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SITUATIONAL LEADERSHIP THEORY: A TEST OF LEADERSHIP STYLE AND FOLLOWER READINESS MATCHES IN CONDOMINIUM AND HOMEOWNER ASSOCIATIONS

By
James Byron Stirling II

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SITUATIONAL LEADERSHIP THEORY: A TEST OF LEADERSHIP STYLE AND FOLLOWER READINESS MATCHES IN CONDOMINIUM AND HOMEOWNER ASSOCIATIONS

By
James Byron Stirling II

We hereby certify this Dissertation submitted by James Byron Stirling II conforms to acceptable standards, and as such is fully adequate in scope and quality. It is therefore approved as the fulfillment of the Dissertation requirements for the degree of Doctor of Business Administration.

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CERTIFICATION STATEMENT

I hereby certify that this paper constitutes my own product, that where the language of others is set forth, quotation marks so indicate, and that appropriate credit is given where I have used the language, ideas, expressions, or writings of another.

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ABSTRACT

SITUATIONAL LEADERSHIP THEORY:
A TEST OF LEADERSHIP STYLE AND
FOLLOWER READINESS IN
CONDOMINIUM AND HOMEOWNER ASSOCIATIONS

by

James Byron Stirling II

This study conducted an empirical test of Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory (1988) in a modified replication of studies by Butler and Reese (1991); Goodson, McGee, and Cashman (1989); and Blank, Weitzel, and Green (1990). Situational Leadership Theory (SLT) contends that highly effective leaders are distinguished by the ability to select and apply one of four leadership styles most fit to influence a follower's readiness level. Inherent in each leadership style is a mix of decision methods and communication techniques to influence a follower to perform a task or achieve a goal. SLT predicts that a match of style and readiness contributes to higher measures of follower satisfaction and leader effectiveness than a mismatch of style and readiness contributes. This study contends that the following outcomes are significantly influenced by matched and mismatched categories of leaders and followers: (1) follower satisfaction with communication; (2) follower satisfaction with decision methods; (3) openness in the decision process; (4) meeting management effectiveness; and (5) overall managerial effectiveness. Questionnaires were mailed to 300 unit owners in condominium and homeowner associations in Mercer and Camden counties, New Jersey.

The LEAD Instrument provided a measure of the fit between leadership style and follower readiness that, when scored, provided the independent variables readiness match, leadership style, and adaptability. A zero order correlation and reliability test found moderate support

between independent and dependent variables. ANOVA tests of hypothesized relations between categories of readiness matches and measures of effectiveness and satisfaction provided strong support for the theory. Two-way ANOVA tests for the main and interactive effects of leadership styles and leader adaptability on meeting management effectiveness provided support for the main effects only. A multiple regression analysis of the relationship between readiness match, leadership style, and (1) openness and (2) overall managerial effectiveness found mixed support for the theory.

The study provides considerable support for SLT's predictions for leader adaptability and modest support for the match of readiness and leadership style. Future SLT research in the condominium environment should consider developing more accurate measuring instruments to directly assess follower readiness. Research using the LEAD Instrument should consider the impact of hybrid leadership styles neglected in the research literature.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Background

Leadership is a universal phenomenon in human, primate, and other higher-order animals that maintain social hierarchies (Allee, 1951; Carpenter, 1963). Managerial leadership is an interactive relationship between a leader and a follower in which the leader attempts to influence the follower to accomplish an organizational goal or perform a task (Bass, 1990). In commercial and nonprofit organizations, leader behavior is a critical success factor that affects subordinate satisfaction, group productivity, and leader effectiveness (Lawshe & Nagle, 1953). Organizational leadership intentionally uses managerial tasks and roles to influence subordinate satisfaction, organizational performance, and leader effectiveness (Mintzberg, 1973).

Approaches to understanding leader behaviors include the trait and contingency theories. The trait model argues

that inimitable personal characteristics, abilities, and aptitude determine leader effectiveness (Bass, 1990). The contingency paradigm of leader effectiveness asserts that managerial success depends on complex interactions between leader behavior, organizational factors, and other environmental determinants (Pfeffer, 1977).

Contingency models evolved from descriptive taxonomies of leader decision-making behavior that viewed leadership as a continuum of styles ranging from autocratic to democratic to laissez-faire (White & Lippitt, 1960). Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958) held that three factors influence leader effectiveness: (a) forces in the manager, (b) forces in the subordinate, and (c) forces in the situation. Forces in the manager include attitudes and values reflecting Theory X and Y assumptions, the manger's confidence in subordinates, and the manager's comfort with the situation. Forces in the subordinate include the subordinate's willingness to participate in organizational affairs, need for autonomy or direction, and comfort with unstructured problems. Situational factors include group cohesion, organizational climate, and task complexity.

Other contingency models view leader behavior as two independent dimensions, with one dimension focusing on people factors and the other dimension reflecting concern for the task (Blake & Mouton, 1964; Hersey & Blanchard, 1988). The Ohio State studies (Fleishman, 1951) examined the effect of the two dimensions, labeled Consideration and

Initiating Structure, on leader-subordinate relations. In these studies, Consideration represented the leader's socio-emotive concern for subordinate needs, while Initiating Structure represented a concern for productivity and work rules. Consideration supported harmonious relations between leader and follower, and Initiating Structure contributed to improved productivity. The Michigan studies (Likert, 1961) changed the two dimensions of leader behavior into employee-centered supervision and production-centered supervision to test the relationship between leader behavior and effectiveness. Kahn (1956) reported that employee-centered leadership correlated with highly productive work groups.

Fielder's contingency theory (1967) used the two-dimensional leadership model to determine whether the interaction between leader task-orientation, leader relations-perspective, and situational favorableness influences leader effectiveness. Situational favorableness is a function of the leader's power position, task structure, and leader-follower relations. Power refers to the leader's ability to exercise coercive, legitimate, or reward power. Favorable leader-follower relations require mutual trust and confidence. Task structure depends on the clarity and complexity of the task. A situation is favorable when leader-follower relations are good, the leader has the power to reward and punish, and the leader has a clear understanding of the task.

Fiedler claimed that inflexible leaders are effective in favorable situations. A task-oriented leader is more likely to be effective in both unfavorable and favorable situations. The relations-oriented leader is effective in moderately favorable situations. Once a leader's style is identified, Fiedler advocated matching the appropriate leadership style to the situation to assure effective performance

Hersey and Blanchard's (1988) Situational Leadership Theory (SLT) combines the two dimensions of leader behavior with a single situational factor, follower readiness. SLT contends that the interaction of leader task behavior, leader relationship behavior, and follower readiness significantly influences leader effectiveness and other outcomes. SLT states that follower readiness is the key determinant of a preferred and effective leadership style. Readiness consists of a task-relevant ability component and a self-confidence dimension. SLT prescribes one of four leadership styles for each of four readiness levels. A match of style and readiness is more predictive of effective leadership than is a mismatch of style and readiness.

SLT contends that the following leadership-readiness matches are the most effective: (a) high task/low relationship (Telling) for low readiness, (b) high task/high relationship (Selling) for moderately low readiness, (c) low task/high relationship (Participating) for moderately high readiness, and (d) low task/low relationship (Delegating)

for high readiness. In addition to prescribing the most effective match, SLT ranks the relative effectiveness and ineffectiveness of a mismatch of style and readiness. For low readiness, the best style is Telling, the second best is Selling, the third best is Participating, and the least effective is Delegating. For moderately low readiness, Selling is the most effective style, Telling is second best, Participating is third best, and Delegating is the least effective style. For moderately high readiness, Participating is the best style, Selling is second best, Delegating is third best, and Telling is least effective. For high readiness, Delegating is the best style, Participating is the second best, Selling is the third best, and Telling is the least effective style (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988).

Adaptability refers to the leader's ability to select the two most appropriate styles to match follower readiness. In dynamic environments, adaptable leaders are more managerially effective than nonadaptable, single-style leaders. In SLT training, adaptability is measured by the Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description (LEAD) (Hersey & Blanchard, 1977).

Statement of the Problem

For over 25 years, SLT has experienced international acceptance as a management training tool in the United States military, multinational organizations, and nonprofit organizations (Butler & Reese, 1991; Irgens, 1995; Wofford,

1994). While SLT's managerial prescriptions intuitively appeal to practitioners, the logic of the relationship between leader behavior and follower readiness has been questioned. Graeff (1983) and Nicholls (1990)criticized the model's theoretical inconsistencies and dubious prescriptions. In addition, empirical tests of leadership style, follower readiness, and organizational performance have reported mixed support for SLT's effectiveness prescriptions for matched pairs of styles and readiness (Blank, Weitzel, & Green, 1987; Butler & Reese, 1991; Goodson, McGee, & Cashman, 1989; Lonardi, Willower, & Bredeson, 1995; Norris & Vecchio, 1992; and Vecchio, 1987).

A test of leader readiness match and follower performance (Butler & Reese, 1991) reported a negative correlation in the predicted outcomes. Norris and Vecchio (1992) found that the mean difference in performance and satisfaction between matched pairs of leaders and followers were inconsistent with SLT's prescriptions. A survey of personal motivation, leadership style, and organizational effectiveness of school administrators reported that effective administrators suppressed their motivational tendencies and adapted a leadership style appropriate for the situation (Lonardi et al., 1995).

The purpose of this study is to test SLT's assertion that the relationship between leadership style and follower readiness influences managerial effectiveness and other follower outcomes. A match of style and readiness has a

more positive impact on leader effectiveness than does a mismatch of style and readiness. Effective leaders influence followers to perform a task by creating a climate of cooperation and respect (Blank et al., 1990). Blank et al.'s test of the effect of a match of style and readiness on follower satisfaction with communication, satisfaction with supervision, and overall managerial effectiveness found no support for the matching hypothesis.

Goodson et al. (1989) examined SLT's prediction that a match and mismatch of style and readiness results in a best style match, a second-best style match, a third-best style match, and a least-effective style match. A survey of employees in small retail outlets (Goodson et al.) found weak support for SLT's leader-follower interactions. The Selling and Participating styles were consistently associated with higher levels of satisfaction. Selling was positively associated with satisfaction with supervision and satisfaction with communication.

SLT asserts that adaptable leaders--managers who can select two or more styles to fit various readiness levels--are more effective than single-style or nonadaptable leaders. However, a test of the relationship between adaptability, readiness, and subordinate performance reported no support for the adaptability hypothesis (Butler & Reese, 1991).

Purpose and Significance of the Study

This study, a confirmatory analysis of the studies of Butler and Reese (1991) and Blank et al. (1990), tests whether SLT's predictions that a match of style and readiness influence leader effectiveness and follower outcomes. In a study of the leader-follower relations of hall directors and resident advisors in two universities, Blank et al. (1990) found little support for a hypothesized positive relationship between leader task behavior, low to moderately low follower maturity, and subordinate satisfaction. In addition, the research reported no support for the hypothesized positive relationship between supportive behavior, moderately high to high follower maturity, and follower satisfaction. A survey of salespersons and managers in the insurance industry (Butler & Reese, 1991) found no relationship between leader adaptability and superior subordinate performance. Agents supervised by high task/low relationship managers performed better than agents managed by leaders who used other styles. The prescribed SLT styles were associated with inferior performance.

A study of motivation, leadership, and organizational effectiveness in public sector administrators (Lonardi et al., 1995) reported that effective administrators were highly adaptable leaders who suppressed a personal motivational tendency to exercise power and instead selected a leader behavior appropriate for the situation. Lonardi

et al. (1995) concluded that an understanding of effective leadership requires a more comprehensive approach than one based on McClelland's three-factor motivation theory.

This research focuses on the relationships between leadership style, follower readiness, and organizational outcomes in condominium and homeowner associations, known as common interest realty associations (CIRA). The CIRA, a volunteer-directed membership community, is responsible for maintaining the common properties that its members collectively own (Hanna, 1988). CIRA directors are unit owners who volunteer to serve a term of one year. To transact business and conduct meetings, over 50,000 CIRAs in the United States must recruit five volunteer directors each to serve on the board of directors (Hanna, 1988).

The membership interest that automatically attaches with the purchase of a dwelling unit creates a permanent covenant to pay assessed operating fees, abide by communal rules, and participate in community affairs (Young, 1984). The parliamentary procedures of these constitutional communities promote member participation in the decision-making process and encourage a consultative, consensus-oriented leadership (Paul, 1986; Phagan, 1985). Consensus management requires a decision-making style based on interpersonal persuasion, communication, and openness (Henderson, 1988).

CIRA nominating committees are urged to review potential board candidates by evaluating their willingness

to serve, as well as their education and experience (Hanna, 1988). The ideal director is an adaptable leader with strong interpersonal skills and a concern for others (Jacobs, 1988). Leaders who mismanage the human side of the enterprise contribute to member apathy and low morale (Paul, 1986).

CIRA vitality depends on clear and open communication between leaders and followers. CIRAs use informational committees to disseminate proposed policies and projects and to survey the members' concern for hidden problems. Proactive informational management can minimize alienating political opposition by informing members of major issues and soliciting their input and evaluation (Lauer, 1994; Weisman, 1986).

Dynamic and adaptable CIRA leaders respond to a diversity of member expectations about participation in community governance (Paul, 1986). The decisional methods, communication techniques, and leadership style that are effective for satisfying the needs of highly involved members differ from a leadership style that is effective for satisfying the needs of apathetic members. Autocratic decision making and one-way communication may satisfy an apathetic member's expectation of a carefree life-style.

This study of Situational Leadership Theory in condominium and homeowner associations will attempt to contribute to the SLT literature.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

This research questions whether SLT's assumptions that a match of leadership style and follower readiness affects satisfaction with communication, satisfaction with decision style, meeting management effectiveness, openness, and overall leader effectiveness. Does a match of leadership style and follower readiness influence organizational outcomes differently than does a mismatch of style and readiness?

The following hypotheses, expressed in the null form, will be tested:

H1: There is no significant difference in follower satisfaction with communication between leaders who match style and readiness and leaders who mismatch style and readiness.

H2: There is no significant difference in follower satisfaction with decision-making between leaders who match style and readiness and leaders who mismatch style and readiness.

H3: There is no significant difference in meeting management effectiveness between leaders who match style and readiness and leaders who mismatch style and readiness.

H4: There is no significant difference in openness to decision-making between leaders who match style and readiness and leaders who mismatch style and readiness.

H5: There is no significant difference in overall managerial effectiveness between leaders who match style and readiness and leaders who mismatch style and readiness.

The following hypotheses are restated in the substantive form:

H1(a): There is a significant difference in follower satisfaction with communication between leaders who match style and readiness and leaders who mismatch style and readiness.

H2(a): There is a significant difference in follower satisfaction with decision-making between leaders who match style and readiness and leaders who mismatch style and readiness.

H3(a): There is a significant difference in meeting management effectiveness between leaders who match style and readiness and leaders who mismatch style and readiness.

H4(a): There is a significant difference in openness to decision-making between leaders who match style and readiness and leaders who mismatch style and readiness.

H5(a): There is a significant difference in overall managerial effectiveness between leaders who match style and readiness and leaders who mismatch style and readiness.

Definitions and Concepts

The following key concepts tested in this study are presented below:

Leaders are formally elected members of the board of directors in a condominium and homeowner association.

Leadership style is a behavior pattern that an individual exhibits when attempting to influence the activities of followers as perceived by those followers (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988).

Directive behavior refers to the extent to which the leader solves problems, specifies solutions for followers, and engages in telling followers what will be done, when it will be done, and how it will be done (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988).

Supportive or relationship behavior refers to the extent to which the leader engages in two-way communication with followers regarding problem solving or decision making (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988).

Adaptability refers to the degree to which a leader is able to vary his/her style appropriately to the level of readiness of the follower involved in different situations (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988).

Task behavior refers to the extent to which leaders are likely to organize and define the roles of their followers; to explain what activity each is to do (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988).

A Telling style (S1) is a high form of task behavior in which the leader tells the follower what to do, where to do it, and how to do it (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988).

A Selling style is a moderate form of task behavior in which the leader provides direction but also provides an opportunity for dialogue and clarification (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988).

Participating behavior involves high amounts of two-way communication and supportive behavior and low amounts of direction (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988).

Delegating involves monitoring or observing followers who have the ability and willingness to perform without direction or support (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988).

Readiness refers to the extent to which a follower has the ability and willingness to perform a task or achieve a goal (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988).

Readiness Level One (R1) refers to a follower who lacks commitment and motivation, or ability and confidence (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988).

Readiness Level Two (R2) refers to a follower who lacks ability but is both motivated and confident (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988).

Readiness Level Three (R3) refers to a follower who has the ability to perform but is either unwilling or insecure (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988).

Readiness Level Four (R4) refers to a follower who has the ability and confidence to perform (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988).

Primary style, the style that a leader would tend to use most frequently, is defined by the style quadrant that has the greatest number of responses (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988).

Secondary style(s) is defined by the quadrant, other than the primary style quadrant, in which there are two or more responses (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988).

