LEADERSHIP STYLES AND STYLE ADAPTABILITY OF DEANS AND DEPARTMENT

CHAIRS AT THREE PUBLIC RESEARCH UNIVERSITIES

By

AIEMAN AHMAD AL-OMARI

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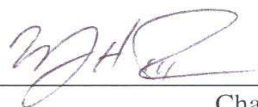the requirements for the degree of

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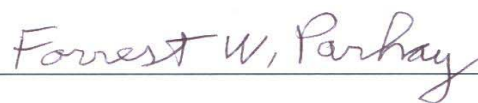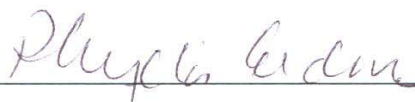College of Education

MAY 2005

To the Faculty of Washington State University:

The members of the Committee appointed to examine the dissertation of

AIEMAN AHMAD AL-OMARI find it satisfactory and recommend that it be accepted.

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Chair

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Forrest W, Parhay
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This dissertation is the culmination of a long process that involved working within a network of incredible people. With my sincere gratitude, I name but some of them here, although mere words will fail to convey my sincere appreciation for their roles in my graduate education.

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LEADERSHIP STYLES AND STYLE ADAPTABILITY OF DEANS AND DEPARTMENT

CHAIRS AT THREE PUBLIC RESEARCH UNIVERSITIES

Abstract

By Aieman AL-OMARI, Ph.D.
Washington State University
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Chair: Willie Heggins

This study was designed to identify the leadership styles and style adaptability, as defined by the Leadership Effectiveness and Adaptability Description (LEAD) Self instrument, of deans and department chairs at three Public Doctoral Research Universities-Extensive (Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, 2000) in the northwest region of the United States.

Both deans and department chairs selected *selling* as their primary leadership style. They apply the leadership style of *selling* as a means to have their faculty and staff accepts and display the behaviors most valued or needed by them. The *selling* style is appropriate if followers are confident and willing to take responsibility but are unable to do so because of lack of expertise.

The interrelationship among the leadership styles of deans and the demographic factors was low. There was insufficient evidence to show exists of a significant difference for leadership styles among deans as perceive themselves, with the exception of their discipline. A significant difference does exist between *delegating* leadership style among deans based upon their discipline.

Contrary to deans, it could be concluded that leadership styles of department chairs is affected by demographic factors. Male department chairs differ significantly from female department chairs in *telling*, and *delegating*, while female department chairs differ significantly from male department chairs in *participating*. A significant relationship exists between the leadership styles of *selling*, *participating*, and *delegating* among department chairs based upon their discipline. A significant relationship exists between the leadership styles of *participating*, and *delegating* among department chairs based upon their departments' enrollment. The leadership style of *participating* among department chairs was found to be based upon experience in their current position.

Style adaptability of deans and department chairs fell into the middle range. This range reflects a moderate degree of adaptability. Scores in this range usually indicate a pronounced primary leadership style with less flexibility in the secondary styles. Style adaptability levels of deans and department chairs are not very affected by demographic factors. There was insufficient evidence to show that a significant difference exists in style adaptability levels among deans and department chairs as they perceive themselves.

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DEDICATION

This study and my subsequent doctorate degree are dedicated to my father's memory, who toughened his hands to gain opportunities so that his children would never have to toughen theirs.

CHAPTER ONE

THE PROBLEM AND ITS BACKGROUND

Introduction

The study of leadership is not a recent phenomenon. Given the history of discussion relating to leadership found in the writings of Greek and Chinese philosophers, it would be reasonable to expect to find a clear definition of leadership. However, despite the plethora of literature available, there has been no consistent definition of leadership found (Mello, 1999). Definitions of leadership offered by researchers such as Montgomery (1961), Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1961), Kotter (1990), and Drouillard and Kleiner (1996) share a common theme, indicating that a leader has the potential ability to influence a group of individuals towards the achievement of a particular goal.

Many studies have been conducted resulting in the development of some important theories and concepts of leadership, but mainly in areas of business and industry organizations (Yukl, 1989). Very little research has been conducted on leadership in academia, and comparatively less research within academic colleges and departments. While nearly 80 percent of all administrative decisions in higher education are made at the department level (Hilosky, & Watwood, 1997; Wolverton, Gmelch, Wolverton, & Sarros, 1999), deans and department chairs are thought to adopt a collaborative style in reaching their decisions. Deans and department chairs are slow to gain recognition as leaders and agents of change (Gmelch & Miskin, 1995).

Formal training, instruction, or orientation for dean and department chair positions is often non-existent (Bennett, 1982; Tucker, 1984). Deans and department chairs are placed in charge of academic units without actual knowledge of people management skills or how to accomplish group goals. These academics are given responsibility without proper advising or

instruction, and some have difficulty in this situation at the expense of their respective

departments. Recommendations for dean and department chair training and workshops are found

in the works of Bennett (1982) and Tucker (1984). As Redwood, Goldwasser, and Street (1999)

acknowledge, "some leaders are born, but most need help."

Therefore, deans and academic department chairs, especially those new to their positions,

can confront their new challenges with fewer problems if they understand essential elements for

developing a culture of proactive change. Deans and department chairs are expected to be agents

of change, college professionals, and mentors guiding faculty and staff through team building

and professional development.

College deans have the ability to exert power, control information, allocate resources, and

assess the performance and promotion of their faculty and staff. They serve as academic

facilitators between university presidential initiatives, faculty governance, and student needs

(Astin and Scherrei, 1980). The deans' complex balancing process of their varied roles and

responsibilities are often viewed differently among faculty, provosts, students, and deans

themselves (Gmelch, Wolverton, Wolverton, & Sarros, 1999). These differing perceptions of the

position place further multiple, conflicting, and consequential pressures upon deans (Gmelch,

Wolverton, Wolverton, & Sarros, 1999; Kapel & Dejnozka, 1979).

Academic department chairs are one element of the academic administration of their

institution, and occupy a unique role in higher education institutions. The Gmelch and Miskin

(1993) study defined three major challenges facing department chairs. A better understanding of

these challenges may help department chairs affect desired changes in the department. The three

challenges are: 1) to develop an understanding and clarity about the motives and roles of a

department chair; 2) to understand the strategic planning process for creating a productive

department and vision, building a mission statement that describes the long term intent and this vision, and which sets the priorities for daily departmental endeavors and decision making processes; and 3) to develop key leadership skills needed to be an effective department chair, manage time effectively, and creatively manage stress.

In the United States, universities employ approximately 80,000 department chairs (Wolverton, Gmelch, Wolverton, & Sarros, 1999). This number of academic department chairs in of higher education institutions, warrants the need to explore their leadership styles. A national study of university department chairs in the United States in 1991 showed the average chair was 50 years old, white, male, tenured, and possessed a Ph.D. Of 564 chairs participating in this national study, the ethnic statistics were: 95 % white, 3 % Asian, 1.5 % Black, 0.18 % Native American, and no Hispanic (Gmelch & Miskin, 1995).

Seagren, Creswell, and Wheeler (1993) defined the position of department chair as a mid-level manager of an academic unit responsible for faculty workload, faculty and staff development, student appeals, curriculum, programs of study, budgeting, and planning. The department chair typically provides a link between faculty, students, programs, and upper level administrators.

The studies addressing the leadership styles of deans and department chairs are limited. Most of the research has focused on specific and different topics such as their transition from research and teaching to academic management (Arter, 1981), their dilemmas and stress in leadership (Cleveland, 1960; Wolverton, Gmelch, Wolverton, & Sarros, 1999), their position of conflict (Feltner & Goodsell, 1972; Wolverton, Wolverton, & Gmelch, 1999), their management skills and mobility (Sagaria, 1988; Sagaria & Krotseng, 1986), and their role in governance and decision making (Baldridge, 1971). Given this limited research, there is a need to further study

leadership styles and style adaptability of deans and department chairs at Public Doctoral

Research Universities-Extensive (Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, 2000).

Statement of the Problem

As academic administrators, deans and department chairs are called upon to interact with

and influence others in leading their faculty, and administrative cabinets. These two groups, the

faculties and administrative cabinets, each with varied responsibilities, hierarchical relationships,

educational backgrounds, attitudes, and personalities, present to deans and department chairs

differing leadership situations. Whether a dean or department chair can manage these situations

in an equal and effective manner given their own individual leadership style and background,

may determine the amount of satisfaction a dean or department chair garners from their position.

The interaction of a dean's or department chair's leadership style with the group leadership

situations within the faculty and administrative cabinet can greatly influence the success of the

dean or department chair with these groups as well as with the institution. The objective of this

study is to identify leadership styles and style adaptability of deans and department chairs as

perceived by them at three Public Doctoral Research Universities-Extensive.

The Importance of the Problem

The efficiency of leadership styles of deans and department chairs is a significant factor

influencing both the nature and the quality of an institution. The dean or department chair that is

able to develop an effective leadership style and maintain a relationship of productive harmony

with the other principal leadership centers of the college is better able to devote more energy

toward the creative development of the college. Conversely, a dean or department chair with an

ineffective leadership style and is in conflict with either the faculty or administrative cabinet is not positioned well to further their goals for the department or institution.

Most of the literature on organizational leadership concerns the leadership style and the relationship of a principal leader of a single group that the leader is perceived to lead. Such a view of organizational leadership admits to only one hierarchical relationship, a leader of a subordinate group. This approach to understanding organizational leadership styles does not adequately replicate the most complex situation in a university where the principal leaders, the deans and department chairs, are expected to lead equally well multiple groups, one of which is hierarchically superior and another of which is subordinate to the dean and department chair.

The problem as presented seeks to explore leadership styles and style adaptability of deans and department chairs as perceived by them at three Public Doctoral Research Universities-Extensive, and to investigate the differing leadership situations with which a dean and department chair are presented, and to relate these situations to their perceived leadership styles.

Purpose of the study

The literature addressing leadership theories and models in higher education tends to consider college presidents and upper-level administrators as leaders, and rarely focuses on mid-level managers, deans and department chairs, for their leadership studies. Despite the fact that nearly 80 % of all administrative decisions in higher education are made at the department level (Wolverton, Gmelch, Wolverton, & Sarros, 1999), department chairs are slow to gain recognition as leaders and agents of change (Gmelch & Miskin, 1995).

This study focused on deans and department chairs in an attempt to provide them with an opportunity for concentrated study of them in positions of leadership. The situational leadership model developed by Hersey and Blanchard (1982) was used as the framework for this study. Hersey and Blanchard developed a major component in leadership theory with their situational leadership model. This model was created by combining early studies on leadership and then dividing this information into quadrants. Hersey and Blanchard (1982) stated, "The style of leaders is the consistent behavior patterns that they use when they are working with and through other people" (p. 126).

Therefore, by using the situational leadership model as a framework, and the Leadership Effectiveness and Adaptability Description (LEAD)-Self instrument (Appendix A), this study investigated the leadership styles and style adaptability of deans and department chairs as perceived by them, and how demographic variables (gender, discipline, experience in current position, and enrollment of the college or department) influence leadership styles and style adaptability levels of them at three Public Doctoral Research Universities-Extensive.

