role. With the emphasis on teamwork and shared decision-making, educational communities are shifting toward a relationship style orientation in their leaders. If indeed a greater number of relationship style individuals are being selected for leadership positions, a style of leadership that is more tell- and task-oriented may be diminishing.

This was also evident in the University of Wyoming cohort group style distribution. The word cohort alludes to cooperation, teamwork and synergy.

Leaders who are oriented towards autonomy, independence, and directing activities would not tend to select a cohort experience. The cohort selection process includes a teamwork and cooperation element, spontaneous verbal and written exercises, creativity, and a growth and change orientation which are reflected in the overall mission and beliefs of the education leadership unit of the University of Wyoming. These factors lead to a conclusion that more than any other style, the cohort selection process is most closely related to the expressive style.

It is also concluded that the district administrators in this study were more versatile than the individuals included in the overall corporate sector. The Z versatility ratings indicated that nearly half of the district administrators were perceived as being highly adaptable, open, and flexible. This high versatility rating was correlated with perceived effectiveness in the second part of the study. This may be due to the role of the administrator which demands continual interactions with a wide range of individuals and skills in communications, community relations, and human resource management. Hence, it appears that success in the role was at least partially related to interaction and relationship building capabilities. The high proportion of Z ratings may be directly related to the interactive component inherent in the role of educational administrators.

In summary, it is concluded that the district administrators in this study were a combination of the executive and human relations areas of the corporate world. These district administrators were tell and relationship oriented with a high percentage of expressive social styles. The less than 50-years-old district

administrators were even more likely to be expressive in nature. And finally, as a group, these district administrators were perceived as more versatile than the overall corporate sector.

Findings: The Second Part of the Study

The following findings and interpretations surfaced from the data collected in relating versatility, perceived effectiveness, and perceptions.

Versatility and Perceived Effectiveness

The correlation coefficient at the significant level for the relationship between versatility and perceived effectiveness was ample enough to reject the null hypothesis. From this analysis, there was a correlation between these two variables for this group of district administrators. The product moment value of +.733 was considered to be in the moderate range and the level of significance value demonstrated that there was a relationship. A validity study by Wilson Learning Corporation correlated versatility with successful people at an approximate correlation coefficient of +.50. The findings from this study are even higher and verify this correlation.

Social Style Variance and Versatility

The correlation coefficient of +.311 indicated that there may be a relationship. However, the level of significance was somewhat lower than the critical value. While the null hypothesis was not rejected, the findings indicate that some correlation may exist.

Social Style Variance and Perceived Effectiveness

The null hypothesis was rejected. The findings indicate that there is a correlation between these two variables for the district administrators in this study. However, while a correlation exists, the correlation coefficient of +.368 is statistically in a moderately low range, and the significance value was only slightly larger than the critical value.

Social Style Variance, Versatility, and Effectiveness

The null hypothesis was not rejected for the relationship of these three variables. The findings indicate that while some correlation exists, it was not at a significant level. However, a correlation coefficient of +.248 for three variables was statistically worth noting. The values may indicate that a statistically significant correlation may be substantiated given a different data collection approach and a larger population.

Conclusions of the Second Part of the Study

The first conclusion of this separate part of the study is that there was a correlation between versatility and perceived effectiveness. The degree by which district administrators were viewed as adaptable to the style of other people directly corresponded to how they were perceived as being effective in the various elements of their job. This limited size study substantiates the previously cited validity findings (Merrill and Reid, 1981) correlating these two variables.

A second conclusion is that there was a correlation between social style variance and perceived effectiveness. The degree of similarity between self- and other's perception of style corresponded with perceived effectiveness.

The study did not substantiate a significant correlation between versatility and social style variance nor between the three variables.

Recommendations

The findings and conclusions in the primary study compare district administrators' style distributions and provide an overview of style distribution comparisons between district administrators and the corporate sector. The data demonstrate that a high proportion of the district administrators in this study are tell- and relationship-oriented, with 46% of the total having an expressive style and 58% of the under-50 age range being expressive. The following recommendations are made based on the results of this study.

First, given the predominant distribution of expressive style and tell- and relationship-orientation, it would be beneficial for district administrators to be trained in style identification and versatility growth. While an individual's style remains constant, the ability to adapt to others to create effective working relationships is an area that can be improved. The normal distribution in our population of 25% in each style would suggest that district administrators will work with a cross-section of various styles every day. Versatility training has the potential to increase job-related effectiveness and success. Every style can be effective given a high degree of versatility.

Second, teaming is becoming an important aspect of school reform. How teams are put together is crucial to their success. Teams with predominantly the same leadership style may not see things from differing points of view. This could lead to a narrow approach to solutions. It would be beneficial to create teams with varying styles for a healthy interaction of ideas and approaches.

Third, with the high versatility ratings of district administrators in this study, it would be valuable to investigate why these individuals are viewed as highly adaptable and if their role as a leader requires greater versatility skills as compared to other professionals.