Style range refers to the total number of quadrants in which there are two or more responses. Style range measures how flexible the leader is in varying behaviors in attempting to influence others. Three or more responses in a quadrant indicates high flexibility; two responses in a quadrant indicates moderate flexibility (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988).

Leader decision-making style refers to the leader providing specific instructions for resolving a problem, asking others for input to solve the problem, sharing ideas to reach a consensus, or providing an opportunity for others to make the decision (Hersey & Natemeyer, 1982).

Meeting management effectiveness is defined by the leader clearly communicating the location, starting time, and duration of meetings; announcing the agenda topics in advance; giving attendees sufficient information to prepare for meetings; and giving adequate consideration to attendees' suggestions (Herrington, Natemeyer, Herrington, & Hersey, 1983).

Scope and Limitations of the Study

The study examines CIRA leaders and followers at the group level. Variations in individual levels of readiness and leader behavior may be obscured by the generalized perception of the group's perspective.

Limitations on the applicability of the findings relate to problems of measurement. The LEAD survey assessed member readiness and leadership style at both the individual and group levels. The likelihood of distortion is increased

when respondents are asked to generalize their responses. Data was collected from a number of CIRAs over several weeks, therefore limiting the generalizability of the findings. The self-assessed survey is limited by variations in time periods and situations over which respondents will report. Survey respondents are diversified by income, age, education, and free time. Variations on personal circumstances could obscure or intensify perceptions of satisfaction and performance.

Self-selection could also affect survey results. It is possible that willing and able followers will respond more frequently to the survey than apathetic followers. The percentage of responses could be distorted by a distribution of readiness in a population that includes a larger than expected frequency of supportive followers.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Theory of Informal and Formal Leadership

Leadership predates recorded history and the emergence of formal organizations. The evolutionary forces of natural selection and adaptation use intraspecific aggression to influence leader and follower behavior, the primal determinants of group hierarchies in social primates (Lorenz, 1971). Dominance struggles provide male baboons with the fighting and social skills required to ensure group survival in a competitive, Darwinian environment. Aggressive encounters involve highly evolved signals and ritualized postures that prevent death and preserve social order (Morris, 1967). The weaker individual signals defeat and terminates fighting by assuming a submissive position. The emergent leader's role of directing and defending the group is rewarded with access to food and estrous females (Eibl-Eibesfeldt, 1970). Less-assertive individuals benefit from a stable social order and protection from predators. While the nature-nurture controversy cautions against extrapolating from primate to human behavior, ethological studies reveal the evolutionary roots of group and leader behavior in humans.

The ethological leader theory, a deterministic and power-based paradigm, identified the behavioral determinants of group formation and leadership: individual needs and rewards, face-to-face communication, shared objectives, and role specialization. The compliance-inducing leadership model, the human group counterpart based on one-way communication and unilateral decision making, is an effective leadership style in a crisis situation or a results-oriented environment (Bass & Valenzi, 1974). The two models share a rigid group hierarchy and an autocratic leadership that satisfy members' physiological and safety needs in a security-focused environment. In contrast, the contemporary interactive leadership model (Bass, 1990) recognizes that follower motivations and expectations influence leader effectiveness and restrict leader authority.

The Hawthorne experiments indirectly developed the two-dimensional leadership model that measures group effectiveness as an interactive function of a leader's task perspective, human relations orientation, and other situational factors (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988). The Hawthorne relay assembly experiment was initially designed to assess the effect of illumination on group output, a causal relationship reflecting the one best method of scientific management. The substantive hypothesis held that extreme fluctuations of the independent variable would be matched by similar variations in the dependent variable.

However, group productivity expanded despite increases and decreases in the level of lighting, the length of rest pauses, and the duration of work shifts (Lee, 1980). The substantive hypothesis and notion of one best way were refuted. Research found that special supportive supervisory methods changed both work attitudes and group social relations (Wren, 1987). The relay group coalesced into a social unit with a shared sense of purpose.

While formal leadership was not observed in the relay room, the research identified the emergent group's ability to both satisfy member needs and affect organizational outcomes. Mayo (1933) attributed this phenomenon to the evolutionary roots of group behavior, the acute anomic condition of industrialized society, and the failure of task-oriented management to satisfy personal needs for security and affiliation (Wren, 1987). Homans (1950) provided support for Mayo's theory by identifying three empirical units of analysis that integrate and preserve informal groups: shared interactions, attitudes, and sentiments. Loomis (1959) found that large-scale organizations provide members of functional work groups with close proximity, interpersonal communication, frequent interactions, and common goals that create norms, emergent groups, and leaders. Regular interactions between two or more individuals generate a collective notion of acceptable conduct and rules to govern group relations. Leadership can emerge from a cohesive group with shared norms if the

leader's directives conform to the follower's zone of acceptable behavior (Lee, 1980).

Heinen and Jacobsen (1976) found that three stages of group development--the formation, differentiation, and integration stages--foster the growth of norms and leadership in mature groups. Norms, standards by which acceptable attitudes and behaviors are assessed, exert pressure on members to conform to shared expectations (Litterer, 1973). During the formation stage, individuals exert time and effort to learn formal tasks and meet coworkers. Individuals attempt to clarify work skills, task responsibilities, and social roles in an initial definition of expected behaviors. In the differentiation stage, intense interpersonal conflicts arise when members challenge ascribed roles and tentative norms (Litterer). The integration stage is characterized by a cohesive group conformity with shared norms. Observers at Hawthorne's bank wiring room reported that individual production strictly conformed to the informal group's notion of a fair day's output (Wren, 1987).

Role theory refers to the degree to which individual behavior and social interaction are constrained by the organizational structure (Bass, 1990). Role theory contends that informal leadership emerges from a mature group's long-term expectations of acceptable roles and norms (Bass). Organizational role theory contends that a role emerges from a worker's preexisting expectations of other actors'

behavior based on the division of labor (Mintzberg, 1973). Expectations eventually become shared and predictable patterns of organizational behavior. In addition, information technology, organizational structure, and the reward subsystem facilitate the development of role expectations and the emergence of leadership in collaborative work groups (Klenke, 1992).

Mintzberg (1973) formulated a descriptive theory of the formal leader's functions from a systematic examination and categorization of managerial behavior. Structured observations of chief executive activities described the purpose and content of managerial work. Mintzberg initially identified the common features of managerial work and then isolated the special work characteristics and roles of the chief executive officer.

As the person functionally responsible for an organization or department, the manager accepts a positional authority and status that creates three generic roles: those concerned with interpersonal relationships, those involving the transfer of information, and those requiring decision-making (Mintzberg, 1973). The roles are derived from the manager's responsibility to lead subordinates, monitor resource inputs and outputs, and identify and solve problems.

The interpersonal roles of a leader as figurehead and liaison are defined in external and internal interactions with others. In the primary leadership role, the manager is

internally involved with recruiting, motivating, and rewarding subordinates. A manager serves as a figurehead by formally representing the organization to others and as a liaison by interacting with external peers to gain information (Mintzberg, 1973).

Formal authority and interpersonal roles define the manager as an informational nerve center between his/her organization and the external environment. Regardless of an organization's size or mission, relevant internal information flows from a core of functional specialists to the decision maker via formal reports and casual comments. Formal reports describe historical operating facts; informal comments signal subjective preferences. As a monitor, the manager receives and stores external economic and political information. As a disseminator, the manager transmits information and decisions internally to subordinates. The manager serves as spokesperson when externally sending information to groups, such as the board of directors and stockholders (Mintzberg, 1973).

Problems and opportunities identified in the informational roles are subject to analysis and resolution in the crucial decisional roles of entrepreneur, resource-allocator, and disturbance handler. Vested with overall responsibility for ensuring organizational success and achieving the stakeholders' interests, the chief executive officer is responsible for designing an efficient production system. In the unstructured strategic planning process, the

manager translates stakeholder interest and organizational mission into formal policies and objectives to guide operational decision making and define corporate priorities (Mintzberg, 1973).

As an entrepreneur, the chief executive responds to adverse environmental trends by initiating systematic change to improve the organization's performance. As resource allocator, the chief executive officer commits human and financial resources to planned work levels and special projects. Continuous and unexpected internal disturbances are generally handled by operational managers (Mintzberg, 1973).

Despite the attributionists' contention that contemporary organizational outcomes are determined by technological, economic, and situational forces that require little or no leader intervention (Bass, 1990), leadership remains the critical success factor for maintaining cohesive social groups and effective political, nonprofit, and commercial organizations. Research has consistently identified and measured the behavioral, organizational, and situational outcomes directly affected by leadership. Safire (1975) found that effective U.S. presidents adopt interpersonal, decisional, and communication methods to explain, persuade, and enlist grass-roots support for their policy initiatives. Paul (1986) contended that effective condominium leaders prevent member apathy and community disintegration by engaging in two-way communication to

discover community needs, develop appropriate programs, and promote acceptable decisions. Enthusiastic, supportive, and innovative leadership does make a difference.

Comparative measures of leader competence are based on the effectiveness and efficiency constructs. Hersey and Blanchard (1988) define effectiveness as a qualitative achievement of formal group or organizational goals, while efficiency refers to a quantitative measure of output to input. Hersey and Blanchard (1988) emphasize leader effectiveness over efficiency because of the paramount importance of attaining organizational goals.

Research on leader effectiveness reflects the human relations movement's view of leader behavior as a continuum of styles from autocratic through participative to laissez-faire (White & Lippitt, 1960). Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958) analyzed the authoritarian and democratic leadership dichotomy as opposite poles on a behavioral continuum differentiated by decision-making and communication techniques, managerial values, and personal competencies.

According to Bass (1990), autocratic leaders use a directive style to dictate how, when, and where to do a task. A unilateral decisional method and one-way communications technique requires the leader to personally identify and solve problems. Movement from authoritarian style involves the leader's use of persuasion, reason, and logic to explain decisions and enlist follower acceptance (Tannenbaum & Schmidt, 1958). Participation requires self-

confident leadership and competent followers united by a consensus approach to problem identification and solution. The leader's openness to one-to-one or group discussion promotes goal congruence and personal development. While less timely than directive leadership, participation can improve the range and quality of solutions to problems. Tucker (1991) found that participative leadership in information system design and development is more time-consuming in the short run but promotes effective and independent group performance in the long run. Participative leadership and follower involvement facilitates systems implementation projects by eliminating worker resistance to change and fear of increased managerial control (Tucker).

Research on the antecedent determinants of directive and participative leadership focuses on leader and follower competencies and follower motivation, as well as goal congruence, task content, and organizational structure. Hersey and Blanchard's Life Cycle Theory (1969) tied leadership style to the follower's maturity level, with the objective of facilitating self-actualization. Immature, unwilling, and unable followers lack the technical competence and self-confidence to perform a task independently. The leader is urged to use a directive style with close supervision and autocratic decision making (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988). Misumi (1985) found that a relations orientation decreases interpersonal tension and

promotes conflict resolution by generating support for conflicting opinions. Shaw and Blum (1964) found that a directive style yields timely solutions to highly structured tasks. Tucker (1991) stated that autocratic, top-down leadership is appropriate for eliciting quick and qualitative decisions if the required information is available and follower acceptance of a unilateral decision is assured. A participative, bottom-up approach is suggested when the follower has both expertise and information to effectively solve a problem.

Research on the relationship between communication networks and group leadership differentiation found that face-to-face discussions correlated highly with emergent leadership (Klenke, 1992). Network communications experiments (non-face-to-face discussion) found a weaker pattern of emergent leadership. Information technology reduces the effect of verbal and nonverbal cues associated with leadership and role differentiation, and undermines the personal dynamics of traditional leadership behavior.

Iyengar (1992) emphasizes the decision-making and communication roles of leaders in designing and communicating a clear and concise summary of the organization's mission. Design involves strategic planning and restructuring of technical and socio-emotive subsystems. A face-to-face, Selling style of leadership should use group discussion to promote decision acceptability and goal congruence. Iyengar advocated downsizing to achieve a

flatter structure for rapid flow of information and decisions to key personnel. The traditional hierarchy impedes productivity by delaying both information and decisions.

Introduction to Situational Leadership Theory

Contingency theories are antithetical to the one best way of scientific management. Contingency leadership theories (Fiedler, 1967; Hersey & Blanchard, 1977; and Vroom & Yetton, 1974) contend that a combination of leader behaviors and situational factors determine the effectiveness of a managerial style. While contingency theories posit the importance of leader characteristics emphasized in the trait approach (Bennis & Nanus, 1985), they stress the primacy of diagnostic skills and adaptable leadership in identifying and responding to one or more situational factors (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988). Fiedler's situational leadership theory (1967) argues that managerial effectiveness is a function of three situational elements: leader-follower relations, leader position power, and task complexity. Vroom and Yetton (1974) examine seven normative rules that prescribe an appropriate leader behavior and group composition to promote decisional quality and acceptability. Hersey and Blanchard (1977, 1988) prescribe an optimal leadership style based on the interaction of leader relationship orientation, task perspective, and follower readiness (maturity).

SLT (Hersey & Blanchard, 1977, 1988) asserts that a single situational variable, follower maturity, interacts with leader supportive and task behavior to determine managerial effectiveness and other outcome variables, such as follower satisfaction, morale, and performance. SLT reflects the assumptions of both the scientific management and human relations schools by focusing on a leader's concern for structure and consideration (Blank et al., 1990). SLT's two-dimensional graph mirrors Blake and Mouton's managerial grid (1964) and the Ohio (Fleishman, 1951) and Michigan studies (Likert, 1961) in its evaluation of consideration (vertical axis) and structure (horizontal axis).

SLT's leadership prescriptions require an ability to (a) diagnose the behavioral and technical elements of a situation; (b) adapt the appropriate leader behavior; and (c) communicate an understanding of, and involvement in, the decisional process (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988). SLT's prescriptions are appropriate for both organizational and nonhierarchal settings in which a leader attempts to influence a follower's achievement of a common goal. A fit between SLT's decisional, communication, and leadership prescriptions and follower maturity should positively influence personal satisfaction and goal congruence in a one-to-one encounter (Blank et al., 1990). Hersey and Blanchard (1988) caution that group decisional methods are complicated by the diversity of members' personal needs and

motives. In a group setting, the critical success factor for effective leadership is goal congruence.

Vecchio (1987) questioned the validity of applying SLT to both individuals and groups. SLT's interpersonal dynamics are based on the interaction between leader behavior and individual maturity level. Different leader behaviors are required for effective group and individual leadership. According to Vecchio, the appropriate unit of analysis is the individual.

SLT evolved from Reddin's three-dimensional management style theory (1970), which viewed effectiveness as an interactive function of leader relationship, task behavior, and unidentified situational factors (Vecchio, 1987). Bass (1990) claimed that SLT's sole situational variable, follower maturity, is derived from Argyris' (1957) immaturity-maturity motivation theory, which emphasized managerial practices and organizational structure to promote healthy, independent workers. SLT's life cycle concept represents four stages of follower maturity characterized by increasing levels of task competency and self-confidence (Vecchio). At the lowest level of follower maturity, the leader should use a directive, task-oriented style for new employees who lack both task and psychological maturity (Bass), since these followers are neither able nor willing to perform independently. As the followers' task-relevant skills and attitudes mature, the task-oriented, directive

style should be replaced by a concern for relations and participation (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988).

Blank et al. (1990) view the independent situational factor, follower maturity, as the key determinant of task behavior, support behavior, and leader effectiveness. Maturity, the ability and willingness to take responsibility for directing one's behavior, consists of psychological maturity and job maturity (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988). Psychological maturity is a willingness to do something with confidence and commitment (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988). Job maturity is the ability to do something related to education and job experience (Blank et al., 1990).

An effective decisional technique and leadership style is a function of (a) the amount of guidance and direction provided (concern for structure or task behavior), (b) the amount of socio-emotive support given (relationship behavior), and (c) the follower's readiness level to independently and competently perform a task (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988). While the leader must diagnose the situation, adopt the required behavior, and communicate effectively with the follower, follower readiness emerged as the current focal point of a revised SLT (Hersey & Blanchard, 1996). Readiness, a surrogate measure of maturity and a primary determinant of a preferred leadership style, is defined as the ability and willingness to perform a task or objective (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988). Readiness includes (a) ability--the knowledge, experience, and

technical skill to do a task; and (b) willingness--self-confidence and motivation (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988).

The leadership graph (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988) is defined by a vertical axis depicting levels of supportive behavior and a horizontal axis representing directive behavior. An additional horizontal axis depicts follower readiness as four levels of willingness and ability. The main graph consists of four quadrants that match leadership style to an appropriate readiness level. SLT prescribes one of four leader behaviors (S1-S4) for each of four readiness levels (R1-R4).

According to Butler and Reese (1991), the four readiness levels that determine the appropriate leader behavior are:

R1: Unable and Unwilling (lacks skill and motivation)

R2: Unable but Willing (lacks skill but is motivated)

R3: Able but Unwilling (has skill but is not motivated)

R4: Able and Willing (has skill and motivation)

The corresponding leadership style associated with each readiness level include:

S1: High task and low relationship orientation fits readiness level (R1), requiring strong guidance for a follower low in motivation and ability.