Questions of the study

The research questions were designed to identify leadership styles and style adaptability of deans and department chairs as perceived by them at three Public Doctoral Research Universities-Extensive.

The research questions of this study are:

1.   How do deans and department chairs perceive their leadership styles?

2.   What is the average style adaptability level among deans and department chairs?

3.   How do demographic variables (gender, discipline, experience in current position, and enrollment of the college or department), influence leadership styles and style adaptability levels of deans and department chairs?

Ho1:   There is no significant difference among leadership styles of deans as perceived by them for each of the following variables:

a.   Gender of dean

b.   Discipline

c.   Enrollment of the college

d.   Experience in current position

Ho2:   There is no significant difference among leadership styles of department chairs as perceived by them for each of the following variables:

a.   Gender of department chair

b.   Discipline

c.   Enrollment of the department

d.   Experience in current position

Ho3:   There is no significant difference among style adaptability levels of deans as perceived by them for each of the following variables:

a.   Gender of dean

b.   Discipline

c.   Enrollment of the college

d.   Experience in current position

Ho4:   There is no significant difference among style adaptability levels of department chairs as perceived by them for each of the following variables:

a.   Gender of department chair

b.   Discipline

c.   Enrollment of the department

d.   Experience in current position

Theoretical Framework: The Situational Leadership Model

As a theoretical framework of this study, the situational leadership model that was developed by Hersey, Blanchard, and Johnson (1996) is based on the interrelationships among three salient elements of group dynamics: First, amount of guidance and direction (i.e., task behavior) a leader provides to members of the organization; second, amount of socio-emotional support (i.e., relationship behavior) a leader provides to members of the organization; and third, readiness levels (i.e., maturity levels) that followers exhibit in working on tasks necessary for the achievement of organizational goals. This concept provides leaders with some understanding of the relationship between an effective style of leadership and the level of readiness of their subordinates.

Hersey, Blanchard, and Johnson (1996), as well as other leadership theorists such as Fiedler (1967) and Blake and Mouton (1964), maintain that no single leadership style is appropriate for all situations. Effective leaders adapt their leadership behaviors to the readiness levels of subordinates. In the situational leadership model, the two dimensions of task and relationship are related to a third dimension: the maturity levels of the group or organization, or rather its readiness.

Readiness in situational leadership is defined as the extent to which a subordinate demonstrates the ability and willingness to accomplish a specific assigned task. Readiness is not

a personal characteristic; it is not an evaluation of a person's traits, values, or age. Readiness is how prepared a person may perform a particular task (Hersey, Blanchard, & Johnson, 1996).

Hersey, Blanchard, and Johnson (1996) suggest four leadership styles that reflect behaviors along two dimensions. The first dimension, *Task Behavior*, consists of one-way communication and activities that are highly directive. In other words, the leader is explicit about assigning duties and responsibilities to be met by their subordinates. Leadership behaviors within this dimension include telling them what to do, and how, when, and where to do the assigned tasks.

The second dimension, *Relationship Behavior*, focuses on the leader's facilitative ability to reach desired goals, and consists of two-way communication and providing support, encouragement, and positive psychological feedback (Hersey, Blanchard, & Johnson, 1996). According to the Situational Leadership model, leadership styles refer to four salient communication patterns the leader may use in talking to followers, which are *telling*, *selling*, *participating*, and *delegating*. The two behaviors of *telling* and *selling* are primarily leader oriented with one-way communications. Alternatively, *participating* and *delegating* are largely follower-oriented with two-way communications. *Participating* behaviors require the leader to invest considerable socio-emotional involvement in working with subordinates, while *delegating* behaviors involves a diminishment of involvement and support.

The following descriptions apply to the four styles:

- Style 1 (*Telling*): This leadership style is characterized by above-average amounts of task behavior and below-average amounts of relationship behavior. This style is appropriate when an individual or group is low in ability and willingness and needs direction. This style

emphasizes *directive behavior* in which the leader identifies the roles of followers and tells them what, how, when, and where to do various tasks (Hersey, Blanchard, & Johnson, 1996).

- Style 2 (*Selling*): This leadership style is characterized by above-average amounts of both task and relationship behavior. The task behavior is appropriate because people are still considered unable, but because they're trying, it is important to be supportive of their motivation and commitment. The leader establishes and maintains two-way communication and provides sufficient support and reinforcement so that followers will psychologically accept the leader's decisions (Hersey, Blanchard, & Johnson, 1996).

- Style 3 (*Participating*): This style is characterized by above-average amounts of relationship behavior and below-average amounts of task behavior. The decision-making procedure being shared by both the leader and follower characterizes this style. The leader maintains the role of confidence in the aptitude of his followers (Hersey, Blanchard, & Johnson, 1996).

- Style 4 (*Delegating*): This style is characterized by below-average amounts of both relationship and task behavior. The followers are allowed to take charge and decide for themselves *what, how, when, and where to do various tasks*. The leader shows complete confidence in his followers' aptitudes and decisions (Hersey, Blanchard, & Johnson, 1996).

More effective leaders determine which leadership style is most appropriate for them by first assessing the readiness level of the subordinates, which is their ability and willingness to perform the task. The two major components of readiness are ability and willingness. Ability is the knowledge, experience, and skill that an individual or group brings to a particular task or activity. Willingness is the extent to which an individual or group has the confidence,

commitment, and motivation to accomplish a specific task (Hersey and Blanchard, & Johnson, 1996).

After identifying the readiness level of the individual or group they are attempting to influence, the leader determines the most appropriate leadership style. Hence, style adaptability is the extent to which the leaders are able to vary their style in response to the demands of a particular situation or problem.

Hersey, Blanchard, and Johnson (1996) suggest that all leaders have a primary leadership style and that most leaders have a secondary leadership style. A leader's primary leadership style is defined as the behavior pattern used most often when attempting to influence the activities of others, for example, a preferred subordinate. A leader's secondary leadership style is the behavior pattern most often used only on occasion. Further, leaders have one primary leadership style, and they tend to use one of the four basic leadership styles described in Situational Leadership in most leadership situations. However, they may have no secondary leadership style or they may have up to three secondary styles.

Operational Definitions

The following definitions were operationalized for this study.

Leadership: The process of influencing the activities of an individual or a group in efforts toward goal achievement in a given situation (Hersey, Blanchard, & Johnson, 1996).

Leadership Style: The behavior pattern a person exhibits when attempting to influence the activities of others (Hersey, Blanchard, & Johnson, 1996).

Style Range: The extent to which a leader is able to vary their leadership style through the four quadrants of the Situational Leadership Model. A wide style range possesses a greater ability to be effective in various situations (Hersey, Blanchard, & Johnson, 1996).

Style Adaptability: The degree to which leaders are able to vary their style according to the demands of a given situation, per the Situational Leadership Model (Hersey, Blanchard, & Johnson, 1996).

Readiness: Readiness in Situational Leadership is defined as the extent to which a follower demonstrates the ability and willingness to accomplish a specific task (Hersey, Blanchard, & Johnson, 1996).

Doctoral Research Universities-Extensive: These institutions typically offer a wide range of baccalaureate programs, and they are committed to graduate education through the doctorate. During the period studied, they awarded 50 or more doctoral degrees per year across at least 15 disciplines (Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, 2000).

Assumptions

For the purpose of conducting this study, the following major assumptions were made:

1.   That all respondents are honest and truthful, and that all question responses are factual;

2.   That deans and department chairs have leadership styles that differentiate them from other academic administrators;

3.   That deans and department chairs rely on leadership styles that are unique in higher education;

4.   That deans and department chairs leadership styles are adequately represented on the Leadership Effectiveness Adaptability Description (LEAD) Self instrument; and

5.   That deans and department chairs are unique administrators in contrast to other faculty and senior level administrators.

Limitations and Delimitations of the Study

The following are limitations and resulting delimitations of the current study:

1.   The study is limited to the department chairs and deans at three Public Doctoral Research Universities-Extensive in the northwest region of the United States.

2.   This inquiry into leadership styles and style adaptability of deans and department chairs at three of Public Doctoral Research Universities-Extensive. Therefore, the study findings cannot be generalized to other areas of education or other administrative positions within or outside of the universities studied.

3.   The data collection and intent of the study were limited to three Public Doctoral Research Universities-Extensive. Therefore, the findings of this study should not be interpreted representative of the views of other deans and department chairs at other academic institutions.

4.   Only predefined leadership styles were evaluated using the survey instrument. Therefore, findings of this study may not be inclusive of leadership styles that are personally unique or dependent upon the individual holding the position of dean or department chair.

5.   The data collected for this study occurred during the fall of 2004. Therefore, the study's findings are indicative of that time period only and as such, are not reflective of alternative or different chronological episodes. As with the assumptions noted above, the study of a heuristic value, and the limitations were accepted to individually guide this research.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The literature review related to the study of leadership styles and style adaptability of deans and department chairs as perceived by them at three Public Doctoral Research Universities-Extensive.

 The literature review is organized to focus first on a discussion of definitions of leadership and leadership theories, placing emphasis on these theories that guide analysis of the study data, and secondly to focus on leadership literature for deans and department chairs.

Leadership Definition

The study of leadership is both daunting and enticing. Leadership study is daunting because it is one of the most important and pervasive issues regularly argued across a multitude of disciplines including political, educational, legal, and psychological ones. Leadership is the subject of much published work produced annually. Over 7,000 books, articles or presentations on leadership were produced in 1990 (Bass, 1990; Hogan et al., 1994). In addition, its definitions, taxonomies, and typologies are numerous; at one time, leadership was noted as having over 350 definitions (Bass, 1990; Bennis & Nanus, 1997).

Leadership study can be enticing and has been a preoccupation of human beings since the beginning of life (Bass, 1990). It provides a means for aspiring leaders to liken themselves with the great individuals who have worn the title of leader.

For all the attention given leadership study, however, James MacGregor Burns' (1978) astute observation still holds, which is that it "is one of the most observed phenomena on earth and it is one of the least understood" (p.2). Scholars have attempted to define, categorize, and

attribute the study of leadership to situations, only to add to its confusion and

incomprehensibility. Rost (1993) said that "attempts to define leadership have been confusing,

varied, disorganized, idiosyncratic, muddled, and according to conventional wisdom, quite

unrewarding". Bass (1990) reduced the concept to a "rough scheme of classification":

> Leadership has been conceived as the focus of group processes, as a matter of personality, as a matter of inducing compliance, as the exercise of influence, as particular behaviors, as a form of persuasion, as a power of relation, as an instrument to achieve goals, as an effect of interaction, as a differentiated role, as initiation of structure, as many combinations of these definitions (p. 11).

Yukl (1998) asserted that despite research efforts, leadership has no common definition, and that

confusion and a "state of fermentation" exist given the disparity in approaches, research focus,

and lack of integrated theoretical findings. New theories have emerged that replicated older ones;

in effect, pouring "old wine into new bottles" (Bass, 1990; Bass & Avolio, 1994).