Fourth, it would be beneficial to conduct an overall study of the style distribution of teachers and compare this to building administrators and district administrators in education. It would be valuable to ascertain if teachers with certain styles or style orientations are more likely to pursue administrative roles. It would also be intriguing to investigate the differences in styles or orientations in regards to levels of administration.

Finally, public education in general is trying to combine the two emphasis areas of accountability and shared decision-making. As more people are involved in decision making, accountability is spread throughout the system. While this may be advantageous, it can also be cumbersome to manage. If there is the possibility that more of our district administrators are becoming relationship oriented, there is a risk that there is not someone overlooking and guiding the task at hand.

The corporate sector styles were close to being evenly distributed, which may be healthier for the overall growth of an organization. In districts with more than one district administrator, it may be beneficial to employ individuals with varying styles to maintain an equilibrium between task and people orientations.

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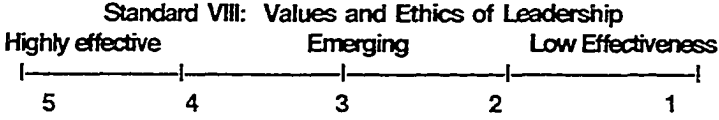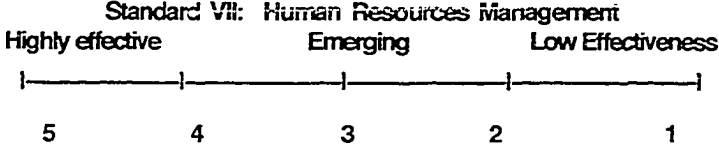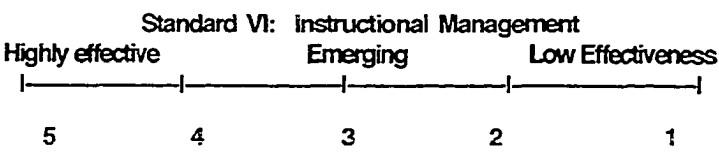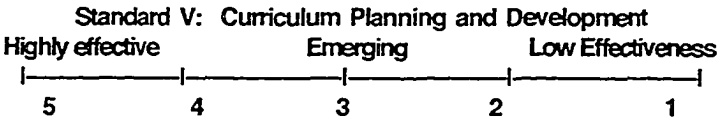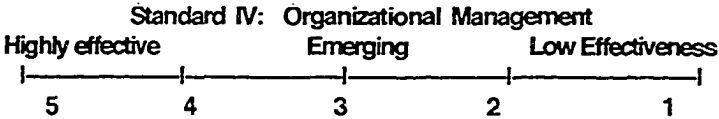Wilson Learning Corporation. (1991). Social styles profile. Minneapolis, MN.: Author.
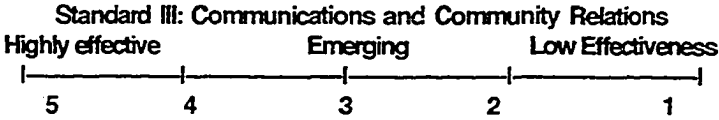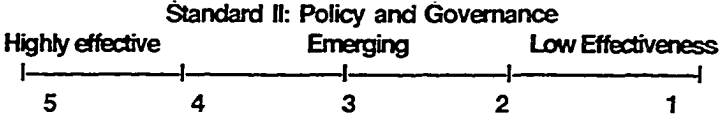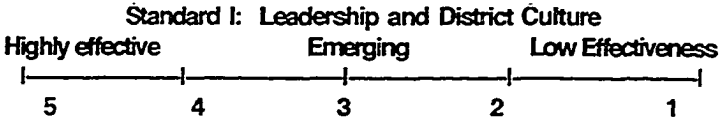
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APPENDIX A

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Survey Developed Utilizing the

AASA Professional Standards for the Superintendency

Please rate your district administrator on each of the eight professional standards listed below.   Place an '"X" at the appropriate juncture. A description of each standard is attached. "Emerging" means there are increasing efforts in this area towards reaching the standard.

Standard I: Leadership and District Culture

Highly effective		Emerging		Low Effectiveness
I————————I————————I————————I————————I
5	4	3	2	1

Standard II: Policy and Governance

Highly effective		Emerging		Low Effectiveness
I————————I————————I————————I————————I
5	4	3	2	1

Standard III: Communications and Community Relations

Highly effective		Emerging		Low Effectiveness
I————————I————————I————————I————————I
5	4	3	2	1

Standard IV: Organizational Management

Highly effective		Emerging		Low Effectiveness
I————————I————————I————————I————————I
5	4	3	2	1

Standard V: Curriculum Planning and Development

Highly effective		Emerging		Low Effectiveness
I————————I————————I————————I————————I
5	4	3	2	1

Standard VI: Instructional Management

Highly effective		Emerging		Low Effectiveness
I————————I————————I————————I————————I
5	4	3	2	1

Standard VII: Human Resources Management

Highly effective		Emerging		Low Effectiveness
I————————I————————I————————I————————I
5	4	3	2	1

Standard VIII: Values and Ethics of Leadership

Highly effective		Emerging		Low Effectiveness
I————————I————————I————————I————————I
5	4	3	2	1

Professional Standards Descriptions (Hoyle, 1993)

STANDARD 1: LEADERSHIP AND DISTRICT CULTURE

Demonstrate executive leadership by developing a collective district vision; shape school culture and climate; provide purpose and direction for individuals and groups; demonstrate an understanding of international issues affecting education; formulate strategic plans, goals, and change efforts with staff and community; set priorities in the context of community, student and staff needs; serve as an articulate spokesperson for the welfare of all students in a multicultural context.