S2: High task and high relationship behavior characterized by strong support for a willing but poorly skilled follower (R2).

S3: Moderate task and moderate relationship style matching an able but unwilling follower (R3).

S4: Low task and low relationship behavior fit for an able and willing follower (R4).

Blanchard (1991) defined directive leadership (S1/R1) as one-way communication in which the leader specifies the follower's role and tells what, when, and how to do a task. Directive behavior is characterized by a concern for structure, control, and supervision. Selling behavior (S2/R2) involves two-way communications, listening, encouragement, and limited participation in decision making. Selling behavior is characterized by a leader's openness to a follower's involvement in decision making, tempered by an awareness of the follower's limited maturity. Participating behavior(S3/R3) reflects high supportive and low directive leader behavior characterized by interpersonal communications and follower involvement in problem solving and decision making. A Delegating style (S4/R4), low supportive and low directive leader behavior, allows an able, willing, and confident follower to complete the task independently.

Aldag and Brief (1981), Graeff (1983), and Nicholls (1990) criticized the logical consistency and conceptual clarity of the relationships between (a) initiating structure and maturity, (b) concern for support and maturity, and (c) the general inconsistencies of SLT's curvilinear, inverted U-shaped graph. According to Nicholls, SLT reflects an inconsistency in matching two unwilling levels (R1 and R3) with a low relationship at R1 and a high relationship at R3. A similar inconsistency is reflected in matching two levels of inability (R1 and R2) with a low relationship at R1 and a high relationship at R2. In addition, Nicholls contends that relationships at the opposite ends of the readiness axis should be logical opposites: SLT correctly matches a high directive/low relationship style (R1/S1) with an unable/unwilling follower, but it fails to fit a high relationship/low task style for a willing and able follower (R4/S4).

Graeff (1983) criticized SLT's notion that a willing/unable follower at R2 is less mature than an unwilling/able follower at R3. Graeff contends that SLT's assignment of causal priority to ability over maturity lacks theoretical support. According to Graeff, the inverse relationship between structure and maturity correctly postulates that less supervision is required with increasing levels of willingness and ability. The horizontal maturity axis reflects increasing levels of maturity as a follower grows from an unwilling/unable position at R1 to a willing

and able position at R4, the origin. As ability increases at R2 and R3, the willingness at the lower maturity level (R2) changes to unwillingness at R3. Aldag and Brief (1981) found no theoretical support for the inconsistency in follower willingness in levels R2 and R3 (Bass, 1990). Logical inconsistencies undermine the model's curvilinear relationship between leader behavior and follower maturity (Graeff, 1983).

Bass' (1990) review of the relevant research found little support for SLT. Hersey, Angelini, and Carakushansky (1982) found that SLT improved the learning of an experimental group in a management training experiment involving 60 participants. The instructor for the experimental group fit the four progressive leadership styles of Telling, Selling, Participating, and Delegating to the participants' maturity level. Hersey et al. (1982) found that the experimental group's learning exceeded the control group's result. In other supportive research findings, Jacobsen (1984) found the leader effectiveness and adaptability description ratings of 338 managers correlated with the career progress and performance of subordinates. Haley (1983) found a positive correlation between leader adaptability and follower work-group effectiveness.

Vecchio (1987) surveyed 303 high school teachers to assess the interactive effect of follower maturity and leader concern for task and relationships on the dependent variables follower satisfaction with supervision, quality of

leader-follower relations, and follower preference for a task or relationship style. In addition, Vecchio matched groups of leaders and followers to create a subgroup whose psychological and job maturity fits a leader's style. The matched subgroup's performance was expected to be superior to that of the mismatched group. Vecchio's findings for a direct effect between matched pairs were mixed. SLT was strongly supported in the low-maturity condition where structure provides task-relevant guidance to poorly skilled followers. However, there was no conclusive effective style for moderate and high levels of maturity.

Norris and Vecchio (1992) surveyed 105 members of a nursing staff to assess the three-way interaction of structure, consideration, and maturity on satisfaction with supervisory styles, the quality of leader-follower relations, and overall performance. While complex statistical tests found no support for the hypothesized three-way interactions, Vecchio and Norris reported that low-maturity levels matched leadership style. In addition to problems in conceptualizing maturity, Vecchio and Norris contend maturity should be examined in longitudinal studies instead of cross-sectional studies. Finally, a follower's maturity may be multifaceted and change with various dimensions of a task.

Butler and Reese (1991) replicated Hambleton and Gumpert's study (1982) of leadership style and follower performance by surveying 41 managers and 884 subordinates in

the insurance industry. Butler and Reese hypothesized that subordinates of adaptable managers performed better than subordinates of nonadaptable leaders. The research used annual agent sales as an index of performance. A second hypothesis stated that one of SLT's four leadership styles should correlate with effective performance. In addition to finding a negative correlation between adaptability and performance, Butler and Reese found that regardless of follower ability and willingness, a directive style (S1) was associated with higher performance. Butler and Reese concluded that SLT's prescriptions did not represent the correct leadership style.

Goodson et al. (1989) assessed SLT's ability to predict the probability of success when a leader selects an inappropriate style. Their research tested both an interactive and a main effect of the independent variables leadership style and follower maturity on employee perception and attitudes. SLT prescribes an appropriate, second-best, third-best, and least desirable style for each of four levels of follower readiness. Goodson et al. hypothesized that follower satisfaction and commitment are related to an interaction of leader supportive and directive behaviors and follower readiness. The constructs role ambiguity, satisfaction with supervision, satisfaction with communication, general satisfaction, and organizational commitment were substituted as empirical referents of employee perception and attitudes. The research tested the

following prescribed leadership style-maturity relationships for four subgroups:

1. High direction/low support (Telling) for low readiness
2. High direction/high support (Selling) for moderately low readiness
3. Low direction/high support (Participating) for moderately high readiness
4. Low direction/low support (Delegating) for high readiness

Goodson et al. (1989) reported that followers in all readiness groups reported more satisfaction with a high-support style. Despite SLT's predicted ranking of preferred styles, Selling and Participating were consistently associated with higher levels of satisfaction. Telling and Delegating were associated with lower satisfaction. The best and worst styles for high-readiness and low-readiness groups were identical. Selling was associated with the highest level of supervision satisfaction and communication. Delegating was identified as the least preferred style. Both high-readiness and low-readiness groups reported the lowest level of satisfaction and commitment with Telling. The findings challenged both SLT's major leader behavior-readiness interactions and its ordered predictions.

In a survey of hall directors and resident advisors in several universities, Blank et al. (1990) examined separately (a) the linear relationship between task-oriented behavior and maturity on follower satisfaction and performance, (b) the curvilinear relationship between support-oriented behavior and maturity on follower satisfaction and performance, and (c) the interactive effect of leadership style and maturity on follower performance and satisfaction. The substantive hypothesis held that follower performance and satisfaction will be higher when leadership style fits the maturity level prescribed by SLT.

Blank et al. (1990) used three maturity ratings (by peers, by participants, and by leaders) to avoid the measurement bias associated with the self-assessment of leadership and follower maturity in Hambleton and Gumpert (1982). However, statistical tests found no support for SLT's prescriptions. Only psychological maturity and task behavior revealed an interaction between leader behavior and follower maturity on the predicted outcome, work satisfaction.

Smith (1993) examined the relationship between leader decision-making style, subordinate acceptance, and commitment in situations in which neither the leader nor the subordinate has significant control. Smith's situational

approach to influencing behavior requires the leader to consider aspects and consequences of the decision-making process prior to decision making. The approach merged Hersey and Blanchard's SLT with the Vroom-Yetton (1973) decision theory to provide an improved decision-making model to affect productivity, subordinate satisfaction, and subordinate motivation.

Smith (1993) asserted that the choice of an appropriate leadership style depends, in part, on diagnosing the situation and answering Vroom's (1964) five questions to determine if subordinate involvement is appropriate:

1. Is the decision critical?
2. Is there sufficient information for making a quality decision?
3. Is the acceptance of subordinates important?
4. Will subordinate commitment be affected by a unilateral decision?
5. Do subordinates share the organization's goals?

The answer to each question translates into a selection of one of SLT's four styles. If the decision is critical and sufficient information is available, a Telling style is appropriate and the leader acts unilaterally. However, if information is required and acceptability is important, then a Selling or Participating style should be considered. On the other hand, use of the Participating and Delegating

styles can foster subordinate expectations of continued involvement in decision making, which effectively reduces the leader's control.

Smith (1993) emphasized the importance of determining follower readiness to accept responsibility before adapting a leadership style. An untested hypothesis stated that managerial decisions based on the Vroom-Yetton (1974) decision criteria and the SLT readiness perspective will positively influence subordinate involvement in organizational outcomes.

Benson (1994) applied SLT's leader effectiveness prescriptions to initiate a Total Quality Management (TQM) program in a process management setting for Systems & Computer Technology Corporation (SCT). SCT had been using one process management approach to TQM implementation. SCT used the same standardized assembly line procedures in TQM implementation that it used in manufacturing. However, management felt that the implementation program had alienated those employees who did not accept the management-imposed TQM method.

Benson (1994) developed a situational process management model based on SLT's leadership prescriptions that recognized special cultural factors within SCT's environment. According to this model, the introduction of

TQM in SCT's highly directive management culture will be effective in the early stage of implementation because the directive approach is suitable for employees with low readiness. As readiness increases and employees realize moderate empowerment, a highly supportive management style replaces the directive behavior and the process-improvement program is directed jointly by teams through consensus management.

Lonardi et al. (1995) examined how leader motivation affects follower outcomes and the organizational effectiveness of public sector administrators. A survey of award-winning administrators asked each respondent to assess three key job attributes: (a) activities involving the maintenance of friendly relationships with other people, (b) activities that influence the behavior of others, and (c) activities that accomplish difficult but feasible goals. The research questioned whether McClelland's need theory trichotomy (need for power, need for achievement, and need for affiliation) characterized the personal motivational profiles of school superintendents identified as excellent leaders.

Research based on a job choice exercise (a measure of McClelland's motives) and personal interviews found that highly rated school superintendents have a high need for

power and a low need for affiliation. Interviews discovered that effective administrators attributed their success to an ability to adopt a leadership style that effectively influenced different groups within an organization. Effective administrators diagnosed people in complex situations and were highly adaptable leaders. The findings suggest that an understanding of effective leadership involves more than an analysis of three motivational variables.

House and Mitchell (1974)contend that two classes of situational variables, characteristics of the environment and characteristics of the follower, moderate the effect of the two dimensions of leader behavior, initiating structure and consideration, on follower outcomes. Characteristics of the environment include task structure, job autonomy, role ambiguity, job scope, and task interdependence. Characteristics of the follower include dependence, authoritarianism, ability, and locus of control. In a meta-analysis of House and Mitchell's Path-Goal theory, Wofford and Liska (1993) examined whether the relationships between leader behaviors and follower outcomes are moderated by situational factors.

After reviewing 120 previous studies, Wofford and Liska tested the main and interactive effects of 19 moderators and

two leader behaviors on the following outcomes: satisfaction with supervision, work satisfaction, performance effectiveness, and role clarity. Statistical tests of 19 consideration-oriented hypothesis and 11 structure-focused hypotheses found 10 predictions exceeded the frequency of a chance occurrence but did not provide strong support for the theory. The results suggest that effective leadership styles do not remove obstacles to follower-valued goals as predicted by Path-Goal theory.

Wofford and Liska (1993) suggest that future research focus on a more parsimonious approach to understanding leader effectiveness. Effective leaders may diagnosis situations and discover environmental obstacles to follower goal attainment and initiate action to remove the hindrances. Effective leaders may diagnose the situation to find solutions to problems that result in improved follower satisfaction and performance. Research should move away from a broad moderating-interaction perspective and focus on the relationships between adaptable leadership styles and a manageable number of situational factors. Future research should identify leader characteristics that support effectiveness, such as adaptability, diagnosis, cognitive skill, and communication skills.

Irgens (1995) proposed modifying SLT's single-factor approach to leader effectiveness by adding two additional categories of situational factors to influence follower behavior. Irgens retains SLT's focus on follower readiness and suggests that more effective leaders provide only as much directive and supportive behavior as the subordinate needs. The amount of directive behavior is determined by the follower's ability to be self-directed, while the amount of supportive behavior is determined by the follower's ability to function without support. Follower ability to be self-directed is determined by four factors: (a) task knowledge, (b) task skill, (c) planning ability, and (d) ability to meet deadlines. Follower ability to perform without support is based on three factors: (a) self-confidence, (b) stability, and (c) endurance.

Effective leaders develop subordinates by providing the right amount of directive and supportive behaviors. The right amount of directive behavior is influenced by four ability-to-self-direct factors, and the right amount of supportive behavior is determined by the ability-to-perform-without-support factors.

Irgens' enhanced SLT model includes two new situational factors to increase leader effectiveness: leader personality and the situation. Leader personality refers to the

leader's experience, style, and attitude toward others. The situation refers to available time, organizational structure and culture, and risk of mistakes (Irgens, 1995). The subordinate-focused SLT leader narrowly defines effectiveness and neglects the moderating effect of additional factors that influence the selection of an appropriate leadership style.

Wofford (1994) asserts that an understanding of leader effectiveness through a single-factor situational approach is inadequate. A dynamic cognitive approach to leader effectiveness underscores the inadequacy of using four static leadership styles to understand and motivate subordinates. Wofford's cognitive approach to leader effectiveness is a real-time model of a leader's cognitive assessment of environmental factors that diagnoses information and provides feedback for follower development. Leader interactions with subordinates involve a continuous processing of information about subordinate performance, subordinate profile, the task, and the work environment. Wofford asserts that understanding and diagnosing the causes of deficient subordinate behaviors is the key to prescribing an effective leadership style. While SLT leaders understand subordinate behavior as a set of readiness categories to be matched to a leadership style, the cognitive leader's

evaluation of subordinate deficiencies is based on a richer assessment of the cause of deficient behavior. An understanding of the deficiency facilitates development of an appropriate response strategy for organizational effectiveness.

Other situational leadership theories contend that subordinate, organizational, and task variables moderate the relationship between leader behaviors and subordinate criterion variables. The Path-Goal model (House & Mitchel, 1974) and the Substitute for Leadership model (Kerr & Jermier, 1978) assert that the effectiveness of different leader behaviors may be enhanced, weakened, or neutralized by interacting with certain situational factors. A leader's attempt to influence subordinate outcomes by initiating structure or consideration behavior will be moderated by the interaction of organizational characteristics, subordinate traits, and task attributes. Leader effectiveness is a function of the interaction of traditional leader behaviors and situational factors, such as task structure and clarity, subordinate autonomy and training, and work group cohesiveness.

Kerr and Jermier (1978) assert that the effectiveness of leader behavior depends on organizational, individual, and task characteristics that substitute for, or neutralize,

leadership. Environmental factors that impact leader behavior may neutralize, but not replace, the leader's influence on subordinate outcomes. Substitute variables reduce or eliminate the leader's ability to influence subordinate attitudes and behaviors. Three general categories of substitutes and neutralizers (personal, task, and organizational) are subcategorized into four subordinate characteristics (ability, training, experience, and knowledge), three task attributes (intrinsically satisfying, routine, and feedback), and six organizational factors (organizational formalization, rule inflexibility, work group cohesiveness, staff support, reward system, and spatial distance between superior and subordinate).

Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Ahearne, and Bommer (1995) examined the statistical methods used to test moderators and asserted that appropriate statistical procedures are required to reveal a pattern of moderating effects. Which appropriate regression coefficients should be used to test for moderating effects depends on whether the test is for moderation in the form of the relationship or for moderation in the degree of the relationship. Podsakoff et al. (1995) argued that moderated regression procedures should be used to test moderation in the form of the relationship. In the regression equation $Y = \alpha + b_1X + b_2Z + b_3ZX$, the moderator

(*Z*) affects the influence of leader behavior (*X*) on subordinate outcomes (*Y*).

The impact of the moderator on the relationship between leader behavior and subordinate outcomes depends on the significance and signs of the coefficients, b_2 and b_3, and the level of *Z* (Podsakoff et al., 1995). Several moderating effects are possible, depending on the signs of the coefficients. If the signs of the two coefficients are different, the moderators weaken the impact of leader behavior on the subordinate outcome. If the signs of the two coefficients are the same, the moderator strengthens the impact of the leader's behavior on the outcome variable.

Interaction occurs when b_1 is not significant but b_3 is significant. Given this condition, the relationship between leader behavior and subordinate outcome changes from positive to negative depending on the level of the moderator (*Z*). Levels of *Z* refer to the mean of *Z*, and one standard deviation above and below the mean.

When b_1 is not significant, but b_3 is significant, leader behavior is positively and negatively related to subordinate outcomes at certain levels of the moderator. If b_1 and b_3 are both significant, the relationship between leader behavior and subordinate outcome is the same regardless of the level of the moderator. If b_3 is

significant and b_1 is significant at one level of the moderator but not at the other, then the leader's behavior may be either functional or dysfunctional. According to Podsakoff et al. (1995), this case of interaction is the most critical because managerial behavior may be either helpful or harmful.