For all the definitions, many are ambiguous (Pfeffer, 1977) or contradictory and

inconclusive (Gmelch, 1999). For example, some definitions of leadership do not distinguish it

from social influence phenomena, and others tend to emulate general models of behavior

(Pfeffer, 1977). The result is that leadership has been categorized into a myriad of dimensions,

and these overlapping meanings have only added to the confusion (Pfeffer, 1977; Spitzberg,

1987).

Given the multidimensional demands of higher education, it is easy to see why so few

institutions have attempted to define their leadership. As the leadership crisis continues,

however, so escalates the search for solutions for this leadership dilemma (Gmelch, 1999).

> Leaders, the studies say, are born, not made—are not born; possess distinctive traits—possess no special traits at all; emerge from the ranks of faculty—must be trained and developed; or must use power and influence—must merely manage symbols and the academic culture. (Gmelch, 1999, p.1)

To avoid adding to the established confusion, this study attempts to clarify the concept of leadership as it relates to higher education. The research seeks to identify the leadership styles and style adaptability of deans and department chairs as perceived by them at three Public Doctoral Research Universities-Extensive.

In general, according to Rowley (1997), and specifically in the context of higher education, the world and markets are changing, and political and legal contexts are shifting. In addition, information technology has increased the speed of communication and therefore has impacted the ability of organizations to monitor and respond to their customers' requirements. In such an environment, organizations and their employees must learn how to change.

According to Salaman and Butler (1994), in order to change appropriately organizations must be able to analyze themselves, their processes, structures, and environments. They must be able to identify preferred and appropriate responses, as well as be able to implement them. In other words, organizations must be able to learn and to learn from their learning. Without this ability, organizations will not be able to exercise appropriate choice in respect to structure, process, culture, and product; and consequently, they will fail. The learning organization needs a process for supporting people in the identification and exploitation of learning opportunities. Establishing such a process is a shared role for management development advisers, and trainers and educators in partnership with line managers.

In this context, managers need to accept responsibility for the performance of others. Mumford (1980) suggests that managers who are good developers of their staff possess several characteristics. These mangers draw out the strengths and weaknesses of their staff rather than suppress them; they reward their staff both materially and psychologically for risks taken in attempting to develop themselves; they positively seek to identify learning opportunities for

staff; they grant time off for professional development; they involve their subordinates in some of their own tasks and do not simply delegate tasks that they do not wish to do themselves; they share some of their problems and anxieties with their staff as one way of enhancing staff development; they listen to rather than talk at their staff; they do not seek to shape individuals as replicas of themselves; and they take risks on the desired results of their departments in pursuit of relevant learning opportunities for their staff.

To exhibit these characteristics, managers need to develop appropriate adult to adult relationships, as well as the language and behavior that are used in these relationships. Individual learning, to a significant extent then rests on the relationships that managers collectively, within an organization have with their staff. Higher education institutions need to reflect on the relationships that managers of both academic and non-academic staff form with their staff and, in general, provide appropriate management development.

Pettigrew and Whipp (1991) identified four key environmental variables that were handled differently by higher performing firms. The variables are: 1) environmental assessment; 2) leading change; 3) viewing human resources as both assets and liabilities; and 4) achieving coherence. Successful management of all of these variables can be viewed as adopting a problem-solving approach where high quality data and data analysis, along with open dialogue are central.

The Leadership Theory

Views of leadership have changed radically over the years. The earliest leadership research attempts to determine what makes one person a leader and another not a leader, and did so by examining the supposedly inherent traits of known leaders. After the accumulation of

leadership traits became too large to manage or interpret, researchers focused on leadership behavior, and what leaders do in their leadership capacities. The assumption was that leadership was something almost any individual could accomplish if they attempted to learn how.

Studying leadership behavior is important because it can help improve the effective utilization of human resources (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969); it can help in preventing resistance to change, restriction of output, and labor disputes; and often, it can lead to a more efficient organization. As such, the following leadership theories provide scholars with a vision and introduce leadership behaviors that may assist deans and department chairs in better managing different situations in the course of their work and in their interactions with others.

Trait Theories

Theories that investigate the personal characteristics of successful leaders are described as trait theories. These theories consider the innate qualities or traits characteristic of good leaders. Successful academic leaders have been described in terms of their personal attributes, interpersonal abilities, and technical management skills. Personal attributes include humor, courage, judgment, integrity, intelligence, persistence, work ethic, vision, and being opportunity conscious; interpersonal abilities include being outgoing, team building, and compassionate. Technical management skills include producing results, resolving conflicts, analyzing and evaluating problems, ability to enhance the work environment, and goal oriented (Bensimon, Neumann, & Birnbaum, 2000).

While the early emphasis on individual personality and talent is no longer viewed as the sole determinants of a good leader, an appropriate combination of personal characteristics is seen

as an important contribution to effective leadership. Rowley (1997) said that the following

characteristics are generally viewed as being important:

Intelligence, a desire to solve complex problems or discover patterns in events are

prevalent.

Initiative, the ability to perceive the need for action and to do something about it; this

characteristic is often related to energy and stamina.

Self-assurance, the self-confidence to believe in what they are doing; this characteristic

is related to he individual's perception of their role in society and their aspirations for

themselves.

The helicopter trait, a descriptive term for the ability to understand a situation at

different levels of detail.

Trait theory is important because it seeks a framework based on the qualities of

exceptional leaders in terms of personal characteristics. This framework can then be used to

identify potential leaders. However, trait theories give little consideration to the context in which

leadership is exercised (Rowley, 1997).

Power and Influence Theories

There are two types of power and influence theories: 1) theories that consider leadership

in terms of the influence or effects that leaders may have on their followers (social power theory

and transformational leadership theory); and 2) theories that consider leadership in terms of

mutual influence and reciprocal relationships between leaders and followers (social exchange

theory and transactional leadership theory).

Social power theory

From this perspective, effective leaders are those who can use their power to influence the activities of others. The most likely sources of power for academic leaders are expert and referent power over legitimate, coercive, or reward powers (Bensimon, Neumann, & Birnbaum, 2000).

College presidents can exert influence over their campuses through charismatic power. This particular perspective maintains that academic leaders can cultivate charismatic power by remaining distant or remote from constituents, by attending to their personal appearance and style, and by exhibiting self-confidence. To establish distance and remoteness, presidents are counseled not to establish close relationships with faculty, not to be overly visible, and to emphasize the importance of trappings of the office as symbols of its elevated state. Style consists of presidential competence, attitude, speech, dress, mannerisms, appearance, and personal habits (Bensimon, Neumann, & Birnbaum, 2000).

Social exchange theory and Transactional Theory

College and university presidents can accumulate and exert power by controlling access to information, controlling the budgetary process, allocating resources to preferred projects, and assessing major faculty and administrative appointments. On college campuses, however, the presence of other sources of power, (i.e., the trustees' power to make policy and the faculty's professional authority), seriously limits the president's discretionary control of organizational activities. For this reason, social exchange theory is particularly useful for examining the principles of shared governance and consultation,

and the image of the president as first among equals, which under surrounds much of the normative values of academic organizations. Transactional theory can be particularly useful for understanding the interactions between leaders and followers (Bensimon, Neumann, & Birnbaum, 2000).

Transformational Theory

Transformational Theory suggests that effective leaders create and promote a desirable vision or image of the institution. Unlike goals, tasks, and agendas, which refer to concrete and instrumental ends to be achieved, a vision refers to altered perceptions, attitudes, and commitments. The transformational leader must encourage the college community to accept a vision created by his or her symbolic actions (Bensimon, Neumann, & Birnbaum, 2000).

Behavior Theories

Behavior theories examine whether the leader is task oriented (initiating structure) or people oriented (consideration), or both. Blake and Mouton (1964) adapted their managerial grid into an academic style and applied it to higher education. Their model suggests five styles of academic administration: 1) care-taker, 2) authority-obedience, 3) comfortable-pleasant, 4) constituency-centered, and 5) team oriented. The optimum style is identified as team administration, which is characteristic of leaders who scored high on both concern for institutional performance and concern for people (Bensimon, Neumann, & Birnbaum, 2000).

Some limited empirical tests of these theories have been performed. A study of department chairs by Knight and Holen (1985) found that those considered effective by the faculty scored high both in initiating structure (task) and consideration of people. Alternatively, a

case study of a single institution reports that department chairs with high faculty morale

scored high on measures of consideration of people and participative leadership style, but not

high in initiating structure (Madron, Craig, & Mendel, 1976).

Contingency Theories

From this perspective, effective leadership requires adapting one's style of leadership to

situational factors. Vroom (1983) found that if these theories were used to determine the kind of

leader most appropriate to chair academic departments, each department would prescribe a

different type of leader. Situational variables in Fiedler's (1967) contingency model and in

House's (1971) path-goal theory prescribe a task-oriented leader who would do whatever is

necessary to help staff to achieve a desired goal.

Balancing work concerns and human concerns is difficult under ideal circumstances. Fred

Fiedler, who called these dimensions task-orientation and relationship-orientation, believed that

leaders would be able to focus on either one or the other, but not both simultaneously. Fiedler

saw task-orientation and relationship-orientation as two ends of a continuum, and believes it

logically impossible to be at both ends of the continuum. Fiedler's research on contingency

theory ascertained that leaders who described their least preferred coworker in positive terms

were human relations oriented; whereas those who described the least preferred coworker in

negative terms were task-oriented (Mazzarella, 1983).

 In contrast, Hersey and Blanchard's life-cycle theory and the Vroom-Yetton decision

process theory identify individuals with a delegating and participative style of leadership. This

theory is based upon the ability of the leader or manager to diagnose the group environment or

situation with the purpose of adjusting the leadership style, the group situation, or possibly both.

An application of the Vroom-Yetton model to the study of decision-making among department chairs concludes that they frequently chose autocratic styles of decision-making in situations where a consultative style would have increased the likelihood of the faculty's acceptance of the decision (Bensimon, Neumann, & Birnbaum, 2000). Hersey and Blanchard's theory was used to develop a questionnaire that would help department chairs determine departmental level of maturity and select a corresponding style of leadership (Tucker 1984). Analyses of studies on the behavior of leaders by Dill (2000) suggested that when given a choice of leadership roles, faculty members consistently preferred the leader to be a facilitator, or one who solved problems and who sought to provide the resources necessary for the research activities of faculty members.

In describing situational leadership theory, Hersey and Blanchard (1977) theorize that there is a curvilinear relationship between task behavior (initiating structure) and maturity. More accurately, as the leaders are able to assess the leadership situation with which they must deal, the leaders should adjust their behavior or style to be compatible with the situation. As the maturity of the group increases, the leader should reduce task directed behavior and increase relationship behavior. Maturity is seen as the degree to which the group is able to increase their level of aspirations and accomplishments. In the very mature state, a group essentially self-actualizes and a leader operates with a high degree of delegation.