STANDARD 2: POLICY AND GOVERNANCE

Develop procedures for working with the board of education that define mutual expectations, working relationships and strategies for formulating district policy for external and internal programs; adjust local policy to state and federal requirements and constitutional provisions, standards and regulatory applications, standards and regulatory applications; recognize and apply standards involving civil and criminal liabilities.

STANDARD 3: COMMUNICATIONS AND COMMUNITY RELATIONS

Articulate district purpose and priorities to the community and mass media; request and respond to community feedback; and demonstrate consensus building and conflict mediation. Identify, track, and deal with issues. Formulate and carry out plans for internal and external communications. Exhibit an understanding of school district as political systems by applying communication skills to strengthen community support; align constituencies in

support of district priorities; build coalitions to gain financial and programmatic support; formulate democratic strategies for referenda; relate political initiatives to the welfare of children.

STANDARD 4: ORGANIZATIONAL MANAGEMENT

Exhibit an understanding of the school district as a system by defining processes for gathering, analyzing, and using data for decision making; manage the data flow; frame and solve problems; frame, develop priorities, and formulate solutions; assist others to form reasoned opinions; reach logical conclusions and make quality decisions to meet internal and external customer expectations; plan and schedule personal and organization work; establish procedures to regulate activities and projects; delegate and empower at appropriate organizational levels; secure and allocate human and material resources; develop and manage the district budget; maintain accurate fiscal records.

STANDARD 5: CURRICULUM PLANNING AND DEVELOPMENT

Design curriculum and a strategic plan that enhance teaching and learning in multiple contexts; provide planning and future methods to anticipate occupational trends and their educational implications; identify taxonomies of instructional objectives and validation procedures for curricular units, using theories of cognitive development; align and sequence curriculum; use valid and reliable performance indicators and testing procedures to measure performance outcomes; and describe the proper use of computers and other learning and information technologies.

STANDARD 6: INSTRUCTIONAL MANAGEMENT

Exhibit knowledge of instructional management by implementing a system that includes research findings on learning and instructional strategies, instructional time, advanced electronic technologies, and resources to maximize student outcomes; describe and apply research and best practice on integrating curriculum and resources for multicultural sensitivity and assessment strategies to help all students achieve at high levels.

STANDARD 7: HUMAN RESOURCES MANAGEMENT

Develop a staff evaluation and development system to improve the performance of all staff members; select appropriate models for supervision based on adult motivation research; identify alternative employee benefits packages; and describe and apply the legal requirements for personnel selection, development, retention, and dismissal.

STANDARD 8: VALUES AND ETHICS OF LEADERSHIP

Understand and model appropriate value systems, ethics, and moral leadership; know the role of education in a democratic society, exhibit multicultural and ethnic understanding and relating behavior; adapt educational programming to the needs of diverse constituencies; balance complex community demands in the best interest of the student; scan and monitor the environment for opportunities for staff and students; respond in an ethical and skillful way to the electronic and printed news media; and coordinate social agencies and human services to help each student grow and develop as a caring, informed citizen.

APPENDIX B

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WILSON LEARNING

DATE: 11.20.95

Ray Partridge
2346 Woodview Lane
Marinette, WI 54143

Dear Ray Partridge,

This letter is to formally provide you with our approval for use of the Social Style Profile for your research on educational leadership. As stated in your request, permission is being granted under the following conditions:

1. Wilson Learning will be fully credited in references to the Social Style Profile and our copyright notice will be appropriately displayed. as follows:

    © *Copyright Wilson Learning Corporation, 1982. All rights reserved. Duplication prohibited.*

2. The Social Style Profile will be used for academic research only and not for commercial or monetary gain.

3. You will provide Wilson Learning with a copy of the final research report. The report should be sent to:

    Research Department
    Wilson Learning Corporation
    7500 Flying Cloud Drive.
    Eden Prairie, MN 55344

4. Any information marked "Confidential" will be held confidentially by you and not released to others not directly involved in the conduct of this research.

This permission extends to the data charts and graphs send to you that were not marked "confidential" and include the figures explaining the Social Style quadrants and versatility, and the comparative data.

I wish you luck in your research efforts, If I can be of further assistance, please feel free to call me.

Sincerely,

Michael Leimbach, Ph.D.
Wilson Learning Research and Development
7500 Flying Cloud Drive.
Eden Prairie, MN 55344
(612)828-8645

APPENDIX C

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APPENDIX D

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PLEASE NOTE

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