In a meta-analytic review of previous research, Podsakoff et al. (1995) found little support for the hypothesized moderating effects of the Path-Goal and Substitute for Leadership models.

Podsakoff, Niehoff, & MacKenzie (1993) conducted a meta-analysis of leadership substitutes by examining problems with measurement scales and deficiencies with the model that account for mixed support in the research literature. The two-fold study examined the adequacy of a substitute scale and tested the main and interactive effects of substitutes and leader behaviors.

In a study of 372 MBA students, Podsakoff et al. (1993) used factor analysis to assess the validity of a measure of substitutes. A second study of 612 organizational respondents tested the Substitute for Leadership model by examining the main and interactive effects of a number of leader behaviors and substitute variables. Dimensions of leader behavior include instrumental and supportive

behaviors, as well as punishment and reward behaviors. Leader behaviors are moderated by 74 situational substitutes. Subordinate outcome variables included general satisfaction, organizational commitment, role conflict, performance, and attitude. The model contends that the interaction between leader reward, leader punishment behavior, and subordinate characteristics affects subordinate outcomes.

A hierarchical regression analysis found strong support for the Substitute for Leadership model and also found that leader substitutes account for a large proportion of the variance in subordinate outcomes. Substitutes are important determinants of employee satisfaction, commitments, and role ambiguity. Reward behavior was positively related to employee performance and satisfaction. Punishment behavior was positively related to subordinate perception of role conflict and negatively related to general satisfaction.

Fiedler's contingency theory asserts that the relationship between leadership style and leader effectiveness is moderated by situational control (Fiedler & Garcia, 1987). Leader control--the ability to influence others--is influenced by the quality of leader-subordinate relations, the degree of task structure, and the leader's positional power. The Least Preferred Co-Worker (LPC)

Scale, a measure originally designed to identify relations-oriented behavior and task-oriented leadership, gauges the degree to which a leader can exercise influence over a work group. A leader's rating of the personal attributes of the one co-worker with whom he/she could work least well (Bass, 1990) identifies the favorable and unfavorable situations for predicting performance outcomes. Favorable conditions are rated as 8 on an 8-point scale, and unfavorable situations are rated as 1 on the scale. The sum of the scales constitutes the LPC score. A high LPC score is associated with a relationship-oriented leader, while a low LPC score indicates a task-motivated leader (Bass, 1990).

Research findings suggest that (a) low-LPC leaders are more effective than other behavior types under both favorable and unfavorable situations, (b) high-LPC leaders are effective in moderately favorable conditions, and (c) leader effectiveness declines in a zone where situational control does not match LPC score (Schriesheim, Bennett, & Tetrault, 1994). Test results supporting low effectiveness in low-control situations suggest that leaders should be placed in situations that best match their LPC score.

In a meta-analysis of the research literature on contingency model performance, Schriesheim et al. (1994)

applied parametric and nonparametric procedures to test across octant predictions about mean performance of LPC leaders. The research found that prediction of equal performance between high-LPC and low-LPC leaders was not supported. However, prediction of declining performance of leaders where LPC scores do not match situational control were supported.

Zorn and Leichty's (1991) reinterpretation of SLT enhanced the model's controversial life cycle/maturity concept and refined the leader behaviors that positively influence subordinate outcomes and development. SLT's vague readiness and maturity constructs are replaced by Brown and Levinson's theory of face needs and politeness (1987), a motivation-based model linking subordinate outcomes to positive messages and other feedback. In addition, the theory of face needs facilitates changes from high-task behavior to low-relationship behavior by communicating messages offering approval of subordinate actions and autonomy.

Brown and Levinson's theory of face needs and politeness utilizes message analysis in the subordinate development cycle to satisfy salient face needs. The theory of face needs and politeness strategies complements SLT's Life Cycle Theory by offering communication as leader-

initiated feedback to satisfy a follower's need for verbal evaluation. SLT's two leader behaviors, initiating structure and consideration, match leader behavior to follower maturity level through measurable communication linkage that promotes follower development by sending messages of approval and autonomy granting as a follower moves through the life cycle.

Brown and Levinson asserted that two face wants, positive face and autonomy, function in every interpersonal encounter. Positive face refers to an individual's desire for approval or esteem. Autonomy refers to a need for freedom of action. Face wants are inherent in the leader-follower relationship because satisfaction requires interaction and approval.

This approach provides clarity to SLT's continuous leader-follower interactions by structuring leader-follower relations and motivations in a social and communication process that links to the dynamic of the Life Cycle Theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969). Communication exchanges provide a clear framework for evaluating leadership styles and establishing the follower's identity. The message analysis approach replaces consideration and structure by substituting specific features of messages that characterize SLT's four leadership styles.

As a follower moves through the life cycle from low (R1) to moderately low (R2) readiness, the leaders should provide more verbal approval and autonomy-granting gestures that are appropriate for the change from R1 to R2. As the follower reaches moderately high readiness (R3), the leader should grant more autonomy. The research uses the message analysis approach to capture face support in messages and to explore task and relationship behavior.

Telling involves messages concerning the task, little support for the follower's positive face, and no autonomy. Selling involves much positive face support and messages that signal the granting of autonomy. Participating involves increased autonomy and high levels of positive face. Delegating involves the granting of autonomy and little need for positive face.

Zorn and Leichty (1991) questioned whether positive face support and autonomy granting are related to outcomes as predicted by SLT. SLT contends that the specific interactions occur between follower readiness and positive face support and autonomy granting. The following hypothesis were examined:

1. Autonomy granting is negatively related to outcomes in R1 and R2 and positively related to outcomes in R3 and R4.

2. Autonomy granting is positively related to message effectiveness for R3 and R4 followers.

3. Positive face support will decrease from R4 to R3.

Zorn and Liechty (1991) surveyed the reactions of 85 reservation agents to a three-week training program. Respondents were asked to evaluate performance feedback and answer questions about job maturity, the degree of positive face support, and autonomy granting. Regression analysis was used to test the predicted interaction between the independent message variables (positive face support, autonomy granting, and maturity) on message effectiveness. Tests found the hypothesized interactions between positive face support and readiness were nonexistent. In addition, there was weak support for hypothesized interactions between positive face management and follower readiness.

Ashforth (1994) developed a situational model of the antecedents of tyrannical management and created a measurement scale to assess the effect of organizational tyranny on subordinates. The model contributes to the situational management literature by formulating an empirical theory of tyranny based on the interaction of dysfunctional leader behaviors and situational moderators. The hypothesized effects of tyrannical leadership on

organizational outcomes and subordinates include poor performance, stress, alienation, and low self-esteem.

Individual predisposition to tyrannical behavior is found in authoritarian personalities. In descriptive organizational terminology, tyrannical behaviors are identified by close supervision, control, distrust, suspicion, and other examples of extreme Theory X attitudes. Antecedents of tyrannical management include personal attitudes and beliefs about the organization and about subordinates, and a preference for decisiveness. Macro-level situational factors include formalized values and norms emphasizing compliance and punishment for infractions, mechanistic organizations with centralized management, and standardized procedures and control-oriented entrepreneurs. Micro-level factors facilitating tyrannical management include subordinate powerlessness in the form of poor skills, resource scarcity, and the leader's successful use of power. While Ashforth did not collect data or perform statistical analysis, the situational model seriously examined ineffective leadership as a phenomenon that is something more than the absence of positive behaviors.

The Vroom-Yetton (1974) normative decision model provides a prescriptive, situational approach to effective decision-making techniques and leadership styles. Their

contingency model prescribes an effective decision-making style and group composition when both decision quality and acceptability are important. Vroom-Yetton (1974) provide seven rules to promote decision quality and acceptability. The decision quality is linked to the complexity of the problem and the availability of relevant information. Acceptability reflects a follower's subjective reaction to the solution and the decision-making process (Field, 1979).

The decision-making processes range from autocratic (A, AII) to consultative (CI, CII) to group participation (G) and include various levels of group participation and decision-making interactions. Group participation can provide expertise and information to improve the solution to semistructured and unstructured problems. The degree of subordinate input and interaction is influenced by the structure of the problem, the likelihood of decision acceptability, and subordinate implementation of the proposed solution without conflict. Participation levels are affected by time limitation, subordinate goal congruence and expertise, and leader skill in the use of consultative management.

The focus on subordinate participation for decision acceptability and quality enhances the choices within the decision-making process by helping determine who should be a decision maker. The model's five decision-making methods include:

1. AI: Leader autocratically solves a problem without informational input from or interaction with subordinates.
2. AII: Leader collects information from subordinates but may or may not inform them of the problem or include them in the solution.
3. CI: Leader shares the problem and solicits information and solutions from subordinates individually, not as a group.
4. CII: Leader actively engages in group interaction in the problem identification, design, and choice phases.
5. G: Leader involves subordinates in all phases of the decision-making process to obtain consensus.

The leader's use of a decision-making method is assisted by answering seven questions reflecting situational factors relevant to the decision-making process.

1. Does the problem require a quality solution?
2. Is there available information for making a quality decision?
3. Is the problem structured?
4. Will subordinate acceptance of the decision affect its implementation?

5. Will subordinates accept the decision without participation?
6. Are organizational goals shared by subordinates?
7. Will the decision affect subordinate conflict?

By answering each question, the leader selects a path in a decision flow chart that provides a feasible combination of leader behaviors, group composition, and decision-making method (Wedley & Field, 1982).

Research on leadership techniques that prevent conflict intensification and group polarization demonstrated that either an interactive (group participation) or a consultative (one-to-one dialogue) decision-making technique improves informational requirements, discloses the nature of the problem, and elicits subordinate input and support for the decision (Vroom & Jago, 1978).

The Vroom-Yetton (1974) contingency theory of decision-making contends that group discussion is more effective than one-to-one consultation in minimizing subordinate conflict, promoting acceptance, and implementing of the leader's decision. Ettling and Jago (1988) designed an experiment to test the following substantive and null hypotheses:

1. Group discussion promotes greater acceptance of a leader's decision than does one-to-one consultation.

2. Group discussion causes significantly more conflict and group polarization than does an autocratic decision-making technique.

Ettling and Jago's experiment manipulated the active variable, decision-making method, and used a second variable--an individual and group bonus--to promote subordinate support and decision quality. In this experiment, 200 participants in a desert survival case were divided into interactive and consultative groups to measure the decision's quality and acceptability. An objective measure of quality, a 15-item survivor test, was provided at both the group and individual levels. Conditions promoting conflict and support were simulated by rewarding high-scoring individuals and groups with $50.00.

Mean group scores suggested that a participatory style promotes greater acceptability. Tests of the effect of leadership style on decision quality were inconclusive.

Crouch and Yetton (1987) tested Vroom-Yetton's conflict resolution rule that group decision making facilitates resolution of conflict among a manager's subordinates. Maier (1950) demonstrated that if a skilled leader summarizes a problem, encourages subordinate analysis, and objectively reviews their solutions, there is an increase in the number of feasible alternatives and improved decision quality. The conflict rule contends that, in situations

where subordinate task-based conflict exists and subordinate acceptance of the decision is required for effective implementation, a group method is the appropriate decision-making technique. A group discussion provides broad understanding of the problem and acceptance of the decision.

Crouch and Yetton defined the concept of conflict-resolving behavior as management's openness to ideas and promotion of subordinate involvement. The construct conflict-legitimizing behavior represents an array of managerial skills including listening to others, encouraging suggestions, and accepting criticism. Their experimental research with 89 managers and 358 subordinates assessed the effect of decision-making technique and conflict-legitimizing behavior on subordinate performance. The independent variables were manipulated in the form of managers' responses to 15 Vroom-Yetton cases with high levels of task-based conflict and a situational need for group discussion.

The research confirmed that group discussion is an effective decision-making style in situations with high levels of subordinate conflict. The first hypothesis (conflict-legitimizing behavior significantly affects the decision-making method and subordinate performance) was confirmed. In addition, the research confirmed that a

critical threshold of managerial skills is required to effectively improve performance. The second hypotheses (a critical level of conflict-legitimizing behavior will significantly improve subordinate performance and group decision methods) confirmed that group decision-making techniques improve performance if a manager possesses some form of Maier's conflict-resolving skills.

Heilman, Cage, Hornstein, and Herschlag (1984) conducted an experiment on the reputational consequence of leader behavior as viewed by both subordinate and superior. Subjects observed the leader execute correct and incorrect decisions as prescribed by the Vroom-Yetton model. Subjects functioned as subordinates in one study and as superiors in another experiment. Subjects read six situational cases (three cases requiring autocratic leader actions and three cases requiring participative behavior) in which the leader's decision-making process was identified and assessed according the model's criteria for autocratic and participative actions. Subjects rated the leader's decision-making competence, dynamism, likability, task-related outcome, and socio-emotive outcome. Heilman et al. reported that autocratic actions in situations requiring participative management had a negative effect on

subordinate rating of the leader's decision-making process, competence, and task-relevant outcomes. In addition, findings suggest that subordinates always rate participative behavior more favorably than autocratic actions, regardless of the situation. Participative leaders were more likable and more favored for their socio-emotive consequences. When serving as superiors, subjects evaluated leader effectiveness in accordance with prescribed Vroom-Yetton standards. The experiment suggested that leader evaluations vary according to the perspective of subordinate and superior.

Advances in motivational theories prompted research on the relationship between subordinate satisfaction, productivity, and a leader's decision-making style. Vroom's expectancy theory (1964) and the Vroom-Yetton contingency model (1974) incorporate the explanatory power of external independent variables that affect both motivation and decision making. Expectancy theory contends that a subordinate's motivation is a function of organizational variables and individual choices. Motivation is transformed into productivity and satisfaction by various independent variables such as job participation and organizational reward. The Vroom-Yetton (1974) contingency theory links management behavior to employee satisfaction and

productivity through a normative model of decision making that is sensitive to situational variables affecting subordinate participation and organizational performance. The appropriate leadership decision-making style, measured on a continuum from autocratic to consultative, should be based on an analysis of several situational factors. Behavior consistent with the Vroom-Yetton model prescriptions should promote employee satisfaction and organizational productivity.

Paul and Ebadi (1989) examined the relationship between leadership decision-making behavior (the independent variable) and subordinate satisfaction and productivity. Paul and Ebadi's experimental research divided 216 leaders and subordinates into high-agreement and low-agreement groups to facilitate measurement of subordinate satisfaction and productivity over a one-month period. Paul and Ebadi formulated the following hypotheses to transform the research question into an empirical testable proposition:

1. Leader behavior based on the Vroom-Yetton feasible set of decision-making styles produces significantly more subordinate satisfaction than is produced by leader behavior inconsistent with the model.

2. Leader behavior based on the Vroom-Yetton feasible set of decision-making styles produces significantly

higher productivity than is produced by leader behavior inconsistent with the model.

3. Leader behavior significantly affects group productivity and satisfaction with the job supervisor.

Weaknesses in the research design involved (a) the Hawthorne effect, (b) validity of observed productivity and self-reporting techniques, and (c) limited time dimension. Future research should assess the relative agreement between the leader's self-perception and the subordinate's perception of the leader's style. In addition, research into the leader's perception of the problem and the subordinate's reaction would expand the dimension of the Vroom-Yetton model (1974).

Pasewark and Strawser (1994) examined whether the method of determining subordinate participation influences the effectiveness of managerial decisions. Factors supporting the level of subordinate participation include organizational factors such as policies and procedures preferred by upper management, or a case-by-case assessment of situational factors as determined by the immediate supervisor and situation-specific characteristics. Because previous research has confirmed the beneficial consequences of subordinate participation, Pasewark and Strawser focus on

identifying the factors that determine the extent of subordinate participation. Research findings suggest that managerial decisions and styles consistent with the Vroom-Yetton (1974) model were more effective than decisions and styles inconsistent with the model. Decisions may be either the result of intentional situational analysis or the by-product of organizational policy. Decisions based on the latter method overstate the power of the Vroom-Yetton model.

A randomly selected sample of 60 audit managers in four accounting firms asked each respondent to evaluate the decision-making process used in determining the number of hours required to complete a familiar audit. Respondents were asked to identify the five Vroom decision-making styles used to determine the level of participation. The effectiveness of a decision-making style was assessed by the number of audit hours used, subordinate acceptance of the decision, and decision cost (budget variance). High-quality decisions reflect a small variance between actual and budgeted audit hours. Respondents were asked to assign 100 points to each of the five decision-making styles (AI, AII, CI, CII, and GII) that were permitted by their firms and preferred by their supervisors.

A chi-square test compared frequencies of actual decision-making styles used by managers to the frequency of

styles supported by the firm and those most preferred by senior managers. The test revealed that managers used styles supported by the firm and preferred by superiors instead of the style prescribed by the model. Decision-making styles used were more likely to agree with organizational factors than with model criteria. An ANOVA test of levels of subordinate participation for actual and prescribed decision-making styles indicated that participation in decision-making styles varied significantly.