Generally, contingency theories have found their greatest applicability in the study of leadership in academic departments, likely because decision-making at this level is less equivocal than at higher levels of the academic organization (Bensimon, Neumann, & Birnbaum, 2000).

Cultural and Symbolic Theories

Occasionally, effective leaders give symbolic meaning to events that others may see as perplexing, senseless, or chaotic. These leaders do so by focusing attention on aspects of college life both familiar and meaningful to the college community. Leaders may play an important role in creating and maintaining institutional sagas. The role of academic leaders in the preservation of academic culture may be even more critical today than in the past, because increased specification, professionalism, and complexity have weakened the values and beliefs that have provided institutions with a common sense of purpose, commitment, and order. Although leaders may not be able to change the current culture through management, their attention to social integration and symbolic events may enable them to sustain and strengthen the culture that already exists (Bensimon, Neumann, & Birnbaum, 2000).

Strategies of change that make sense to institutional members, and are therefore likely to elicit acceptance and support may depend upon leaders' understanding of an organization from cultural perspectives. These leaders may be required to act as anthropologists uncovering the organizational culture by seeking to identify metaphors embedded in the language of the college community. Leaders may become more effective by using symbols that are consistent with the institution's culture (Bensimon, Neumann, & Birnbaum, 2000).

Cognitive Theories

Cognitive theories have important implications for perceptions of leaders' effectiveness. In many situations, presidential leadership may not have measurable outcomes other than social attribution, or the tendency of campus constituents to assign to a president the credit or blame for unusual institutional outcomes. From this perspective, leaders are individuals believed by

followers to be responsible for particular events. Leaders themselves, in the absence of clear

indicators, are subject to cognitive bias that can lead them to make predictable errors of judgment

and to over-estimate their effectiveness in campus improvements (Bensimon, Neumann, &

Birnbaum, 2000).

As a result, theories of leadership style are of much value to leaders attempting to

improve their performance in different organizations, particularly university deans and

department chairs. Leadership styles may vary according to the situations confronting deans and

department chairs. Department chairs applying leadership styles have numerous desired goals,

the most important of which are to raise motivation of faculty and staff, help them accept

changes, improve morale, diminish stress, reduce workload, increase innovations, and improve

human relations.

The leadership Studies Related to Deans and Department Chairs

The following section is reviews a number of studies pertaining to the leadership style of

deans and department chairs in higher education institutions.

The reputation of a university depends upon its departments and the scholars within them.

Previously, autonomy in the development of the departments was a necessity if the university

was to achieve a national reputation. Today, the university assesses itself and is assessed by the

quality of its departments; therefore, the departments possess the advantages of familiarity,

formal simplicity, and a clearly defined hierarchy of authority. A department provides a basis for

which faculty members can interact. A department as a unified group of faculty and staff can

operate effectively within the university organization. Academic departments form the basic unit

of the administrative structure with power to initiate most actions that affected the institution (Dressel & Reichard, 1970).

The importance of the department in academic governance apparently increases as universities become larger and more internally differentiated. The importance of an academic department is defined by the value of the faculty and staffs in the department especially the chair and their leadership behavior (Croson, J.J., 1960; Ryan, 1972).

Glaser and Smalley (1995) found that women are now uniquely equipped to contribute to the new work climate because of their natural leadership tendencies. These characteristics include: having a positive attitude, solid job knowledge, a personal touch, generosity, a sense of direction, consistency, flexibility/ adaptability, open-mindedness, trustworthiness/ reliability, firmness/ decisiveness, a sense of humor, strength/ confidence, visibility/ accessibility, and ability to motivate.

The Wolverton, Gmelch, Wolverton, and Sarros's (1999) study examined department chair stress as a multi-dimensional construct with links to multiple variables between American and Australian department chairs. They found that chairs in both countries were 50.5 years old average, had been in their positions for approximately four years, and were tenured when they assumed the position. Chair positions were held primarily by men with 17 % women in Australia and 11 % in the United States. About 50 % of all chairs viewed themselves as achieving an equal balance of being both a faculty member and an administrator. In Australia, 47 % of chairs surveyed, and in the United States 43 % of chairs surveyed, considered themselves as academic faculty exclusively and as administrators. In both Australia and the United States, fewer than 30% of current chairs indicated that they would eventually seek a higher administrative position. In Australia, the most dominant stress factor appeared to be the administrative relationship, which

accounted for 29.4% of the variance, followed by human relations 5.7%, administrative tasks

4.7%, academic role 3.6%, and external time 3.3%. In the United States, administrative task

stress appeared to be most important factor and accounted for 27% of the variances with

administrative relationships second 5.9%, human relations third 4.7%, academic role fourth 4.0%,

and external time fifth 3.6%.

In general, reviewed literature relating to academic department chair leadership style in

the United States showed the average chair to be 50 years old, white, male, tenured, and

possessing a Ph.D. (Gmelch & Miskin, 1995).

The research of Gmelch and Miskin (1993) defined three major challenges facing

department chairs. The first major challenge is to develop an understanding of and clarity about

the motives and roles of a department chair. The second major challenge is to understand the

strategic planning process for creating a productive department, a department with a vision, and

building a departmental mission statement. This statement would describe the long-term intent

and vision of the department and set the priorities for daily department endeavors and decision-

making processes. The third major challenge is to develop key leadership skills required for

being an effective department chair, which include managing time well and creatively reducing

stress.

According to results of the National Survey Center for the Study of the Department Chair

located at Washington State University (Gmlech & Miskin, 1993), chairs most frequently served

in their roles for personal development reasons (321 chairs surveyed or 60%). However, 251 or

46.8% of the chairs said they had been asked to serve by their college dean or colleagues. These

were the two most frequent reasons given for serving as department chair; the first reason

represents an intrinsic motivation to serve, and the latter is an extrinsic motivation to serve. In

response to the second question, 46% of the chairs surveyed indicated a willingness to serve

another term as chair, 30% said they would not, and 24% were undecided. Interestingly, those

who agreed to serve primarily for extrinsic reasons were the least willing to serve another term,

25%. In contrast, 75% of the intrinsically motivated chairs were willing to serve another term.

Academic department chairs are part of the administration of their institution in that they

occupy a unique role in higher education institutions. According to Tight (1992), department

chairs in the American higher education system possess less formal powers than deans, whereas

in Europe, the United Kingdom, and Australia it was the opposite. The educational systems are

converging and the constraints for department chairs and deans are largely similar and internal,

(e.g., tradition and values of academia, collegiality, length of term, and status of department

chairs).

Ryan's (1972) study was based upon a comparative field study of fifteen academic

departments at Ohio State University, which were selected to represent the social sciences,

humanities, physical sciences, biological sciences, business, and education schools. The

departments classified into headships and collegial groupings. Headship organizations are

defined as those in which decisional power tended to be centralized. Committees were often

formed to advise the chairperson who ultimately made the final decision. Alternatively,

committees possessed decisional powers, but the chairperson selectively appointed the

committee members. Ten departments were found to be headship departments, and the

chairperson was perceived as being dominant. Collegial organizations were defined as those in

which decisions were made at a faculty meeting, as group committees were functional, and they

served as advisory to the total council or a committee of the whole. The chairperson was not seen

either as dominating committees or as making final decisions. Only five departments met these criteria.

Bolton and Boyer's (1973) study at University of Cincinnati explored a different approach in a specific context: organization development in academic departments. Results of the study indicated that helping departments improve their capabilities to address at their own level the broad problem of developing educational plans, improving teaching effectiveness, improving relationships between faculty and students was solved. Also, department heads perform as the educational and managerial leader of the unit. It was important that the top administrative units at the University of Cincinnati begin to understand and support the organizational work of the departments. Improvement in communication, decision-making, and problem solving abilities improve the quality of decisions made at the department level.

Furthermore, Knight and Holen's (1985) study purpose was to ascertain whether significant relationships exist between departmental leadership (defined as faculty's perceptions of their chairperson's initiating structure and consideration) and faculty's perceptions of the quality of their chairperson's performance of typical responsibilities. Also, the sample of the Knight and Holen study was 458 department chairpersons and 5830 faculty members in 65 colleges and universities across the United States. The sample included 52 public and 13 private academic institutions. To differentiate among levels of leadership, chairpersons were ranked separately as high, medium, or low on initiating structure and consideration. The major results of this study were that both initiating structure and consideration were found to be significant for all but one performance item of the department chair. The one exception was consideration but was not significant for whether or not the department chair facilitates obtaining grants and contracts from external sources. Individuals who become chairs of academic departments seldom have

administrative backgrounds as might be assumed to be a prerequisite for the position. Also, the combination of high initiating structure and high consideration is the most effective leadership style.

To be successful leaders, Kouzes and Posner (1987) state that the five most common leadership practices to employ are: challenge the process, inspire a shared vision, enable others to act, model the way, and encourage the heart. Kouzes and Posner add that the majority of people admire leaders who are honest, competent, forward looking, and inspiring. Teamwork is essential for a productive organization, collaboration is needed to develop the commitment and skills of employees, solve problems, and respond to environmental pressures.

Martin (1993) conducted a study of the roles and characteristics of individuals identified as effective academic deans at public research universities. Effective leaders were found to be identified by five areas of expertise: 1) they are cultural representatives of their colleges and universities; 2) as communicators, they are continually striving for more efficient and more inclusive communication structures, networks, and processes; 3) they are skilled managers; 4) they are planners and analysts; and 5) they are advocates of the institution and cultivate relationships with various groups and individuals on campus.

Cyphert and Ingersoll (1974) attempted to identify elements of the leadership strategies of academic administrators by focusing on the role of the dean. Subjects in this study were identified by virtue of being incumbent deans in specific university colleges or schools considered as "high status," "upwardly mobile," or "low status" in the fields of arts and sciences, business, education, engineering, law, medicine, and nursing. A total of 101 colleges or schools were selected, and 75 participated. The findings revealed the following characteristics:

a) quality faculty, b) innovative instruction, c) the basic research function, d) student affairs, including strong admission policies and placement services, e) financial support …, and f) attention to modifying governance and administrative structure are all ingredients that administrators identify as crucial in high status schools; conversely, deans of low status schools do not rate these factors as significant characteristics of their operation (p. 359).

In a study of 189 faculty members, 27 presidents, and 27 deans in a community college setting, Cox (1974) found significant differences existed between the perceptions of faculty members and presidents, as well as between the perceptions of presidents and deans concerning the real and ideal descriptions relative to the initiating structure and consideration dimension of leader behavior.

Several research efforts have dealt with the role and leadership behavior of department chairs. Knox (1977) maintained that:

Leadership means dealing with people. In order to build rapport and a good working relationship with department members, the chair must try to understand their perceptions. With understanding comes a realization of the type of approach, which will work best in supervising and motivating the staff (p. 6).

Johnson (1976) studied the relationship between administrator's roles and degree of success. This study involved 41 department chairs and 282 faculty members of physical education departments at colleges and universities in the United States. The researcher concluded the following three characteristics were significant:

1) congruity of role perceptions between the administrator and faculty will lead to improved faculty perception of the administrator's success at carrying out specific roles;
2) the more administrators feel that they are leaders, capable of assuming authority, the less successful they will be in the opinion of their faculty; and,
3) the administrator who is cheerful and who possesses an even disposition will be viewed as more successful by the faculty than administrators who do not possess such characteristics (pp 7-8).

The research conducted by Hoyt and Spangler (1978) involved 103 department chairs and 1,333 faculty members at four large universities located in various regions of the United States.

In this study, the faculty members assessed the administrative effectiveness of their department chairs. They also described the department chairs' behavior. The results led to an extraction of four administrative styles: 1) democratic practice; 2) structuring; 3) interpersonal sensitivity; and 4) vigor. The researchers noted a highly significant relationship between the ratings of administrative effectiveness and behavioral descriptions. Similarly, the four measures of administrative style were significantly related to performance. Specifically, structuring and interpersonal sensitivity were the best predictors of performance. Activities related to "Building Department's Reputation" were best predicted by vigor and democratic practice, while "Planning and Development" effectiveness was predicted best by vigor, structuring and democratic practices.

The study conducted by Toylyati (1981) focused on the expectations and perceptions of deans, department chairs, faculty members, and students researching leadership behavior of academic department chairs at 18 institutions in three states: Arkansas, Kansas, and Oklahoma. A total of 39 deans, 51 department chairs, 174 faculty members, and 166 students participated in this study. The researcher reported several findings and drew the following conclusions:

> … that the academic department chairman is placed in a position where he encounters conflicting expectations in his relationships with group members … The academic department chairman is placed in a position where he encounters conflicting expectations in his relationship with faculty regarding the consideration dimension and with students regarding consideration and initiating structure dimensions… The academic chairman was placed in apposition where he encountered conflicting expectations in his relationship with the dean regarding the consideration dimension and with the students regarding the initiating structure dimension (pp. 88-90).

Often a department chair's leadership effectiveness is judged by the virtues of how they deal with various operations concerning personnel, curriculum, and so forth. However, such leadership effectiveness may be hampered by the influence of interest groups, internal and/or

external. Whitson and Hubert (1982) examined the influences of interest groups as perceived

by department chairs in large public universities. A sample of 320 department chairs in 58 public

universities participated in Whitson and Hubert's study. The findings of this study confirmed the

influence on university and departmental functioning, particularly for those interest groups and

individuals within the university itself. This observation may not only be critical to the operation

of the department, but also to the effective functioning of the institution.

Bennett (1983) observed that:

> Department chairpersons are in the trenches of higher education. It is they who had the
> charge daily on the fields of institution and research. Unless their maneuvers on the field
> are successful, battles won elsewhere in the institution will not matter much (p. 52).

Thus, he foresaw the future roles of the department chair as an entrepreneur, a creative

custodian of standards, and as a politician.

Several other studies have examined the dimensions of leadership behavior of faculty

members in higher education institutions. Concerning the leadership behavior of faculty

members, some researchers believe that teachers are leaders or that leadership style is identical to

what has been called teaching style (Swanson, 1974), and that teacher behavior s identical to

leader behavior (Gibb, 1955). McBeath and Andrews (1960) indicated that teaching

effectiveness in the classroom is related to leadership qualities. For example, Swanson (1974)

maintained that teachers differ widely in their individual approaches to the learning process, that

these individual differences reflect differences in leadership style, and that each style can, in

turn, be related to productivity and improvement.

Senior level faculty in 28 public institutions of higher education in four states participated

in Brown's study (1973). The findings of this work revealed a strong relationship between a

superior and the leadership of that superior; there was a stronger dislike of an authoritarian

leadership style than there was a preference for democratic styles. While the professors

preferred a subordinate-centered leadership style, they did not necessarily favor the most extreme

of the transactional style; the professors stated a preference for participative decision-making as

opposed to more authoritarian styles.

Mezoff (1978) claimed that there have been several parallels between the development of

general leadership theories and teacher as leader behavior theories. He noted that personality

characteristics of leaders and teachers were equally inconclusive. Reviewing several researchers,

Mezoff observed that some dimensions of effective teaching did not correspond to leadership

consideration and structure behaviors. Among those investigated dimensions were the teacher's

ability to motivate students, the teacher's professional involvement, punctuality and neatness, the

analytic/ synthetic approach, and the area of assignments and evaluation. Mezoff further

indicated that some aspects of leadership were unique and not usually found in teaching, for

example, the interdependence of subordinates, the factor of group cohesiveness, emergent

leadership, and clearly explicit group goals.

Viewing the college classroom as a leadership situation at San Antonio College, Jabs

(1982) applied the initiating structure to one group of 66 students, and consideration to another

group of 77 students. Jabs concluded the following:

> Initiating structure or teacher centered instruction is more effective than consideration in
> the acquisition of factual knowledge or data learning, but consideration leadership is
> superior to initiating structure in the stimulation of personal development in the student
> (p. 20).

In validating the Fiedler's contingency model of leadership, Hardy (1982) attempted to

determine whether task-centered and human relation-oriented classroom teachers exhibit

different classroom behavior. In his study, 14 full-time graduate students of education at a large

eastern university were observed in teaching situations by three trained observers. The study

produced several inconclusive findings and mixed results. However, Hardy did have different

observations. For example:

> Since the low LPC [Least Preferred Co-worker] teacher is not as adept at improving
> leader-member-relations, these relations might not be as strong as in the high LPC
> teacher's classroom (p. 16).

Because the dean and the department chair are responsible for managing multiple tasks

and groups, style of leadership, style adaptability, and methods to improve interaction with

others become important. Although several theories of leadership exist in terms of task versus

behavior, Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory takes the quadrant leadership

model and expands upon it. A leader is effective only if they use the leadership style appropriate

for the readiness level of the group. Therefore, a dean or department chair will only be effective

if the appropriate leadership style is employed for the level of their college or department.

The study that follows investigates the leadership styles and style adaptability of deans

and department chairs at three Public Doctoral Research Universities-Extensive through the

application of Hersey and Blanchard's (1996) Situational Leadership Theory.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY AND RESEARCH DESIGN

The purpose of this study was to identify leadership styles and style adaptability of deans and department chairs as perceived by them at three Public Doctoral Research Universities-Extensive, as defined by the Leadership Effectiveness and Adaptability Description (LEAD) Self Instrument (Appendix A).

The Population and Sample of the Study

A selection of current deans and department chairs came from three universities located in the northwest region of the United States, Washington, Idaho, and Oregon and classified as Public Doctoral Research Universities-Extensive (Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, 2000). The sample from the population was taken as a purposive trial. A total of 100 survey packages were mailed and 84 responses were received (21 deans and 63 department chairs), for an 84% response rate. To represent a broad range of disciplines, eight deans of colleges were chosen from each of the three universities that participated in this study. Once the university deans' were selected, three department chairs from eight colleges in each university were selected randomly to receive questionnaires. If the college had less than three departments, an additional department from within the same category was chosen.

Design of the Study

This study was quantitative and of descriptive research design to investigate the leadership styles and style adaptability of deans and department chairs as perceived by them at three Public Doctoral Research Universities-Extensive. The study compared leadership styles in

terms of gender of individual participants, and examined how leadership styles may be affected by selected variables. The deans and department chairs of the three Public Doctoral Research Universities-Extensive were requested to complete a LEAD-Self Instrument and Personal Information Data Sheet sent to them by mail.

Research Questions and Hypothesis of the Study

The study was designed to answer the following questions:

1.   How do deans and department chairs perceive their leadership styles?

2.   What is the average style adaptability level among deans and department chairs?

3.   How do demographic variables (gender, discipline, experience in current position, and enrollment of the college or department), influence leadership styles and style adaptability levels of deans and department chairs?

Ho1:   There is no significant difference among leadership styles of deans as perceived by them for each of the following variables:

a.   Gender of dean

b.   Discipline

c.   Enrollment of the college

d.   Experience in current position

Ho2:   There is no significant difference among leadership styles of department chairs as perceived by them for each of the following variables:

a.   Gender of department chair

b.   Discipline

c.   Enrollment of the department

    d.   Experience in current position

Ho3:   There is no significant difference among style adaptability levels of deans as perceived by them for each of the following variables:

    a.   Gender of dean

    b.   Discipline

    c.   Enrollment of the college

    d.   Experience in current position

Ho4:   There is no significant difference among style adaptability levels of department chairs as perceived by them for each of the following variables:

    a.   Gender of department chair

    b.   Discipline

    c.   Enrollment of the department

    d.   Experience in current position

Instrumentation

Data were collected using two instruments: the Leadership Effectiveness and Adaptability Description (LEAD)-Self Instrument (Appendix A) and the Personal Information Data Sheet (Appendix B). LEAD-Self, introduced in 1974 by Hersey, Blanchard, and Johnson (1996), was the primary data collection instrument. The LEAD-Self Instrument accumulates and analyzes self-perceptions of a leader's effectiveness and adaptability..

The LEAD-Self Instrument was used in this study to evaluate behaviors displayed by deans and department chairs, as they perceive themselves. The LEAD-Self yielded four style scores and one normative adaptability score from 12 management situational questions.

Permission to use the LEAD-Self Instrument was granted by its developers, and the instrument was purchased from The Center for Leadership Studies in Escondido, California.

In addition to the LEAD-Self instrument, a demographic survey instrument called the Personal Information Data Sheet (Appendix B) was included in the survey packet to help determine appropriate factors relating to the subject's gender, years in current position, enrollment of the college and department, and any other data relevant or pertinent to the study.

The LEAD-Self Instrument consists of 12 management situations and four possible leadership style responses for each: 1) a high task–low relationship behavior; 2) a high task–high relationship behavior; 3) a high relationship–low task behavior; and 4) a low relationship–low task behavior. The respondent selects the answer that most closely matches how they think they would typically respond in a given situation.

The LEAD-Self Instrument is designed to measure self-perceptions of three dimensions of leadership behavior: 1) style; 2) style range; and 3) style adaptability. Style and style range are indicated by scores in four quadrants of the situational leadership model: quadrant 1, high task and low relationship behavior; quadrant 2, high task and high relationship behavior; quadrant 3, high relationship and low task behavior; and quadrant 4, low relationship and low task behavior. The dominant leadership style of a respondent is defined as the quadrant with the most responses on the LEAD-Self Instrument; the minimum to maximum score range for each quadrant is 0-12. A respondent's supporting style (or styles) is defined as a style they might apply on occasion. At least two responses in a quadrant are required for a style to be considered a supporting style.

The degree to which an individual's leadership behaviors are appropriate to the demands of a given situation is known as *style adaptability*. Hersey, Blanchard, and Johnson (1996) make an important distinction between style adaptability and style range:

Leaders with style adaptability can make whatever style (or styles) they use fit a given situation. People who have a narrow range can be effective over a long period of time if they remain in situations in which their style has a high probability of success, but they cannot be said to have style adaptability. Conversely, people who have a wide range of styles may be ineffective if they use a style that is not appropriate for the demands of the situation. These people, too, cannot be said to have style adaptability. Thus, a wide style range will not guarantee effectiveness; style range is not as relevant to effectiveness as style adaptability (p. 300).