The study found that the audit managers were likely to consider organizational factors as determinants of the level of participation. A large number of actual decisions reflected firm and superior preference. However, firms making decisions consistent with the model had lower budget hour variances and higher levels of subordinate acceptance.

Moe (1995) examined the relationship involvement and acceptability in response to a practical managerial problem. In 1993, Galaxo initiated a Total Quality Management (TQM) program to instill a culture of employee empowerment. The TQM program used interdepartmental training teams to introduce four elements of TQM: customer focus, teamwork, continuous improvement, and employee empowerment. A main goal of TQM, cultural change through employee empowerment,

was to be jointly managed by the strategic team and an upper-management council in an atmosphere of open communication and joint decision making. However, the team experienced frustration over the council's consistent rejection of its proposals for implementing employee empowerment. Poor collaborations between the team and council undermined a widely held belief that empowerment and open communications would positively affect organizational effectiveness.

Moe (1995) reported that Glaxo's TQM program experienced implementation problems due to communication barriers and autocratic decision making in strategic teams. An objective of improving productivity through collaboration and communication was blocked by a culture characterized by poor interdepartmental communication. Improved two-way communication and openness were needed to eliminate rumor and enhance group cohesiveness and organizational performance.

Moe (1995) asserted that the right amount of empowerment and involvement in the relationship between teams and upper management can be determined by using Vroom's model to test two decision rules addressing the quality and acceptability of the decision. The model's choice of three leadership styles (consultative, autocratic,

and participative) offered a paradigm of the situation confronting the team and upper management. An experiment with strategic team members required participants to analyze a case and evaluate the leader's actions. The experiment tested leader competence, decision-making methods, task relationship, and socio-emotional needs (a situational measure of the effectiveness and appropriateness of the leader's behavior in various situations).

Moe (1995) reported that leaders who matched Vroom's decision-making criteria were rated more effective than leaders who did not fit the model prescribed by the situational style. In addition, team participants expressed a general bias for participative leaders.

Korsgarrd, Schweiger, and Sapienza (1995) examined the relationship between leadership style, trust, and effectiveness in strategic teams. Team member perception of equity in the strategic decision-making process is influenced by the interactions between leader and team member(s). Team effectiveness requires team members to share influence and fully discuss all the assumptions and recommendations of the members. Despite open discussion of member views in the decision-making process, high-quality decisions do not correlate with commitment and cooperation if team members perceive a closed and authoritarian decision-making process.

In an experiment on the relationship between team member perception of leader fairness and the resulting cooperative behavior, Korsgarrd et al. (1995) manipulated the antecedent procedural justice behaviors that affect attachment, commitment, and trust in the strategic decision-making process. Justice theory (Adams, 1965) contends that an individual's perception of fair treatment is a major determinant of personal reaction to the decision-making process. According to Folger and Konovsky (1989), team members are just as concerned about the strategic decision outcome as they are about the decision-making procedures. Two primary determinants of equity in the decision-making process are (a) the leader's consideration of member input and (b) member influence on the decision-making process. Consideration of member input reflects the team leader's openness to member input. Influence is measured by the extent to which a team members' input affects the decision. Consideration and influence, the mechanisms of participation in the strategic decision-making process, allow team members to express a degree of personal control over the decision-making process. However, voicing is insufficient unless the leader shows consideration by listening to and weighing inputs.

The experiment involved existing upper- and middle-management teams with emotional ties among team members in a two-by-two factorial that manipulated the independent variables, consideration and influence. Each team member was required to read a case and recommend decision options to management. In addition, participants engaged in group discussion to disclose all supporting assumptions. Team leaders had final decision-making authority. The experiment manipulated consideration by having leaders show either high or low concern for team member input. Influence was manipulated by having the leader either weigh or not weigh member input in the final decision.

Procedural fairness, decision commitment, and attachment were measured on a 9-point Likert scale. Statistical tests included three-way ANOVA to assess within-team variance; between-team variance; and the interaction of consideration, influence, and time. Team leaders were instructed to provide high and low consideration to member input. High-consideration leaders actively listened to member input and recognized this input in reaching the final decision. Active listening involved asking questions, clarifying questions, and rephrasing statements. Low-consideration leaders listened to team members but avoided comments and presented the final decision without reference to member input. High-

influence leaders changed their decision to reflect team member input if the decision quality was not impaired. Low-influence leaders presented their own decisions.

The following hypotheses were tested:

1. Leader consideration of team members' input has a positive impact on team members' perception of procedural fairness. Team members whose input is considered should be judged by the decision-making procedure to be more fair than members whose input is not considered.
2. The impact of a team leader's consideration of team members' input on perceptions of procedural fairness is moderated by the influence members have over the final decision.
3. A team leader's consideration of team members' input has a positive impact on the members' commitment to the final decision. Team members whose input is considered should be more committed to the decision than members whose input is not considered.
4. Team members' influence moderates the impact of leader consideration on decision commitment.
5. A team leader's consideration of team members' input has a positive impact on members' attachment to the team.

6. A team leader's consideration of team members' input has a positive impact on the members' trust in the leader.

Manipulation of consideration and influence significantly affected perception of procedural justice (H1a). Consideration of member input was found to have a positive effect on the perception of procedural fairness (H1b). The procedure was judged as more fair by members of high-consideration group than by the low-procedure groups (H2a). The predicted effect of leader consideration on member input and influence received weak support (H3). The interactive effect of consideration and influence on commitment was supported (H4). Consideration of input results in higher commitment. Consideration had a positive effect on attachment to the group and on trust in the leaders. Korsgarrd et. al (1995) concluded that perceptive and responsive leaders affect cooperation and commitment in the strategic decision-making process. Leaders showing strong consideration for member input are perceived as fairer.

The literature review provides strong theoretical support for SLT's 2-dimensional leadership model. Problems with operationalizing SLT's maturity concept have been resolved by substituting the readiness construct. Despite mixed empirical evidence supporting SLT's readiness match

hypothesis, there is strong support to reexamine the theory in a new setting. This and other related issues are addressed in the following chapter.

Chapter 3

Methodology

Sample

A survey was used to measure follower perception of leadership style and to assess five dependent variables: (a) follower satisfaction with communication methods, (b) follower satisfaction with decision-making techniques, (c) meeting management effectiveness, (d) openness, and (e) overall managerial effectiveness. A direct-mail survey and explanatory letter was sent to 300 unit owners in six suburban condominium and homeowner associations in Mercer and Camden counties, New Jersey. The sample of unit owners was selected from the real estate tax records of the respective jurisdiction, aimed at members not currently serving on the board of directors, and focused on asociations that use various committees to assist the board of directors in community governance. Names of current directors were obtained from managing agents and newsletters. Respondents were chosen by a systematic selection following a random number start.

The survey was piloted with a small sample of 50 common interest realty associations (CIRA) residents, directors,

and managers. All responses, comments, and suggestions were reviewed before the final instrument was developed and distributed.

The survey asked the respondent to self-report all requested information and leadership ratings. Because the sample could not be limited to CIRA members with equal exposure to communal governance, member perception of board leadership may be limited or biased. In addition, self-selection could affect the survey's accuracy by receiving most input from active members and few responses from apathetic members. Finally, it is possible that responses from more active members will reflect a preference for a participative leadership style.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

This research questions whether SLT's assumptions that a match of leadership style and follower readiness affects satisfaction with communication, satisfaction with decision style, meeting management effectiveness, openness, and overall leader effectiveness. Does a match of leadership style and follower readiness influence organizational outcomes differently than does a mismatch of style and readiness?

The following hypotheses, expressed in the null form, are tested:

H1: There is no significant difference in follower satisfaction with communication between leaders who match style and readiness and leaders who mismatch style and readiness.

H2: There is no significant difference in follower satisfaction with decision-making between leaders who match style and readiness and leaders who mismatch style and readiness.

H3: There is no significant difference in meeting management effectiveness between leaders who match style and readiness and leaders who mismatch style and readiness.

H4: There is no significant difference in openness to decision-making between leaders who match style and readiness and leaders who mismatch style and readiness.

H5: There is no significant difference in overall managerial effectiveness between leaders who match style and readiness and leaders who mismatch style and readiness.

The following hypotheses are restated in the substantive form:

H1(a): There is a significant difference in follower satisfaction with communication between leaders who match style and readiness and leaders who mismatch style and readiness.

H2(a): There is a significant difference in follower satisfaction with decision-making between leaders who match style and readiness and leaders who mismatch style and readiness.

H3(a): There is a significant difference in meeting management effectiveness between leaders who match style and readiness and leaders who mismatch style and readiness.

H4(a): There is a significant difference in openness to decision-making between leaders who match style and readiness and leaders who mismatch style and readiness.

H5(a): There is a significant difference in overall managerial effectiveness between leaders who match style and readiness and leaders who mismatch style and readiness.

Operational Measures

Evaluation of Problem-Solving and Decision-Making Style

Respondents completed a modified version of two

research questionnaires developed by Herrington, Natemeyer, Herrington, and Hersey (1983) (meeting effectiveness inventory) and Hersey and Natemeyer (1982) (problem-solving and decision-making style inventory). The meeting effectiveness survey consists of four items that evaluate a follower's perception of the leader's effectiveness in conducting meetings. Respondents rated four statements on a scale of 1 to 4 to indicate whether they would almost always agree with the statement (4), would often agree with the statement (3), would occasionally agree with the statement (2), or would almost never agree with the statement (1). The problem-solving and decision-making inventory consists of four items that assess openness in the decision-making process. Respondents rated four items on a scale of 1 to 4 to indicate whether they would almost always agree with the statement (4), would often agree with the statement (3), would occasionally agree with the statement (2), or would almost never agree with the statement (1).

Items adapted from the problem-solving and decision-making style inventories were used to rate the frequency of several leader actions on a 4-point Likert-type scale. Two questions on problem-solving style were used to inquire about the frequency of follower participation in the decision-making process and the frequency of open

discussions to promote commitment. Two questions on decision-making style asked how often the leader gives adequate consideration to follower ideas and how often the leader requests input to identify and solve problems. These four items were summed to form an index of "decision style," a primary dependent variable in the study.

In addition, each respondent was asked to rate his/her satisfaction with leader communication methods and satisfaction with decision-making style on a 4-point Likert-type scale.

Meeting Management Effectiveness

Respondents rated their perception of the frequency of several measures of meeting management effectiveness on 4-point Likert-type scales. Four questions inquire about the frequency of times that the leader (a) announces community meetings in advance, (b) provides ample preparation time, (c) keeps meetings focused, and (d) reaches closure on each agenda item. Frequencies of leader actions range from almost never (a) to occasionally (b) to often (c) to almost always (d). The items were constructed to assess follower perception of leader effectiveness in a common activity in condominium operations. The sum of the four items were totaled to provide an index of meeting management effectiveness, a primary dependent variable in this study.

In addition, each respondent was asked to rate his/her satisfaction with community meeting management and perception of overall managerial performance on a 4-point Likert-type scale.

Zero-order correlations between study variables in the pilot sample are reported in Table 1. Means, standard deviations, and coefficient alphas were calculated for all variables. The items assessed follower perception of common leader activities involved in planning and executing

community meetings and discussing policy initiatives and community concerns.

The independent measures used to examine SLT include the traditional dimensions of leader behavior (Telling, Selling, Participating, and Delegating) measured by the LEAD instrument. The instrument also measures adaptability and style range and readiness match.

Leadership Styles

For the purpose of this research, leaders and followers are the record owners of a residential dwelling unit under the administrative authority of a condominium or homeowner association. Leaders (formally elected board members) collectively govern an association's property maintenance and capital budgeting activities. The follower category includes all owners except individuals currently serving as directors.

The Leader Effectiveness & Adaptability Description (LEAD) was used to measure leader adaptability, leadership style, and quality of the leader-follower readiness match. The LEAD Other survey (Hersey & Blanchard, 1973) defines leadership style by the leader's preference for quick and decisive actions, openness to group discussion of policy issues, and use of followers in the policy-making process.

The LEAD Other asked the respondent to select one of four alternative leadership styles that would most closely describe the behavior of the board of directors in the 12 situations presented. The alternatives reflect three situations with low readiness (R1), three situations with low-to-moderate readiness (R2), three situations with moderate-to-high readiness (R3), and three situations with high readiness (R4). Each situation required the selection of a leader decision that reflects SLT's Telling, Selling, Participating, and Delegating styles. For each readiness level, there is a hierarchy of four leader behaviors that range from best and most effective to worst and very ineffective.

Scorings from the LEAD Other identify several key leadership variables based on respondents' perception of the action that their directors' would select in the specific situation. The independent variables (primary leadership style, secondary leadership style, style range, and adaptability) are derived from scoring respondents' selections for the 12 situations according to procedures specified by the LEAD Matrix Scoring and Analysis.

The independent variable, primary style, is defined as the leadership quadrant that has the highest number of selections. A secondary style is identified by a quadrant

in which there are three or more responses. Style range is identified by the total number of quadrants that have two or more selections. Leaders with three or more responses in a quadrant have a wide style range. Their behaviors can vary over a number of readiness levels.

Readiness match is measured by quality of the fit between the selected alternative leader action and the corresponding level of member readiness. A selection of the response that fits best is scored a 4, while a 1 is assigned to the least appropriate alternative action. Readiness match scores range from 12 to 48, with scores of 40 to 48 reflecting a high match, scores from 31 to 39 reflecting a moderate match, and scores less than 30 reflecting a low match. Actual scores ranged from 28 to 42, an interval of 14 points. A low-match category is represented by scores ranging from 28 to 35. Scores from 36 to 48 indicate a high match.

The LEAD Other instrument was tested in a sample of more than 20,000 leadership events in 14 different cultures (Greene, 1980). Two thousand respondents were interviewed for leader self-perception and follower perception of the leader's style. The interviews focused on examining a two-style profile leader with a primary and secondary style.

The instrument provides four ipsative style scores and one normative adaptability score (Greene, 1980). The

instrument was standardized on the responses of 264 managers constituting the North American sample. The age of the respondents ranged from 21 to 64. The 12 items' validities for adaptability score ranged from .11 to .52, and 10 of the 12 coefficients were .25 or higher. Eleven coefficients were significant beyond the .01 level, and one was significant at the .05 level (Greene). The instrument has moderately strong stability. Green cited two administrations during a six-week interval in which 75% of the respondents maintained their dominant style and 71% maintained the secondary style. Both contingency coefficients were .71 and each was significant at $p < .01$. The adaptability score correlation was .69 at $p < .01$.

Data Collection

The data needed for statistical analysis was collected by questionnaires mailed directly to selected unit owners. Three hundred mailings were issued with an intended response rate of one-third. Each respondent received a cover letter, a survey instrument, and a business reply envelope to return to my address. Persons not returning a survey were contacted by telephone about three weeks later. A response of fewer than 100 surveys resulted in the selection of a new CIRA that was surveyed as previously described.

Data Analysis

Three bivariate hypotheses contend that there is no relationship between a low, moderate, and high readiness match and (a) follower satisfaction with communication, (b) follower satisfaction with decision-making style, and (c) meeting management effectiveness. A multivariate hypothesis contends that there is no relationship between SLT's leadership styles, readiness match, and openness. The hypothesized null relationship for the bivariate hypotheses was tested by one-way ANOVA tests. A two-way ANOVA procedure tested the relationship between leadership style, readiness match, and openness.

One-way ANOVA procedures tested the assertion that the mean score between categories of readiness matches are

equal. The ANOVA procedure is appropriate for dependent variables measured on an interval scale. The independent variable, readiness match, is trichotimized into classes based on the range between high and low scores. A low match is coded as 1, a moderate match is coded as 2, and a high match is coded as 3.

The ANOVA procedure examines the variability of the dependent variable within each matched class to determine whether the variability is a chance occurrence or a statistically significant event. One-way ANOVA is an appropriate test when only one independent variable is used to classify cases into different groupings. An *F*-test determined if the null hypothesis was significant at the .05 level. If the difference between two means was significant, a multiple-comparison Bonferroni procedure tested for significance at the .05 level.

A General Factorial ANOVA procedure tested for main and interactive effects of leadership style and readiness match on openness. SLT's four primary leadership styles and the quality of their readiness match were coded as categorical variables. Mean scores computed for main and interactive effects were assessed at the .05 level by an *F*-test.

A multiple regression equation analyzed the relationship between follower readiness match, leadership

style, and overall managerial effectiveness. SLT's four leadership styles were entered as binary values; readiness match and overall managerial effectiveness were entered as continuous variables. A forward procedure regression approach used correlations, *F*-tests, and *t*-tests to determine the reliability of the regression coefficients. The procedure initially entered the independent variable with the highest absolute correlation with the dependent variable into an equation and proceeds to test the hypothesis that the coefficient is 0. If the test failed, the procedure conducted a partial correlation analysis to select the remaining independent variables to be tested in the regression equation. After selecting the independent variables that met the entry criteria, an equation of best fit was assessed by *F*-tests and *t*-tests at the .05 level of significance.