Hersey and Blanchard developed a scoring procedure for style adaptability (Appendix D) that is based on theoretical principles and empirical research from the behavioral sciences. For each of the 12 situations presented in the LEAD-Self Instrument, the leadership behavior with the highest probability of success is scored a 3 and the least appropriate is scored a 0. Thus, style adaptability scores range from 0 (i.e., the highly unlikely instance in which a respondent's leadership behaviors are by no means appropriate for a given situation) to 36 (i.e., the respondent's leadership behaviors are maximally appropriate), with scores below 23 representing an ineffective ability to vary style according to leadership situations, and scores above 30 representing an effective ability to vary style according to the situation (Center for Leadership Studies, 2002).

The stability of the LEAD-Self Instrument, according to Greene (1980), is moderately strong. For example, in two administrations separated by a six-week interval, 75 percent of managers maintained their dominant style, and 71 percent maintained their supporting styles. Pre- and post- correlations for both the dominant and supporting styles were .71, and each was significant ($p < .01$) (Greene, 1980).

Validity of the Study

The results of this study as a quantitative research method can be generalized to the population of the study, with consideration given to the situations presented in the study and the individual characteristics of the participants.

Data Collection

A survey packet was mailed to the 24 deans and 76 department chairs at three Public Doctoral Research Universities-Extensive in the northwest region of the United States, more specifically Washington, Idaho, and Oregon. In addition to a pre-addressed return envelope, a cover letter was enclosed in each packet explaining the purpose of the study with appropriate instructions concerning completion of the survey. Each instrument was coded for tracking and follow-up purposes. To insure optimal participation in the study, subsequent and strategically planned contact was made with desired participants who did not return the survey package within a specified time. Two weeks after the original mailing, follow-up emails were sent to non-responding recipients requesting their help in completing the study. Two weeks later, a new survey packet was sent to the still non-responding recipients.

Data Analysis

The data accumulated from the research instrument were scored, analyzed, and statistically evaluated as they related to the research questions of this study. A two-tailed t-test was used to determine any differences on the mean scores of leadership styles and style adaptability of deans and department chairs.

An analysis of the variance comparing leadership mean scores for each of the demographic variables was used to test whether there was a significant difference between

leadership styles and style adaptability levels among deans and department chairs as perceived

by them for each of the following factors:

      a.   Gender of dean or department chair

      b.   Discipline

      c.   Enrollment of the college or department

      d.   Experience in current position

Quantitative descriptive statistics were used to find the prevalent leadership style among all

deans and department chairs at the Public Doctoral Research Universities-Extensive surveyed.

Mean scores were used to find the average style adaptability level among all deans and

department chairs at the Public Doctoral Research Universities-Extensive surveyed.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

The data collected for this study were analyzed by using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software to investigate the leadership styles and style adaptability of deans and department chairs as perceived by them at three Public Doctoral Research Universities-Extensive (Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, 2000).

The data analysis were conducted to determine if there were differences in scores within the subscales of the perceived Leadership Effectiveness Adaptability Description (LEAD)-Self Instrument at a significant level of .05. The LEAD-Self Instrument was introduced in 1974 by Hersey, Blanchard, and Johnson (1996) and provides self-perceptions of a leader's effectiveness and adaptability. The LEAD-Self Instrument consists of 12 management situations and four possible leader responses for each situation that were: 1) a high task, low relationship behavior; 2) a high task, high relationship behavior; 3) a low task, high relationship; and 4) a low task, low relationship behavior. The respondent selects the item that most closely approximates how they would typically respond in a given managerial situation. Two-tailed t-test statistical analysis was used to assess whether significant differences exist when compared the mean of scores of deans and department chairs.

The breakdown of respondents (deans and department chairs) with regard to their gender, discipline, enrollment, and experience follows in Table 1.

Table 1

Distribution of deans and department chairs regarding to their gender, discipline,
enrollment, and experience

		Deans	Department Chairs
Gender	Male	16	50
	Female	5	13
	Total	21	63
Discipline	Agriculture	2	7
	Education	3	8
	Law	3	8
	Liberal Arts	3	7
	Science	3	9
	Engineering	3	11
	Business	2	8
	Graduate Studies	2	5
	Total	21	63
Enrollment	"Small" Less than 300	2	17
	"Medium" 300-500	9	25
	"Large" Over 500	10	21
	Total	21	63
Experience	1-4 years	5	4
	5-8 years	4	18
	Over 8 years	12	41
	Total	21	63

Table 1 shows that the final sample of the study included 21 deans (16 male and 5 female) and 63 department chairs (50 male and 13 female). With regard to student enrollment, 2 colleges and 17 departments have less than 300 students; 9 colleges and 25 departments have between 300 and 500 students; and 10 colleges and 21 departments have over 500 students.

These three levels of enrollment (small, medium, and large) were dependent on two factors: Tucker's (1984) definition of "small", "medium", and "large" departments. Tucker defined a "small" department as one that has up to nine full-time faculty members, including the department chair; a "medium-sized" department was defined as one that has between 10 and 19

full-time faculty members; and a "large" department was defined as having 20 or more full-time faculty members; and second factor is the faculty-student ratio at the three doctoral comprehensive public universities that participated in this study was 1:25. Depending on these two factors, enrollment in a "small" department was 225 students (less than 300), enrollment in a "large" department was 500 students or more, and enrollment in a "medium" department was between 300 and 500.

According to experience in their current position, 5 deans and 4 department chairs have less than 4 years of experience, 4 deans and 18 chairs have 5 to 8 years of experience each, and 12 deans and 41 chairs have over 8 years of experience each.

Leadership Styles

Leadership styles of deans and department chairs are revealed through answering question one of this study: How do deans and department chairs perceive their leadership styles?

Table 2 shows the results from the LEAD-Self survey responses that were analyzed to identify the deans' and department chairs' primary leadership styles from among the four situational leadership styles: 1) *telling* – high task/low relationship behavior; 2) *selling* – high task/high relationship behavior; 3) *participating* – low task/high relationship behavior; and 4) *delegating* – low task/low relationship behavior. Both deans and department chairs selected *selling* (high task/ high relationship) as their primary leadership style with mean scores on this dimension of 5.57 and 5.63, respectively. Additionally, both groups ranked *participating* as their secondary leadership style. While deans ranked the remaining styles as *telling* and *delegating*, department chairs ranked the remaining as *delegating* and *telling*.

Table 2

Means and Standard Deviations for Deans' and Department Chairs'
LEAD-Self Quadrant Scores

	Deans (N = 21)		Department chairs (N = 63)	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Quadrant 1, high task and low relationship behavior (*telling*)	0.81	0.68	1.02	1.01
Quadrant 2, high task and high relationship behavior (*selling*)	5.57	1.29	5.63	1.47
Quadrant 3, low task and high relationship behavior (*participating*)	5.24	1.09	4.19	1.52
Quadrant 4, low task and low relationship behavior (*delegating*)	0.38	0.50	1.16	1.23

Table 3 shows the results of a two-tailed t-test for equality of means to see if there were

any significant differences between the deans' and department chairs' LEAD-Self quadrant

scores. The results show significant differences exist between the two groups in *participating*

and *delegating* as revealed by the LEAD-Self quadrant scores.

For *participating* style, the deans were (M = 5.24 ± 1.09) and the department chairs were

(M = 4.19 ± 1.52), t(82) = 2.909, p = .005; and for *delegating* style the deans were (M = .38 ±

.50) and the department chairs were (M = 1.16 ± 1.23), t(82) = -2.804, p = .006. Thus, the deans

had significantly higher scores for a *participating* style, while the department chairs had

significantly higher scores for a *delegating* style.

Table 3

t-Test for Equality of Means: Deans' and Department Chairs'
LEAD-Self Quadrant Scores

	T	df	Significance (2-tailed)
Quadrant 1, high task and low relationship behavior (*telling*)	-0.873	82	.385
Quadrant 2, high task and high relationship behavior (*selling*)	-0.176	82	.861
Quadrant 3, low task and high relationship behavior (*participating*)	2.909	82	.005*
Quadrant 4, low task and low relationship behavior (*delegating*)	-2.804	82	.006*

* p < .01

Style Adaptability

Style adaptability of deans and department chairs were revealed through answering

question two of this study: what is the average style adaptability level among deans and

department chairs?

Table 4 shows the means and standard deviations for the deans' and department chairs'

style adaptability scores on the LEAD-Self Instrument. The deans had a mean score of 29.00,

while the department chairs had a mean score of 25.57. Style adaptability scores on the LEAD-

Self Instrument can range from 0 to 36. On the basis of guidelines for interpreting style

adaptability scores suggested by Hersey, Blanchard, and Johnson (1996), the lower range of

scores, 0 to 23, indicates a need to develop the ability to diagnose task readiness, (i.e., the

situation, and to use an appropriate leadership style in response to that situation). The middle

range of scores, 24 to 29, reflects a moderate degree of adaptability. Lastly, the upper range of

scores, 30 to 36, indicates that the leader can accurately diagnose the ability and willingness of

followers in a particular situation and adjust their leadership style accordingly.

With the preceding guidelines for interpreting the style adaptability scores on the

LEAD-Self Instrument, it appears that, overall, the deans are in the middle range of scores, yet

very close to the upper range. The department chairs, on the other hand, are in the middle range

of scores.

Table 4

Means and Standard Deviations for the Deans' and Department Chairs'
Style Adaptability Scores on the LEAD-Self

	Deans (N = 21)		Department chairs (N = 63)	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Style Adaptability (Range: 0 to 36)	29.00	2.10	25.57	2.76

Table 5 shows the results of a two-tailed t-test for equality of means to determine whether

there was a significant difference between the deans' and department chairs' style adaptability

scores on the LEAD-Self Instrument. The results show significant differences between the

deans' (M = 29.00 ± 2.10) and department chairs' (M = 25.57 ± 2.76), t(82) = 5.200, p = .000

style adaptability scores on the LEAD-Self instrument. Thus, the deans had significantly higher

scores for style adaptability than the department chairs.

Table 5

t-Test for Equality of Means: Deans' and Department Chairs'
Style Adaptability Scores on the LEAD-Self

	T	df	Significance (2-tailed)
Style Adaptability (Range: 0 to 36)	5.200	82	.000*

* p<.01

Leadership Styles and Demographic Variables

Leadership styles and demographic variables of deans and department chairs are revealed through answering null hypotheses, one and two of question three. Question three was: How do demographic variables (gender, discipline, experience in current position, and enrollment of the college or department), influence leadership styles and style adaptability levels of deans and department chairs?

Leadership Styles and Demographic Variables: Deans

Ho1:   There is no significant difference among leadership styles of deans as perceived by them for each of the following variables:

a.   Gender of dean

b.   Discipline

c.   Enrollment of the college

d.   Experience in current position

Means and standard deviations, and a one-way analysis of variance were used to test these variables. Means and standard deviations for deans, both male and female, are presented in Table 6, and the ANOVA Summary data are presented in Table 7. The result of the study fails to reject part "a" of null hypothesis Number 1; there is insufficient evidence to show that a significant difference exists between the leadership styles among male and female deans.

Table 6

Means and Standard Deviations for the Deans (male, female) on
LEAD-Self Quadrant Scores

	Male (N = 16)		Female (N = 5)	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Quadrant 1, high task and low relationship behavior (*telling*)	0.69	0.70	1.20	.45
Quadrant 2, high task and high relationship behavior (*selling*)	5.81	1.11	4.80	1.64
Quadrant 3, low task and high relationship behavior (*participating*)	5.19	0.83	5.40	1.82
Quadrant 4, low task and low relationship behavior (*delegating*)	.32	.48	.60	.55

Table 7

ANOVA Summary Table for the Deans' Gender (male, female) on
LEAD-Self Quadrant Scores

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Quadrant 1, high task and low relationship behavior (*telling*)	Between Groups	1.001	1	1.001	2.308	.145
	Within Groups	8.238	19	.434		
	Total	9.238	20			
Quadrant 2, high task and high relationship behavior (*selling*)	Between Groups	3.905	1	3.905	2.538	.128
	Within Groups	29.238	19	1.539		
	Total	33.143	20			
Quadrant 3, low task and high relationship behavior (*participating*)	Between Groups	.172	1	.172	.138	.714
	Within Groups	23.638	19	1.244		
	Total	23.810	20			
Quadrant 4, low task and low relationship behavior (*delegating*)	Between Groups	.315	1	.315	1.290	.270
	Within Groups	4.637	19	.244		
	Total	4.952	20			

Regarding discipline, means and standard deviations are presented in Table 8 and the

ANOVA Summary data were presented in Table 9. The results of the study reject part "b" of null

hypothesis Number 1; a significant difference exists between *delegating* leadership style among

deans and their discipline (F (7, 20) = 2.741, p = .050). To assess pair wise differences among

the levels of discipline for the *delegating* leadership style, the Fischers LSD procedures (p = .05)

were performed (Table 10). The results indicated that Agriculture (M = 1.00) differ significantly

from all of Law (M = 0.00), Engineering (M = 0.00), and Business (M = 0.00). In addition, Law

(M = 0.00) differs significantly from Graduate Studies (M = 1.00). Engineering (M = 0.00)

differs significantly from Graduate Studies (M = 1.00), and Business (M = 0.00) differs

significantly from Graduate Studies (M = 1.00).

Table 8

Means and Standard Deviations for the Deans' LEAD-Self Quadrant Scores
Regarding Discipline

		Agriculture	Education	Law	Liberal Arts	Sciences	Engineering	Business	Graduate Studies
Quadrant 1, high task and low relationship behavior (*telling*)	N	2	3	3	3	3	3	2	2
	M	1.00	.67	1.00	.67	1.33	1.00	.00	.50
	SD	.00	.58	.00	1.15	.58	1.00	.00	.71
Quadrant 2, high task and high relationship behavior (*selling*)	N	2	3	3	3	3	3	2	2
	M	5.50	5.33	6.00	6.00	5.67	4.33	6.50	5.50
	SD	.71	1.15	1.00	1.73	1.53	1.53	.71	2.12
Quadrant 3, low task and high relationship behavior (*participating*)	N	2	3	3	3	3	3	2	2
	M	4.50	5.67	5.00	5.00	4.33	6.67	5.50	5.00
	SD	.71	1.53	1.00	.00	1.15	.58	.71	1.41
Quadrant 4, low task and low relationship behavior (*delegating*)	N	2	3	3	3	3	3	2	2
	M	1.00	.33	.00	.33	.67	.00	.00	1.00
	SD	.00	.58	.00	.58	.58	.00	.00	.00

N: Number of Deans
M: Mean
SD: Standard Deviation

Table 9

ANOVA Summary Table for the Deans' Discipline on
LEAD-Self Quadrant Scores

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Quadrant 1, high task and low relationship behavior (*telling*)	Between Groups	2.738	7	.391	.782	.614
	Within Groups	6.500	13	.500		
	Total	9.238	20			
Quadrant 2, high task and high relationship behavior (*selling*)	Between Groups	7.643	7	1.092	.557	.778
	Within Groups	25.500	13	1.962		
	Total	33.143	20			
Quadrant 3, low task and high relationship behavior (*participating*)	Between Groups	10.810	7	1.544	1.544	.237
	Within Groups	13.000	13	1.000		
	Total	23.810	20			
Quadrant 4, low task and low relationship behavior (*delegating*)	Between Groups	2.952	7	.422	2.741	.050*
	Within Groups	2.000	13	.154		
	Total	4.952	20			

* $p < .05$

Table 10

Fischers LSD Multiple Comparisons for the Deans' LEAD-Self Quadrant Scores
(*Delegating*) Regarding Their Discipline

Disciplines	Agriculture	Education	Law	Liberal Arts	Sciences	Engineering	Business	Graduate Studies
Agriculture	-	.085	.015*	.085	.369	.015*	.024*	1.00
Education	.085	-	.317	1.00	.317	.317	.369	.085
Law	.015*	.317	-	.317	.058	1.00	1.00	.015*
Liberal Arts	.085	1.00	.317	-	.317	.317	.369	.085
Sciences	.369	.317	.058	.317	-	.058	.085	.369
Engineering	.015*	.317	1.00	.317	.058	-	1.00	.015*
Business	.024*	.369	1.00	.369	.085	1.00	-	.024*
Graduate Studies	1.00	.085	.015*	.085	.369	.015*	.024*	-

* $p < .05$

Regarding enrollment for the deans' colleges, means and standard deviations are

presented in Table 11 and the ANOVA Summary data are presented in Table 12. The results of

the study fail to reject part "c" of null hypothesis number 1; there is insufficient evidence to

show that a significant difference exists between the leadership styles among deans based

upon enrollment of their colleges.

Table 11

Means and Standard Deviations for the Deans' LEAD-Self Quadrant Scores
Regarding Enrollment

		"Small" less 300	"Medium" 300-500	"Large" more 500
Quadrant 1, high task and low relationship behavior (*telling*)	N	2	9	10
	M	.50	.67	1.00
	SD	.71	.50	.82
Quadrant 2, high task and high relationship behavior (*selling*)	N	2	9	10
	M	6.50	5.56	5.40
	SD	.71	1.13	1.51
Quadrant 3, low task and high relationship behavior (*participating*)	N	2	9	10
	M	4.50	5.44	5.20
	SD	.71	1.01	1.23
Quadrant 4, low task and low relationship behavior (*delegating*)	N	2	9	10
	M	.50	.33	.40
	SD	.71	.50	.52

N: Number of Deans
M: Mean
SD: Standard Deviation

Table 12

ANOVA Summary Table for the Deans' LEAD-Self Quadrant Scores
Regarding Enrollment

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Quadrant 1, high task and low relationship behavior (telling)	Between Groups	.738	2	.369	.782	.473
	Within Groups	8.500	18	.472		
	Total	9.238	20			
Quadrant 2, high task and high relationship behavior (selling)	Between Groups	2.021	2	1.010	.584	.568
	Within Groups	31.122	18	1.729		
	Total	33.143	20			
Quadrant 3, low task and high relationship behavior (participating)	Between Groups	1.487	2	.744	.600	.560
	Within Groups	22.322	18	1.240		
	Total	23.810	20			
Quadrant 4, low task and low relationship behavior (delegating)	Between Groups	5.238E-02	2	2.619E-02	.096	.909
	Within Groups	4.900	18	.272		
	Total	4.952	20			

Regarding deans' experience in their current positions, means and standard deviations are presented in Table 13 and the ANOVA Summary data are presented in Table 14. The results of the study fail to reject part "d" of null hypothesis number 1; there is insufficient evidence to show that a significant difference exists between the leadership styles among deans and their experience in their current position.

Table 13

Means and Standard Deviations for the Deans' LEAD-Self Quadrant Scores
Regarding Experience in Their Current Position

		1-4 years	5-8 years	Over 8 years
Quadrant 1, high task and low relationship behavior (*telling*)	N	5	4	12
	M	.60	.50	1.00
	SD	.55	.58	.74
Quadrant 2, high task and high relationship behavior (*selling*)	N	5	4	12
	M	6.00	6.50	5.08
	SD	1.22	.58	1.31
Quadrant 3, low task and high relationship behavior (*participating*)	N	5	4	12
	M	4.80	5.00	5.50
	SD	1.30	.82	1.09
Quadrant 4, low task and low relationship behavior (*delegating*)	N	5	4	12
	M	.60	.00	.42
	SD	.55	.00	.51

N: Number of Deans
M: Mean
SD: Standard Deviation

Table 14

ANOVA Summary for the Deans' LEAD-Self Quadrant Scores
Regarding Experience in Their Current Position

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Quadrant 1, high task and low relationship behavior (*telling*)	Between Groups	1.038	2	.519	1.139	.342
	Within Groups	8.200	18	.456		
	Total	9.238	20			
Quadrant 2, high task and high relationship behavior (*selling*)	Between Groups	7.226	2	3.613	2.509	.109
	Within Groups	25.917	18	1.440		
	Total	33.143	20			
Quadrant 3, low task and high relationship behavior (*participating*)	Between Groups	2.010	2	1.005	.830	.452
	Within Groups	21.800	18	1.211		
	Total	23.810	20			
Quadrant 4, low task and low relationship behavior (*delegating*)	Between Groups	.836	2	.418	1.827	.189
	Within Groups	4.117	18	.229		
	Total	4.952	20			

Leadership Styles and Demographic Variables: Department Chairs

Ho2:   There is no significant difference among leadership styles of department chairs as

perceived by them for each of the following variables:

a.   Gender of department chair

b.   Discipline

c.   Enrollment of the department

d.   Experience in current position

Regarding gender, means and standard deviations are presented in Table 15 and the

ANOVA Summary data is presented in Table 16. Part "a" of null hypothesis number 2 is

rejected; a significant difference exists between the leadership styles of male and female

department chairs in *telling* (F (1, 62) = 11.645, p = .001), *participating* (F (1, 62) = 7.216, p =

.009), and *delegating* (F (1, 62) = 5.618, p = .021). The results indicated that male department

chairs differ significantly from women department chairs in *telling* (M = 1.22 for men, M =

0.23 for women), and *delegating* (M = 1.34 for men, M= 0.46 for women). However, women

differ significantly from men in *participating* (M = 5.15 for women, M = 3.94 for men).