Chapter 4

ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

Introduction

This chapter summarizes the results of various statistical tests used to assess the hypothesized relationships between variables. A reliability analysis is initially discussed to evaluate the correlations and alphas of items measuring follower satisfaction and perception of leader effectiveness. This is followed by a discussion of the ANOVA and regression procedures of SPSS software used to test all hypotheses at the .05 level of significance.

Reliability Analysis

Reliability analysis performs item analysis on additive scales, calculating a number of commonly used measures of scale reliability such as Cronbach's alpha. The scale, obtained by summing responses to individual items regarding readiness match, leadership style, follower satisfaction, and leader effectiveness, is assessed for the correlation between individual items and the rest of the scale. Table 1 summarizes the reliability coefficients and reflects strong correlations between related items on the scale.

Zero-order correlation between predictor and criteria variables established moderately strong relationships between readiness match and (1) follower satisfaction with communications (.5253, $p<.05$), (2) satisfaction with decision style (.4101, $p<.05$), (3) meeting management effectiveness (.4514, $p<.05$), (4) openness (.5598, $p<.05$), and (5) overall managerial effectiveness (.5608, $p<.05$). A positive correlation between Selling behavior, readiness, and each dependent variable was also significant at the .05 level. Participating behavior reflects a positive correlation with readiness (.4655, $p<.05$) and openness (.2879, $p<.05$), overall managerial effectiveness (.2637, $p<.01$), and meeting management effectiveness (.2346, $p<.05$). On the other hand, the Telling and Delegating styles reflect a negative correlation with readiness match and every dependent variable.

Zero-order correlation between the Telling style, readiness, and each dependent variable reflects moderate negative relationships (Table 1). The negative correlation between Telling and readiness (-.396, $p<.05$), Telling and satisfaction with communication (-.296, $p<.05$), Telling and satisfaction with decisions (-.345, $p< .05$), Telling and openness (-.36, $p<.01$), Telling and meeting management effectiveness (-.446, $p<.01$), and Telling and overall

RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - SCALE
Zero Order Correlations

	Telling	Selling	Participating	Delegating	Readiness	Satisfaction - Communication	Satisfaction - Decisions	Openness	Meeting Management Effectiveness	Overall Managerial Effectiveness
Telling	1 0000									
Selling	-0 2857 **	1 0000								
Participating	-0 5558 **	-0 0878	1 0000							
Delegating	-0 1762	-0 6410 **	-0 0868	1 0000						
Readiness	-0 3960 **	0 3906 **	0 4655 **	-0 4368 **	1 0000					
Satisfaction - Communication	-0 2963 **	0 5387 **	0 2100	-0 4249 **	0 5253 **	1 0000				
Satisfaction - Decisions	-0 3457 **	0 3596 **	0 2004	-0 2283 *	0 4101 **	0 6499 **	1 0000			
Openness	-0 3602 **	0 4518 **	0 2879 **	-0 3691 **	0 5598 **	0 7055 **	0 6254 **	1 0000		
Meeting Management Effectiveness	-0 4460 **	0 5908 **	0 2346 *	-0 3589 **	0 4514 **	0 7082 **	0 7193 **	0 5895 **	1 0000	
Overall Managerial Effectiveness	-0 4121 **	0 5628 **	0 2637 *	-0 4023 **	0 5608 **	0 8896 **	0 8622 **	0 8494 **	0 8564 **	1 0000

* Signif LE 01
** Signif LE 05

managerial effectiveness (-.412, $p<.01$) are not consistent with SLT's expected associations between variables. Similar associations are reflected in the correlation between Delegating behavior, readiness, and each dependent variable (Tables 1 & 2).

The positive correlation between Selling, readiness, and each dependent variable approximate those of past studies. Goodson et al. (1989) reported a moderate correlations for structure (Telling and Selling) and satisfaction with communication (.46, $p<.05$), for consideration (Participating and Delegating) and satisfaction with communication (.49, $p<.05$), and for readiness and satisfaction with communication (.47, $p<.05$). Blank et al. (1990) reported the following correlations for task behavior (Telling and Selling) and supervisor satisfaction (.41, $p<.01$); and for relationship behavior (Participating and Delegating) and supervisor satisfaction (.54, $p<.01$).

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

A simple factorial ANOVA design was used to test whether three different categories of readiness matches result in the same average score for the following dependent variables: satisfaction with decision technique and satisfaction with communication. The one-way ANOVA

procedure tests the hypothesis that categories of readiness matches are equally effective and that each dependent variable responds in the same way. A two-way ANOVA procedure examined the main and interactive effects of leadership style and readiness match on the frequency and degree of openness.

Satisfaction with Communication and Decision Methods

The relationship between three groups of readiness matches and follower satisfaction with communication (Table 3) reflected SLT's prediction that leaders with high readiness matches have higher measures of satisfaction than do leaders with moderate and low matches. The mean for the high match group (3.37) exceeded the mean for moderate match group (2.89), which exceeded the mean for low match group (2.26). While mean score range supported SLT's predicted mean direction, a multiple-range ANOVA test at the .05 level found a statistically significant relationship in the mean difference between the high readiness match group and the low readiness match group. The findings support rejection of the null hypothesis (H1).

A one-way ANOVA test of the relationship between readiness match and follower satisfaction with decision-making style (Table 4) supported SLT's prediction that the mean score for the high group exceeded the mean of both the

moderate and the low group, and that the mean of the moderate match group exceeded the mean of the low match group. Means score for the high category (3.0) exceeded the moderate category (2.83) and the low readiness match group (2.20). While the means reflected SLT's predicted direction, a Bonferroni test of significance at the .05 level found a statistically significant difference between the low and moderate groups. The findings support rejection of the null hypothesis (H2).

SLT asserts that matched and mismatched groups of leadership styles and follower readiness levels influence organizational outcomes differently. There is no best leadership style because optimal leader behavior is constantly changing in response to movement in follower readiness. However, leaders who match style and readiness are more effective than leaders who mismatch style and readiness. In low readiness situations, autocratic decision making and one-way communication are appropriate for unwilling and unable followers. As follower readiness moderates, the Selling and Participating styles offer a mix of two-way communication and joint decision making to fit follower willingness and ability. In high readiness situations, a Delegating style allows able and willing followers to function independent of leader oversight.

The findings suggests that readiness match is a strong predictor of leader effectiveness. A correlation matrix (Table 2) shows that readiness match correlates highly with all dependent variables and shows a .525 correlation with satisfaction with communication and a .41 correlation with satisfaction with decision methods. In addition, mean scores for the high match group significantly exceeded the low match group for each dependent variable at the .05 level. Underlying the readiness match concept is a range of flexible leader behaviors that adapt to changing readiness levels as measured in the LEAD situations. Leaders who can diagnose readiness and select the best or second best style are categorized as high match leaders.

The findings support SLT's prediction that high match groups have higher measures of satisfaction with communication and decision methods than do moderate match group and low match group. Blank et al.'s (1990) examination of the fit between leadership style, follower readiness, and satisfaction with supervision found that mean scores were distributed in the direction predicted by SLT but not a statistically significant level. Goodson et al.'s (1989) examination of SLT's prediction that a fit of style and readiness results in a best match, second best match, third best match, and worse match, found no support for the

PARTIAL CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS

Zero Order Partials

	Satisfaction - Communication	Satisfaction - Decisions	Meeting Management Effectiveness	Openness	Overall Managerial Effectiveness	Telling	Selling	Participating	Delegating	Readiness
Satisfaction - Communication	1 0000	6499	7082	7055	8896	- 2963	5387	2100	- 4249	5253
	(0)	(80)	(80)	(80)	(80)	(80)	(80)	(80)	(80)	(80)
	p =	p = 000	p = 000	p = 000	p = 000	p = 007	p = 000	p = 058	p = 000	p = 000
Satisfaction - Decisions	6499	1 0000	7193	6254	8622	- 3457	3596	2004	- 2283	4101
	(80)	(0)	(80)	(80)	(80)	(80)	(80)	(80)	(80)	(80)
	p = 000	p =	p = 000	p = 000	p = 000	p = 001	p = 001	p = 071	p = 039	p = 000
Meeting Management Effectiveness	7082	7193	1 0000	5895	8546	- 4460	5981	2346	- 3589	4514
	(80)	(80)	(0)	(80)	(80)	(80)	(80)	(80)	(80)	(80)
	p = 000	p = 000	p =	p = 000	p = 000	p = 000	p = 000	p = 034	p = 001	p = 000
Openness	7055	6254	5895	1 0000	8494	- 3602	4518	2879	- 3691	5598
	(80)	(80)	(80)	(0)	(80)	(80)	(80)	(80)	(80)	(80)
	p = 000	p = 000	p = 000	p =	p = 000	p = 001	p = 000	p = 009	p = 001	p = 000
Overall Managerial Effectiveness	8896	8622	8564	8494	1 0000	- 4121	5628	2637	- 4023	5608
	(80)	(80)	(80)	(80)	(0)	(80)	(80)	(80)	(80)	(80)
	p = 000	p = 000	p = 000	p = 000	p =	p = 000	p = 000	p = 017	p = 000	p = 000
Telling	- 2963	- 3457	- 4460	- 3602	- 4121	1 0000	- 2857	- 5558	- 1762	- 3960
	(80)	(80)	(80)	(80)	(80)	(0)	(80)	(80)	(80)	(80)
	p = 007	p = 001	p = 000	p = 001	p = 000	p =	p = 009	p = 000	p = 113	p = 000
Selling	5387	3596	5981	4518	5628	- 2857	1 0000	- 0878	- 6410	3960
	(80)	(80)	(80)	(80)	(80)	(0)	(0)	(80)	(80)	(80)
	p = 000	p = 001	p = 000	p = 000	p = 000	p = 009	p =	p = 433	p = 000	p = 000
Participating	2100	2004	2346	2879	2637	- 5558	- 0878	1 0000	- 0878	4655
	(80)	(80)	(80)	(80)	(80)	(80)	(80)	(80)	(80)	(80)
	p = 058	p = 071	p = 034	p = 009	p = 017	p = 000	p = 433	p =	p = 433	p = 000
Delegating	- 4249	- 2283	- 3589	- 3691	- 4023	- 1762	- 6410	- 0878	1 0000	- 4368
	(80)	(80)	(80)	(80)	(80)	(80)	(80)	(80)	(80)	(80)
	p = 000	p = 039	p = 001	p = 001	p = 000	p = 113	p = 000	p = 433	p =	p = 000
Readiness	5253	4101	4514	5598	5608	- 3960	3906	4655	- 4368	1 0000
	(80)	(80)	(80)	(80)	(80)	(80)	(80)	(80)	(80)	(80)
	p = 000	p = 000	p = 000	p = 000	p = 000	p = 000	p = 000	p = 000	p = 000	p =

(Coefficient / (D F) / 2 - tailed Significance)

" " is printed if a coefficient cannot be computed

theory. Regardless of the match, mean scores for satisfaction with communication for the Selling and Participating styles were consistently higher than for other styles.

Meeting Management Effectiveness

A two-way ANOVA test assessed the main and interactive effects of three readiness match groups and four leadership styles on meeting management effectiveness (Table 5). A test of the main effect of leadership style on meeting management effectiveness was statistically significant (F = 12.118, p<.05). In addition, an F-test (F = 4.94, p<.05) found support for the main effect of readiness match and the dependent variable. The two-way interaction between leadership styles and readiness match was statistically significant (F = 6.84, p<.05).

Mean scores for readiness match and meeting management effectiveness reflect SLT's predicted order by ranging from a 2.41 mean for low readiness group to a 3.05 mean for moderate readiness group to 3.06 mean for high readiness group. Mean scores between four leadership styles and meeting management effectiveness range from a 1.89 mean for the Telling style to 3.06 mean for the Selling style to a mean of 2.84 for the Participating style and a 2.39 mean for the Delegating style. In addition, the Telling, Participating, and Delegating styles reflected SLT's predicted direction of mean score for progressively higher readiness matches: mean score for the high group exceeded both the moderate and low group's mean, and the moderate

group's mean exceeded the low group mean. Only the Selling style reflected a curvilinear distribution of readiness means: the low group mean (3.2) exceeded the moderate group mean (2.93), which was less than the high group mean (3.03).

Empirical measures of meeting management effectiveness include the leader announcing meetings in advance, providing followers with sufficient information and preparation time, keeping meetings focused, and reaching closure on agenda items. The inverted U-shaped mean distribution (Table 5) shows high effectiveness scores for Selling (3.06) and Participating styles (2.84) and low effectiveness scores for the Delegating (2.39) and Telling (1.89) styles. Inherent in the more effective styles are two-way communication, attentive listening, supportive behavior and limited participation in decision making. Selling is characterized by supportive behavior, and openness; Participating is characterized by interpersonal communication and involvement in decisions. The main differentiating criteria between the styles is follower readiness.

Readiness match scores for the Selling group reflected a curvilinear slope, declining from a 3.2 mean for the low group to a 2.93 mean for the moderate group and increasing to a 3.03 mean for the high group. Mean distributions for the Participating group were positively sloped, increasing

from a 2.3 score for the low group to a 3.0 mean for the moderate group to a 3.17 score for the high group. In addition, mean scores for the Telling and Delegating styles increased from low to moderate readiness. Despite the positive direction of mean scores, the Telling and Delegating styles have strong negative correlations with high meeting management effectiveness. The Selling and Participating styles have strong, positive correlations with meeting management effectiveness, which suggests that the styles are key determinants of success in the directors' meeting management task. Followers expect a modest amount of information, active management, and involvement in decisions that are inherent in these styles.

Goodson, et al. (1989) reported that followers in all readiness groups had higher satisfaction scores with supportive behavior and the participating and delegating styles, than with the directive styles. However, the Selling and Participating styles were associated with higher measures of satisfaction than the Telling and Delegating styles. Selling correlated with higher levels of satisfaction with communication and Telling was associated with the lowest level of satisfaction with communication.

Multiple Linear Regression Analysis

Two regression equations examined the relationship between the independent variables, Telling, Selling, Participating, Delegating, and readiness match, on the dependent variable (1) frequency and degree of openness, and (2) overall managerial effectiveness. In a forward procedure regression approach, the first variable entered into the equation has the largest positive correlation with the dependent variable. An ANOVA table provides an *F*-value to test the null hypothesis that the coefficient of the independent variable is 0. The *F*-test determines whether this variable, and all subsequent independent variables, are entered. The criterion for inclusion, the probability of *F*-to-enter (PIN), is .05.

The second variable entered into the equation has the highest remaining absolute partial correlation with the dependent variable. An *F*-test measures the reliability of this predictor variable. Each variable excluded from the equation is evaluated by a *t*-statistic.

Frequency and Degree of Openness

Table 6A shows that readiness has the highest absolute correlation (.559) with openness and, therefore, is initially entered into the regression equation. The Step 1 ANOVA matrix (Table 6B) shows that readiness is a reliable predictor ($F = 36.85$, $p<.05$).

The forward regression procedure continues to evaluate the quality of the remaining variables not in equation. The procedure selects the Step 2 variable based on the partial correlation matrix of the remaining independent variables. Selling with a partial correlation of .295 is entered in Step 2. The Step 2 ANOVA matrix (Table 6C) supports the reliability of Selling as a predictor of openness (F = 23.74, p<.05). T-values for Telling (-1.256), Delegating (.044), and Participating (1.396) are not significant at the .05 level. The regression equation supports a statistically significant relationship between Selling, readiness, and the frequency and degree of openness. The regression test supports rejection of the null hypothesis' contention that there is no relationship between leadership style, readiness match and openness.

A negative correlation (-.398) between readiness and Telling (Table 6A) reflects a poor match between the style's autocratic behavior and follower readiness. In addition, the Telling style leaders have both the lowest readiness match score and negative correlations with openness and other measures of satisfaction and effectiveness.

A negative correlation between readiness and Delegating (-.438) suggests that delegation involves insufficient communication and infrequent leader and follower

interactions. A negative correlation between Delegating and openness (-.36) suggests that the style entrusting followers with responsibility for executing a task provides too little guidance and leader-follower interaction.

On the other hand, the Selling style's use of two-way communication and frequent leader-follower interaction reflects a moderate correlation with openness (.444) and readiness (.391). The Participating style also relies on a high frequency of two-way communication and follower involvement, and has a moderate correlation with openness (.288) and readiness match (.46).

The correlations suggest that the more dynamic decision techniques and communication methods of the Selling and Participating styles correlate with higher frequencies of openness than do Telling and Delegating leaders. Open communication and participative decision-making methods are a prerequisite of effective leadership in condominium and homeowner associations.

It is tempting to speculate that very few respondents would have a high readiness level to actively participate in managing the condominium and homeowner associations. Therefore, the Delegating style is not widely expected and may be dysfunctional in the setting. The low correlation between readiness match and Telling style suggests weak

adaptability and diagnostic skills. The measures for effectiveness and satisfaction in the condominium environment suggest that the frequency and degree of openness involves a high readiness match, two-way communication, and moderate follower participation.

Overall Managerial Effectiveness

The hypothesized relationship between leadership style, readiness match, and overall managerial effectiveness (H5) is tested in by a forward step regression procedure. The correlation matrix (Table 7A) shows that Selling has the highest absolute correlation with the dependent variable (.563). Results of step 1 regression (Table 7B) support the reliability of Selling as a predictor (F = 37.06, p<.05).

Of the remaining four predictor variables, readiness has the largest absolute correlation (.448) and is entered in step 2. Results of step 2 regression analysis (Table 7C) support the reliability readiness as a predictor (F = 32.876, p<.05). T-statistics for the variable excluded from the equation show that Telling, Participating, and Delegating are not significant at the .05 level.

Results of the regression analysis support rejection of H5: There is no relationship between leadership style, readiness match, and overall managerial effectiveness. The independent variables, Selling and readiness match, are reliable predictors of effectiveness.

The correlation matrix (Tables 7A) shows that the more dynamic and interactive Selling and Participating styles correlate highly with readiness and all measures of satisfaction and effectiveness in the association

environment. The Selling style has the highest mean score for overall managerial effectiveness and it correlates highly with satisfaction with communication methods (.869), satisfaction with decision techniques (.862), meeting management effectiveness (.854), and frequency and degree of openness (.849). The Participating style reflected lower positive correlations and lower mean scores than the Selling style. On the other hand, the Telling and Delegating styles have negative correlations and low mean scores for satisfaction with communication, satisfaction with decision techniques, meeting management effectiveness, and frequency and degree of openness (Table 5). The findings suggest that the communication techniques and decision-making methods of the Selling and Participating styles are very effective in the association environment, provided they match follower readiness. In addition, the Selling and Participating styles' high correlation with readiness match suggests these leaders have better diagnostic and adaptability skills than do Telling and Delegating leaders.

In summary, there is some evidence that a match of leadership style and follower readiness influences outcomes in condominium and homeowner associations. Overall, leader effectiveness is associated with an ability to adapt an appropriate leader behavior to influence follower

willingness to participate. In the association setting, single style, moderately directive leaders appear to be effective because of follower propensity to limit their active involvement in organizational affairs.

Chapter 5

FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Introduction

This study attempted to test SLT's prescriptions for successful leadership by examining the effects of readiness matches and leadership styles on both follower and leader outcomes in condominium and homeowner associations. At the core of the study are two basic questions:

1. Does a match of leadership style and follower readiness result in higher measures of satisfaction and effectiveness than does a mismatch of style and readiness?
2. Does the interaction between leadership style and follower readiness influence overall managerial effectiveness?

In order to answer these questions, this chapter is divided into four parts. The first part discusses the survey responses. The second part is a discussion of coding problems with the LEAD instrument. The third part is a discussion of the findings. The final section discusses recommendations for future research.

Survey Responses

Three hundred surveys were mailed to record owners of association units in Mercer County, New Jersey. Of these, 87 were returned and two were incomplete and unusable. The response rate, 29%, was expected.

The surveys measured follower perception of three aspects of association leaders: (1) leadership style, (2) style profile, and (3) readiness match. After reading each of the LEAD instrument's 12 situations, followers selected the action most characteristic of their association's directors in a similar situation. In addition, the respondents (1) assessed their satisfaction with the leaders' communication techniques and decision methods; (2) evaluated both the leaders' meeting management effectiveness and overall managerial effectiveness; and (3) identified the frequency and degree of leader openness.

Instrumentation

Respondents identified their leaders' primary leadership style (Selling, Telling, Participating, or Delegating) by rating a single quadrant with a score of 7 or more, or by rating two adjacent quadrants with a total score of 7 or more. The primary and/or secondary styles must be in adjacent quadrants with a total score of 7 or more, or 58% of the total selections. The possible style profiles of primary and secondary styles include:

- S1/S2: Primary Telling, Secondary Selling
- S2/S3: Primary Selling, Secondary Participating
- S2/S1: Primary Selling, Secondary Telling
- S3/S4: Primary Participating, Secondary Delegating
- S3/S2: Primary Participating, Secondary Selling
- S4/S3: Primary Delegating, Secondary Participating

A Telling style (S1) with a score of 5 or less must be supported by an adjacent Selling style with a score of 2 or more. This score identifies a primary Telling style, a task-oriented leader, with a two-style profile (S1/S2).

A Selling style with a score of 5 or less can be supported by either a secondary Telling or Participating style. Two responses in S1 characterize a primary Selling style (S2) supported by a secondary Telling style (S2/S1). Leaders with five responses in S2 and two responses in S3 are characterized by a primary Selling style (S2) supported by a secondary Participating style (S2/S3). Leaders with four responses in S2 and S1 have a three-style profile with an additional adjacent quadrant (S3) supporting a primary Selling style.

A Participating style with a score of 5 or less can be supported by either a secondary Selling or secondary Delegating style. Two responses in S2 characterizes a primary Participating style supported by a Selling style

(S2); while two responses in S4 characterizes a primary Participating style supported by a Delegating style (S2). Leaders with four responses in S3, S4, and S2 have a three-style profile with two adjacent quadrants (S4 and S2) supporting the Participating style.

A Delegating style with five or less responses must be supported by a secondary Participating style. Leaders with five responses in S4 and two responses in S3 are characterized by a primary Delegating style (S4) supported by a secondary Participating style. Leaders with four responses in S4, S3, and S2 are characterized with a primary Participating style.

The coding attempted to preserve the traditional Consideration and Structure categories. However, scoring the LEAD instrument for primary leadership styles results in the identification of other style profiles that were excluded from statistical analysis. Leaders with a score of 6 in S3 and S4 reflect an equal measure of Selling and Participating behavior. Leaders with a score of 7 or more in S1/S3, S1/S4, or S2/S4 are excluded from further analysis. These profiles do not correspond to SLT's four leadership styles. In addition, highly adaptable leaders with three responses for S1, three responses for S2, three

responses for S3 and three responses for S4 are excluded from the analysis.

Findings

SLT asserts that leaders who match their style to follower readiness are more successful than leaders who mismatch style and readiness. Two bivariate hypothesis stated that there is no relationship between three readiness match groups and (1) follower satisfaction with communication and (2) follower satisfaction with decision methods. Three multivariate hypothesis examined the more complex interactions between leadership style, readiness match, and (1) meeting management effectiveness, (2) frequency and degree of openness, and (3) overall managerial effectiveness. Findings for each hypothesis and recommendations for future research are discussed in the following sections.

Satisfaction with Communication

Expressed in the null form, hypothesis 1 stated that there is no relationship between groups of readiness matches and follower satisfaction with communication. SLT contends that a high match of style and readiness correlates with a higher mean score than does a moderate match and a low match. A one-way ANOVA test (Table 3) reflects a positive linear relationship in the direction of mean score from the

ONE-WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

Satisfaction - Communication
by Leader Readiness Match

Source	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	2	19.6165	9.8083	8.7711	0.0004
Within Groups	78	87.2230	1.1182		
Total	80	106.8395			

Group	Count	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	95 % Confidence Interval for Mean
Low	34	2.2647	1.2385	0.2124	1.8326 to 2.6968
Moderate	18	2.8889	1.0226	0.2410	2.3804 to 3.3974
High	29	3.3793	0.8200	0.1523	3.0674 to 3.6912
Total	81	2.8025	1.1556	0.1284	2.5469 to 3.0580

Mean	Match	Low	Moderate	High
2.2647	Low			
2.8889	Moderate			
3.3793	High	*		

(*) Indicates significant difference (Bonferroni test) at level .05

low to moderate to high groups. The positive relationship between the low, moderate, and high groups supports SLT's prediction that a match of leadership style and follower readiness correlates more highly with follower satisfaction than does a mismatch of style and readiness. While the direction of the means supports SLT prediction, only the relationship between the low and high groups is statistically significant at the .05 level. The finding provides modest support for the substantive hypothesis' assertion: A match of leadership style and follower readiness correlates with a higher satisfaction rating than does a mismatch of style and readiness. The findings support a rejection of the null hypothesis

Satisfaction with Decision Methods

Expressed in the null form, hypothesis 2 states there is no relationship between levels of readiness matches and follower satisfaction with decision methods. SLT contends that the satisfaction rating of the high match group exceeds the rating of both the moderate match group and the low match group, and that the moderate match group's mean exceeds the mean of the low match group. A one-way ANOVA test (Table 4) reflects a positive relationship in the direction of mean score from the low to moderate to high groups. The low match group mean (2.2) is less than the moderate group mean (2.8), which is less than the high group

ONE-WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

Satisfaction - Decision Technique
By Leader Readiness Match

Source	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	2	10.8301	5.4151	4.5881	0.0131
Within Groups	78	92.0588	1.1802		
Total	80	102.8889			

Group	Count	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	95 % Confidence Interval for Mean
Low	34	2.2059	1.0380	0.1780	1.8437 to 2.5681
Moderate	18	2.8330	1.2005	0.2830	2.2363 to 3.4303
High	29	3.0000	1.0690	0.1985	2.5934 to 3.4066
Total	81	2.6296	1.0631	0.1489	2.3789 to 2.8804

Mean	Match	L o w	M o d	H i g h
2.2059	Low			
2.8330	Moderate			
3.0000	High		*	

(*) Indicates significant difference (Bonferroni test) at level .05

No two groups are significantly different at the .05 level

mean (3.0). However, only the relationship between the low and high group was statistically significant at the .05 level. Both the direction of mean scores and the statistical measures support rejection of the null hypothesis.

Meeting Management Effectiveness

Expressed in the null form, hypothesis 3 states there is no relationship between leadership style, readiness match, and meeting management effectiveness. A two-way ANOVA procedure (Table 5) reflects a positive relationship between readiness match and meeting management effectiveness. Mean score for the low group (2.41) was less than the moderate group mean (3.05), which was less than the high match mean (3.06). An *F* test for the main effect ($F = 4.945$, $p<.05$) supports rejection of a null hypothesis.

The skewed distribution of mean scores for SLT's four leadership styles reflects a polarity between the low mean scores for the Telling (1.69) and Delegating (2.39) styles and the high means scores for the Selling (3.06) and Participating styles (2.64). An *F*-test for the main effect ($F = 12.118$, $p<.05$) supports rejection of a null hypotheses. In addition, the two-way ANOVA test of the interaction between leadership style and readiness supports rejection of the null hypothesis ($F = 6.34$, $p<.05$).

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

Meeting Management Effectiveness
by Leadership Style and
by Readiness Match

Source	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	F Prob.
Main Effects	5	18.596	3.7192	9.2490	.0000
Leadership Style	3	14.619	4.8730	12.1180	.0000
Readiness Match	2	03.977	1.9885	4.9450	.0100
2 - Way Interactions	4	11.002	2.7500	6.8400	.0000
Leadership-Match	4	11.002	2.7500	6.8400	.0000
Explained	9	29.598	3.2887		
Residual	70	28.149	0.4021		
Total	79	57.747	0.7310		

81 Cases were processed.

1 case was missing.

LEADERSHIP STYLE

	Telling	Selling	Participat.	Delegat.
Mean	1.89	3.06	2.84	2.39
Count	12	48	11	9

READINESS MATCH

	Low	Moderate	High
Mean	2.41	3.05	3.06
Count	34	17	29

LEADERSHIP STYLE

READINESS MATCH	Telling	Selling	Participat.	Delegat.
Low				
mean	1.39	3.20	2.30	1.94
count	8	15	4	7
Moderate				
mean	2.90	2.93	3.00	4.00
count	4	10	1	2
High				
mean	0.00	3.03	3.17	0.00
count	0	23	6	0

Frequency and Degree of Openness

A more complex formulation of SLT's predicted outcome for matched groups of leaders and followers contends that the interaction between leadership style and readiness has no effect on the frequency and degree of leader openness. Expressed in the null form, hypothesis 4 states that there is no relationship between leadership style, readiness match, and the frequency and degree of leader openness. Results of the first step of a forward procedure linear regression analysis (Table 68) strongly support a fit of readiness match as a predictor of openness (F = 36.65, p<.05). Results of the second step analysis strongly support the Selling style as a predictor (F = 23.73, p<.05). However, the t-statistics support rejection of Telling (T = 1.256, p<.05), Participating (T = 1.396, p<.05), and Delegating (T = .044, p<.05). Results of the regression analysis support rejection of the null hypothesis: There is a positive relationship between Selling, readiness match, and openness.

MULTIPLE REGRESSION
Listwise Deletion of Missing Data

Label	Mean	Std Dev
Openness	2.524	1.014
Selling	4.410	2.776
Telling	2.566	2.524
Participating	2.976	2.072
Delegating	1.904	2.497
Readiness	34.277	4.655

N of Cases = 83

Correlation. 1-tailed Sig:

	Openness	Selling	Telling	Particip.	Delegat.	Readiness
Openness	1.000	.444	-.359	.288	-.368	.559
		.000	.000	.004	.000	.000
Selling	.444	1.000	-.293	-.096	-.643	.391
	.000		.004	.194	.000	.000
Telling	-.359	-.293	1.000	-.550	-.169	-.398
	.000	.004		.000	.063	.000
Participating	.288	-.096	-.550	1.000	-.083	.462
	.004	.194	.000		.228	.000
Delegating	-.368	-.643	-.169	-.083	1.000	-.438
	.000	.000	.063	.228		.000
Readiness	.559	.391	-.398	.462	-.438	1.000
	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	

MULTIPLE REGRESSION

Selling, Telling, Participating, Delegating & Readiness

Equation Number 1 Dependent Variable: Openness

Variable Entered on Step Number 1: Readiness

Multiple R	.5592
R-Square	.3127
Adjusted R Square	.3042
Standard Error	.8459

	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
Regression	1	26.3695	26.3695
Residual	81	57.9573	0.7155

F = 36.85353 Signif F = .0000

Variables in the the Equation

Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
Readiness	0.1218	0.0201	0.5592	6.0710	0.0000
(Constant)	-1.6519	0.6941		-2.3800	0.0197

Variables not in the the Equation

Variable	Beta In	Partial	Min Toler	T	Sig T
Selling	0.2655	0.2948	0.8469	2.7590	0.0072
Telling	-0.1625	-0.1799	0.8419	-1.6360	0.1059
Participating	0.0370	0.0396	0.7863	0.3540	0.7240
Delagating	-0.1515	-0.1642	0.8078	-1.4890	0.1404

MULTIPLE REGRESSION

Equation Number 1 Dependent Variable: Openness

Variable(s) Entered on Step Number 2: Selling

Multiple R	.6103
R-Square	.3724
Adjusted R Square	.3567
Standard Error	.8133

Analysis of Variance

	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
Regression	2	31.4056	15.7028
Residual	80	52.9212	0.6615

F = 23.73765 Signif. F = .0000

Variables in the Equation

Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
Sell	0.0970	0.0352	0.2655	2.7590	0.0072
Readiness	0.0992	0.0210	0.4553	4.7310	0.0000
(Constant)	-1.3038	0.6792		-1.9190	0.0585

Variables not in the Equation

Variable	Beta In	Partial	Min Toler	T	Sig T
Telling	-0.1225	-0.1400	0.7593	-1.2560	0.2127
Particip.	0.1474	0.1552	0.5949	1.3960	0.1665
Delegat.	0.0054	0.0050	0.5449	0.0440	0.9646

End Block 1 PIN = .050 Limits reached.

Overall Managerial Effectiveness

Hypothesis 5 contends that there is no relationship between leadership style, member readiness, and overall managerial effectiveness. A forward procedure multiple regression analysis (Table 7) found that the Selling style was a strong predictor of overall managerial effectiveness ($F = 37.08$, $p<.05$). On the second step, readiness match was found to be a reliable predictor ($F = 32.87$, $p<.05$). T-statistics excluded Telling ($T = -1.64$, $p<.05$), Participating ($T = 1.63$, $p<.05$), and Delegating ($T = .541$, $p<.05$).

Recommendations for Future Research

Readiness Measure

A direct measure of readiness is required to assess followers' willingness and ability to execute specific tasks ordinarily performed by association directors. The Readiness Style Match asks the respondent to assess his/her ability and willingness to assume specific association duties/tasks. This independent measure of follower readiness could be matched against identical leader-performed tasks cited in a modified LEAD instrument's 12 situations. The modified LEAD instrument would match tasks and readiness levels, and require the respondent to select

MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS

Listwise Deletion of Missing Data

Variable	Mean	Std Dev
Telling Style (S1)	2.689	0.904
Selling Style (S2)	4.354	2.746
Participating Style (S3)	2.988	2.533
Delegating Style (S4)	1.927	2.082
Readiness Match	34.256	2.502
Overall Managerial Effectiveness	2.689	4.679

N of Cases = 82

Correlation, 1-tailed Sig:

	Overall Managerial Effectiveness	Selling	Telling	Participating	Delegating	Readiness
Overall Managerial Effectiveness	1.000	.563	-.412	.264	-.402	.561
		.000	.000	.008	.000	.000
Selling Style	.563	1.000	-.286	-.088	-.641	.391
	.000		.005	.216	.000	.000
Telling Style	-.412	-.286	1.000	-.556	-.176	-.396
	.000	.005		.000	.057	.000
Participating Style	.264	-.088	-.556	1.000	-.088	.465
	.008	.216	.000		.216	.000
Delegating Style	-.402	-.641	-.176	-.088	1.000	-.437
	.000	.000	.057	.216		.000
Readiness	.561	.391	-.396	.465	-.437	1.000
	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	

MULTIPLE REGRESSION

Overall Managerial Effectiveness Equation Number 1
By Telling, Selling, Participating, Delegating and Readiness
Block Number 1 Method: Forward Regression

DELEGATE
Variable(s) Entered on Step Number 1: Selling Style

1. Selling Style

Multiple R	.5628
R Square	.3167
Adjusted R Square	.3082
Standard Error	.7522

Analysis of Variance

	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
Regression	1	20.9787	20.9787
Residual	80	45.2609	00.5658

F = 37.08052 Signif F = .0000

Variables in the Equation

Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
Selling	0.1853	0.0304	0.5628	6.0890	0.0000
(Constant)	1.8819	0.1564		12.0330	0.0000

Variables not in the Equation

Variable	Beta In	Partial	Min Toler	T	Sig T
Telling	-0.2737	-0.3173	0.9184	-2.9730	0.0039
Participating	0.3156	0.3803	0.9923	3.6540	0.0005
Delegating	-0.0706	-0.0655	0.5891	-0.5840	0.5611
Readiness	0.4023	0.4481	0.8474	4.4550	0.0000

MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS
Variable entered on step 2: Readiness

Readiness	Readiness Match
Multiple R	.6737
R Square	.4539
Adjusted R Square	.4401
Standard Error	.6767

Analysis of Variance

	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
Regression	2	30.065	15.033
Residual	79	36.175	.4579

F = 32.82875 Signif. F = .0000

ıbles in Equation

Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
Selling	.1336	.0297	.4056	4.491	.000
Readiness	.0778	.0175	.4023	4.455	.000
(Constant)	-.5563	.5651		-.9840	.328

———— Variables not in the Equation ————

Variable	Beta In	Partial	Min Toler	T	Sig T
Telling	-.1663	-.2042	.7593	-1.842	.0692
Participating	.1606	.1815	.5957	1.63	.1070
Delegating	.0610	.0611	.5481	.5410	.5902

the one of four actions most characteristic of his/her leader in a similar situation. The identification of the task-specific style and readiness level would facilitate pairing of matched and mismatched leaders and followers for hypotheses testing.

Performance Measure

Future research on SLT in associations should include an independent measure of leader performance to test the hypothesis that matched pairs of leaders and followers perform higher than mismatched pairs. Possible measure of performance is the variance between expected and actual operating expenditures. Budget overruns trigger increased member assessments, which could influence follower satisfaction and perception of overall effectiveness. While SLT contends that a mix of communication techniques and decision methods influence certain follower outcomes, the theory implies that appropriately matched pairs correlate with higher performance measures than do mismatched pairs. In the association setting, an objective measure of financial performance may be beyond the leaders' control in the short-term. However, a longitudinal measurement of the variance would provide a more objective measure of effectiveness to supplement the self-assessed measures of satisfaction and effectiveness.

Moderating Variables

The preceding discussion implied that certain variables that affect follower satisfaction and leader effectiveness are beyond the leader's control. Future studies should examine the influence of moderating variables on leader effectiveness, follower satisfaction, and readiness. Leader effectiveness may be enhanced, neutralized, or impaired by the influence of vendor performance, inflation, and general economic conditions. In addition, follower readiness may be influenced by the amount of free time available for active participation. Followers with limited time and low task readiness may be indifferent toward leader behavior if member fees are held constant and community services are satisfactory. In this situation, financial performance and quality contractual services will enhance or neutralize the influence of leadership.

Additional insight is needed on the moderating influence of demographic variables that influence participation and apathy in associations. Variables such as education, income, professional experience, and time availability could influence readiness. A survey that incorporates demographic information would provide further insights into factors that influence involvement. In

addition, these moderators could influence follower satisfaction, leader effectiveness, and leadership style.

Cross-Cultural Study

Future studies should compare organizational outcomes in member-managed associations with agent-managed associations. Self-managed associations use volunteer residents to serve on contractual, architectural, and informational committees. Volunteers who actively assist in managing the association operations should reflect high readiness scores. Follower involvement and readiness in agent-managed associations is not comparable to follower participation and readiness in self-managed associations. The readiness levels of volunteer-managed associations should be higher than the readiness levels in agent-managed associations. Leaders in volunteer-managed operations should exercise a Selling, Participating, or Delegating style to match follower readiness and positively influence organizational outcomes. Matched pairs of leaders and followers would have higher satisfaction ratings and performance measures than mismatched pairs.

Trust and Effectiveness

Research on self-managed and committee-assisted associations should examine the effect of leadership style

and readiness match on trust and effectiveness in strategic committees. Strategic committees may passively execute the board's decisions or actively participate in the decision process. The impact of leadership style on trust and effectiveness in strategic committees may depend on members' perception of openness in the decision-making process. If committee members are as concerned about the decision process as they are about the decision output, then leadership style should impact the committee's effectiveness and morale. Delegating- and Participating-style leaders should have higher measures of trust and effectiveness than Selling- and Telling-style leaders. A match of readiness and style should correlate with high measures of morale and satisfaction.

Motivation

Association leaders are part-time volunteers with fiduciary responsibilities to manage a property management operation. Future research should compare the motivational profiles of association directors to traditional community service volunteers. In public service and community service organizations, altruism is the primary motivation for volunteering. Studies found that effective operating level volunteers were more altruistic and effective than ego-motivated volunteers (Clary & Orenstein, 1991). Clary &

Orenstein further reported that altruistic volunteers more frequently fulfilled their term of office than did egoistic volunteers. Little is known about the relationship between leadership style, motivation, and effectiveness in associations. A comparison of the motivation and leadership styles of association leaders and community service directors (e.g., Red Cross and Special Olympics) would provide insight into the relationship between organizational mission, volunteer motivation, and the behavioral correlates of effective volunteerism.

Openness and Communication

This research found that leader communication and diagnostic ability influences organizational outcomes. Communication techniques, decision methods, and readiness levels influence both follower and leader outcomes in associations. Brown and Levinson's (1967) theory of face needs and politeness offers an enhanced communication-based model to measure the effect of autonomy granting and approval messages on followers. Association leaders need follower-generated information to formulate policies and programs to satisfy their fiduciary responsibilities and their followers' expectations. Future research should use the message analysis approach to replace consideration and

structure in evaluating follower satisfaction with autonomy-granting messages and approval-granting messages.

SLT Leadership Profiles

The SLT literature ignores style range profiles that do not reflect the traditional Telling, Selling, Participating, and Delegating quadrants. As previously discussed, leaders with the following two-style profiles are ignored in SLT studies: S1/S3, S1/S4, and S2/S4.

Leaders identified with an S1/S3 profile reflect a Theory X and Y behavior dichotomy. In the association environment, these leaders engage in unilateral decision making and one-way communication when interacting with follower perceived to be at a low readiness level. Conversely, these leaders offer open communication and close interaction with followers perceived to be highly competent and ready

The S2/S3 profile may benefit by the constitutional structure and participative environment that encourages follower involvement. The S2/S3-style leaders work well with followers with average readiness levels. These leaders engage in acceptable levels of two-way communication, actively listen to input, and encourage member participation. The profile may be associated with all

associations or correlate with highly educated populations with high readiness levels.

Future research should examine the effects of single-style, two-style, and three-style leader profiles on organizational outcomes. Little is known about the influence of a secondary and tertiary style on dependent variables.

Timing of the Survey

A final recommendation suggests that the timing of the data collection could influence survey results and the number of completed questionnaires. A distribution of the questionnaire immediately after the annual meeting could influence response rates and the quality of the responses.

This study examined Situational Leadership Theory's prescription that a match of leadership style and follower readiness will have a more favorable effect on outcome variables than will a mismatch of style and readiness. Overall, the matches of styles and readiness correlated highly with follower satisfaction with communication, satisfaction with decision-making techniques, and overall managerial effectiveness. On the other hand, a mismatch of style and readiness reflected low correlation with satisfaction and effectiveness as predicted by the theory. It appears that a high frequency of moderately low readiness

level of followers in condominium and homeowners associations supports the effectiveness of Selling style leaders. Overall, the study found modest support for Situational Leadership Theory.

APPENDIX A

SAMPLE SURVEY LETTER

James Byron Stirling II
42 West Maple Avenue
Morrisville, PA 19067
(215) 295-6597

May 21, 1997

Dear Condominium Owner,

I am completing a doctoral program at Nova-Southeastern University by conducting research on leadership in condominium and homeowner associations in Mercer County, New Jersey. The research examines relationships between an owner's readiness to participate in community governance, the directors' collective leadership style, various measures of member satisfaction, and director effectiveness. I am requesting your confidential response to the attached survey on leadership style. Your name has been selected at random from local real estate tax records of condominium owners. If you currently own a unit, I would appreciate your effort to complete the attached questionnaire.

The attached survey contains 12 situations, which describe four leadership styles that could be executed in each situation. You are asked to select the style that your board of directors would use in the same situation. Your response will allow me to measure Situational Leadership within condominium and homeowner associations. The survey will only take 15 minutes to complete. All responses will be kept strictly confidential.

If you have any questions about this process, feel free to contact me at (215) 295-6597. A self-addressed stamped envelope is provided for your convenience.

Your assistance is appreciated.

Sincerely,

James Byron Stirling II

APPENDIX B

VOLUNTARY SURVEY FORM

The following information is requested on a voluntary basis and will be used for statistical analysis. Thank you for your time in completing this form.

How often does the Board of Directors provide an opportunity for members to participate in the decision-making process? Please check only one box..

____ ***a. Almost never***

____ ***b. Occasionally***

____ ***c. Often***

____ ***d. Almost always***

How often does the Board of Directors discuss decisions with members and attempt to gain commitment?

____ ***a. Almost never***

____ ***b. Occasionally***

____ ***c. Often***

____ ***d. Almost always***

How often does the Board of Directors unilaterally make polices to solve Association problems?

____ ***a. Almost never***

____ ***b. Occasionally***

____ ***c. Often***

____ ***d. Almost always***

How satisfied are you with your Board of Directors' decision-making style?

____ ***a. Very satisfied***

____ ***b. Moderately satisfied***

____ ***c. Moderately unhappy***

____ ***d. Very unhappy***

How often does the Board of Directors listen to and give adequate consideration to member's ideas?

____ ***a. Almost never***

____ ***b. Occasionally***

____ ***c. Often***

____ ***d. Almost always***

How often does the Board of Directors ask members for input to help identify and solve problems?

____ ***a. Almost never***

____ ***b. Occasionally***

____ ***c. Often***

____ ***d. Almost always***

How satisfied are you with your Board of Directors' communication methods?

____ *a. Very satisfied*
____ *b. Moderately satisfied*
____ *c. Moderately dissatisfied*
____ *d. Very dissatisfied*

How often are agenda topics for community meetings clearly announced in advance?

____ *a. Almost never*
____ *b. Occasionally*
____ *c. Often*
____ *d. Almost always*

How often are you given sufficient information and preparation time prior to an Association meeting?

____ *a. Almost never*
____ *b. Occasionally*
____ *c. Often*
____ *d. Almost always*

How satisfied are you with your Board of Directors' planning for community meetings?

____ *a. Very satisfied*
____ *b. Moderately satisfied*
____ *c. Moderately dissatisfied*
____ *d. Very dissatisfied*

How often are discussions during meetings kept focused and on track?

____ *a. Almost never*
____ *b. Occasionally*
____ *c. Often*
____ *d. Almost always*

How often is appropriate closure reached on each meeting agenda item?

____ *a. Almost never*
____ *b. Occasionally*
____ *c. Often*
____ *d. Almost always*

APPENDIX B

How satisfied are you with the Board of Directors' conducting of community meetings?

____ ***a. Very satisfied***

____ ***b. Moderately satisfied***

____ ***c. Moderately dissatisfied***

____ ***d. Very dissatisfied***

How do you rate the Board of Directors' overall performance?

____ ***a. Very effective***

____ ***b. Moderately effective***

____ ***d. Moderately ineffective***

____ ***e. Very ineffective***

Please complete and return this form to:

James B. Stirling
42 West Maple Avenue
Morrisville, PA 19067

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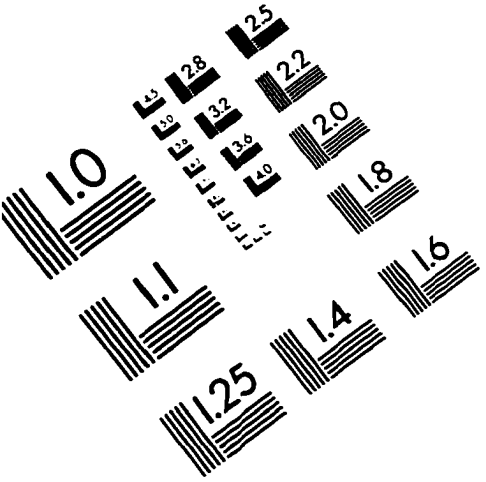
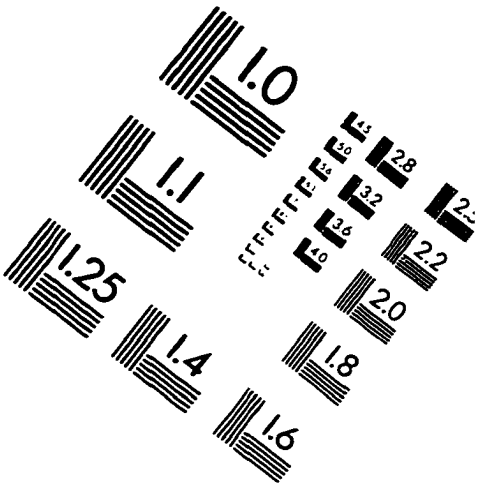
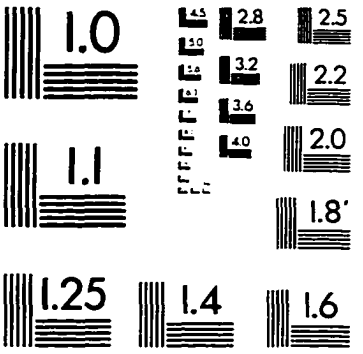
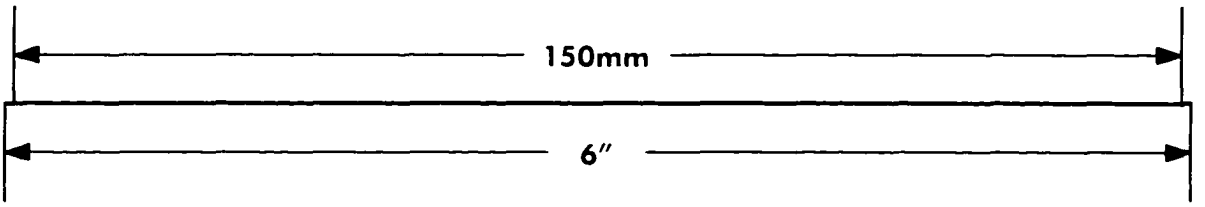
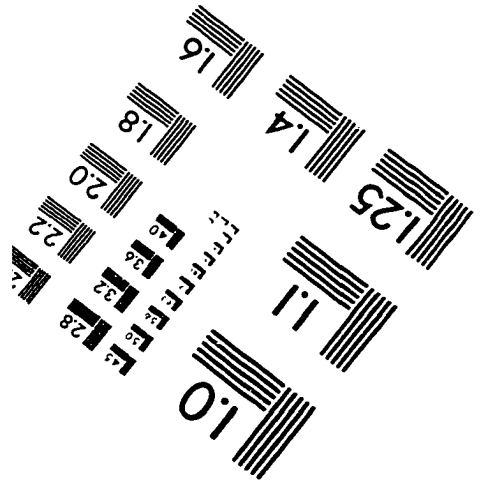
IMAGE EVALUATION TEST TARGET (QA-3)

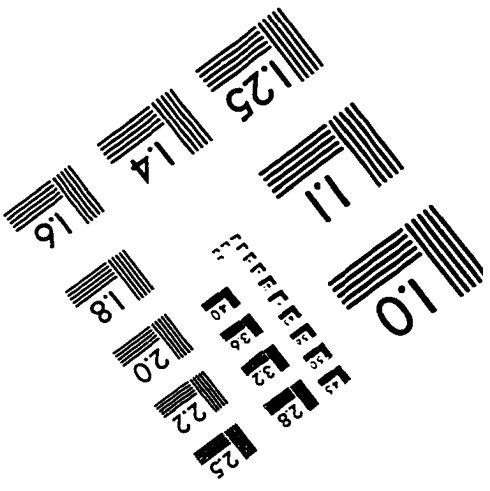












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