Table 15

Means and Standard Deviations for the Department Chairs' (male, female) on
LEAD-Self Quadrant Scores

	Male (N = 50)		Female (N = 13)	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Quadrant 1, high task and low relationship behavior (*telling*)	1.22	1.02	0.23	0.44
Quadrant 2, high task and high relationship behavior (*selling*)	5.50	1.49	6.15	1.34
Quadrant 3, low task and high relationship behavior (*participating*)	3.94	1.50	5.15	1.21
Quadrant 4, low task and low relationship behavior (*delegating*)	1.34	1.30	.46	.52

Table 16

ANOVA Summary Table for the Department Chairs' Gender (male, female) on
LEAD-Self Quadrant Scores

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Quadrant 1, high task and low relationship behavior (*telling*)	Between Groups	10.096	1	10.096	11.645	.001*
	Within Groups	52.888	61	.867		
	Total	62.984	62			
Quadrant 2, high task and high relationship behavior (*selling*)	Between Groups	4.411	1	4.411	2.067	.156
	Within Groups	130.192	61	2.134		
	Total	134.603	62			
Quadrant 3, low task and high relationship behavior (*participating*)	Between Groups	15.202	1	15.202	7.216	.009*
	Within Groups	128.512	61	2.107		
	Total	143.714	62			
Quadrant 4, low task and low relationship behavior (*delegating*)	Between Groups	7.962	1	7.962	5.618	.021*
	Within Groups	86.451	61	1.417		
	Total	94.413	62			

* P< .05

Regarding discipline, means and standard deviations are presented in Table 17 and the

ANOVA Summary data is presented in Table 18. The results of the study reject part "b" of null

hypothesis number 2; a significant difference exists between the leadership styles *selling* ($F_{(7, 62)}$ = 2.89, p = .012), *participating* ($F_{(7, 62)}$= 4.581, p = .000) and *delegating* ($F_{(7, 62)}$ = 3.527, p = .003) among department chairs based upon their discipline. To assess pair wise

differences among the levels of discipline for the *selling*, *participating*, and *delegating* leadership

styles, the Fischers' LSD procedures (p = .05) were performed.

Table 17

Means and Standard Deviations for the Department Chairs' LEAD-Self Quadrant
Scores Regarding Discipline

		Agriculture	Education	Law	Liberal Arts	Sciences	Engineering	Business	Graduate Studies
Quadrant 1, high task and low relationship behavior (*telling*)	N	7	8	8	7	9	11	8	5
	M	1.29	.63	.88	1.00	1.22	1.27	.75	1.00
	SD	.95	.52	.64	1.00	.97	1.19	1.16	1.73
Quadrant 2, high task and high relationship behavior (*selling*)	N	7	8	8	7	9	11	8	5
	M	5.86	5.63	5.13	6.14	4.00	6.18	6.25	6.20
	SD	.69	1.41	.99	1.35	1.41	1.54	1.67	1.10
Quadrant 3, low task and high relationship behavior (*participating*)	N	7	8	8	7	9	11	8	5
	M	4.43	5.50	3.75	4.43	5.33	2.73	3.88	3.80
	SD	.53	1.51	2.12	1.13	1.22	1.10	.83	1.10
Quadrant 4, low task and low relationship behavior (*delegating*)	N	7	8	8	7	9	11	8	5
	M	.43	.25	2.25	.43	1.44	1.82	1.13	1.00
	SD	.53	.46	1.91	.53	1.24	.98	1.36	.00

N: Number of Department Chairs
M: Mean
SD: Standard Deviation

Table 18

ANOVA Summary Table for the Department Chairs' Discipline
LEAD-Self Quadrant Scores

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Quadrant 1, high task and low relationship behavior (*telling*)	Between Groups	3.568	7	.510	.472	.851
	Within Groups	59.416	55	1.080		
	Total	62.984	62			
Quadrant 2, high task and high relationship behavior (*selling*)	Between Groups	36.203	7	5.172	2.891	.012*
	Within Groups	98.401	55	1.789		
	Total	134.603	62			
Quadrant 3, low task and high relationship behavior (*participating*)	Between Groups	52.929	7	7.561	4.581	.000*
	Within Groups	90.785	55	1.651		
	Total	143.714	62			
Quadrant 4, low task and low relationship behavior (*delegating*)	Between Groups	29.251	7	4.179	3.527	.003*
	Within Groups	65.162	55	1.185		
	Total	94.413	62			

* $P < .01$

Regarding *selling* leadership style, the results in (Table 19) indicated that Agriculture (M = 5.86) differ significantly from Science (M = 4.00). Education (M = 5.63) differs significantly from Science (M = 4.00). Liberal Arts (M = 6.14) differ significantly from Science (M = 4.00). Science (M = 4.00) differs significantly from all of Engineering (M = 6.18), Business (M = 6.25), and Graduate Studies (M = 6.20).

Table 19

Fischers LSD Multiple Comparisons for the Department Chairs' LEAD-Self Quadrant Scores
(*selling*) regarding their discipline

Disciplines	Agriculture	Education	Law	Liberal Arts	Sciences	Engineering	Business	Graduate Studies
Agriculture	-	.739	.295	.691	.008*	.618	.573	.663
Education	.739	-	.458	.458	.015*	.374	.354	.454
Law	.295	.458	-	.147	.089	.095	.098	.164
Liberal Arts	.691	.458	.147	-	.002*	.952	.878	.942
Sciences	.008*	.015*	.089	.002*	-	.001*	.001*	.005*
Engineering	.618	.374	.095	.952	.001*	-	.913	.980
Business	.573	.354	.098	.878	.001*	.913	-	.948
Graduate Studies	.663	.454	.164	.942	.005*	.980	.948	-

* $p < .05$

Regarding *participating* leadership style, the results in (Table 20) indicated that

Agriculture (M = 4.43) differ significantly from Engineering (M = 2.73). Education (M = 5.50)

differs significantly from all of Law (M = 3.75), Engineering (M = 2.73), Business (M = 3.88),

and Graduate Studies (M = 3.80). Law (M = 3.75) differs significantly from Science (M = 5.33).

Liberal Arts (M = 4.43) differ significantly from Engineering (M = 2.73). Science (M = 3.88)

differs significantly from all of Engineering (M = 2.73), Business (M = 3.88), and Graduate

Studies (M = 3.80).

Table 20

Fischers LSD Multiple Comparisons for the Department Chairs' LEAD-Self Quadrant Scores
(*participating*) regarding their discipline

Disciplines	Agriculture	Education	Law	Liberal Arts	Sciences	Engineering	Business	Graduate Studies
Agriculture	-	.113	.312	1.00	.168	.008*	.409	.407
Education	.113	-	.009*	.113	.790	.000*	.014*	.024*
Law	.312	.009*	-	.312	.014*	.092	.846	.946
Liberal Arts	1.00	.113	.312	-	.168	.008*	.409	.407
Sciences	.168	.790	.014*	.168	-	.000*	.023*	.037*
Engineering	.008*	.000*	.092	.008*	.000*	-	.060	.127
Business	.409	.014*	.846	.409	.023*	.060	-	.919
Graduate Studies	.407	.024*	.946	.407	.037*	.127	.919	-

* $p < .05$

Regarding *delegating* leadership style, the results in (Table 21) indicated that Agriculture

(M = .43) differs significantly from both of Law (M = 2.25), and Engineering (M = 1.82).

Education (M = .25) differs significantly from all of Law (M = 2.25), Science (M = 1.44), and

Engineering (M = 1.82). Law (M = 2.55) differs significantly from all of Liberal Arts (M = .43),

Business (M = 1.13), and Graduate Studies (M = 1.00). Liberal Arts (M = .43) differ

significantly from Engineering (M = 1.82).

Table 21

Fischers LSD Multiple Comparisons for the Department Chairs' LEAD-Self Quadrant Scores
(*delegating*) regarding their discipline

Disciplines	Agriculture	Education	Law	Liberal Arts	Sciences	Engineering	Business	Graduate Studies
Agriculture	-	.752	.002*	1.00	.069	.011*	.222	.374
Education	.752	-	.001*	.752	.028*	.003*	.114	.232
Law	.002*	.001*	-	.002*	.133	.397	.043*	.049
Liberal Arts	1.00	.752	.002*	-	.069	.011*	.222	.374
Sciences	.069	.028*	.133	.069	-	.448	.548	.467
Engineering	.011*	.003*	.397	.011*	.448	-	.176	.169
Business	.222	.114	.043*	.222	.548	.176	-	.841
Graduate Studies	.374	.232	.049*	.374	.467	.169	.841	-

* p< .05

Regarding department enrollment, the means and standard deviations are presented in

Table 22 and the ANOVA Summary data are presented in Table 23. The results of the study

reject part "c" of null hypothesis Number 2; a significant difference exists between the leadership

styles of *participating* (F (2, 62) = 3.032, p = .05), *delegating* (F (2, 62) = 4.641, p = .013)

among department chairs based upon their departments' enrollment. To assess pair wise

differences among the levels of disciplines for the *participating* and *delegating* leadership styles,

the Fischers LSD procedures (p = .05) was performed (Table 24).

Regarding *participating* leadership style, the results indicated that departments with small

enrollment (M = 3.53) differ significantly from departments with large enrollments (M = 4.71).

Regarding *delegating* leadership style, the results indicated that departments with small

enrollment (M = 1.88) differ significantly from departments with medium (M = .80) and large

enrollment (M = 1.00).

Table 22

Means and Standard Deviations for the Department Chairs' LEAD-Self Quadrant
Scores Regarding Enrollment

		"Small" less 300	"Medium" 300-500	"Large" more 500
Quadrant 1, high task and low relationship behavior (*telling*)	N	17	25	21
	M	.82	.96	1.24
	SD	.81	1.06	1.09
Quadrant 2, high task and high relationship behavior (*selling*)	N	17	25	21
	M	5.76	6.04	5.05
	SD	1.30	1.37	1.60
Quadrant 3, low task and high relationship behavior (*participating*)	N	17	25	21
	M	3.53	4.20	4.71
	SD	1.28	1.41	1.68
Quadrant 4, low task and low relationship behavior (*delegating*)	N	17	25	21
	M	1.88	.80	1.00
	SD	1.36	1.08	1.10

N: Number of Deans
M: Mean
SD: Standard Deviation

Table 23

ANOVA Summary Table for the Department Chairs' on LEAD-Self Quadrant Scores
Regarding Enrollment

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Quadrant 1, high task and low relationship behavior (*telling*)	Between Groups	1.744	2	.872	.854	.431
	Within Groups	61.240	60	1.021		
	Total	62.984	62			
Quadrant 2, high task and high relationship behavior (*selling*)	Between Groups	11.632	2	5.816	2.838	.066
	Within Groups	122.971	60	2.050		
	Total	134.603	62			
Quadrant 3, low task and high relationship behavior (*participating*)	Between Groups	13.193	2	6.597	3.032	.056*
	Within Groups	130.521	60	2.175		
	Total	143.714	62			
Quadrant 4, low task and low relationship behavior (*delegating*)	Between Groups	12.648	2	6.324	4.641	.013*
	Within Groups	81.765	60	1.363		
	Total	94.413	62			

* $P < .05$

Table 24

Fischers LSD Multiple Comparisons for the Department Chairs' LEAD-Self Quadrant
Scores (*participating* and *delegating*) Regarding Enrollment

		"Small" less 300	"Medium" 300-500	"Large" more 500
Quadrant 3, low task and high relationship behavior (*participating*)	"Small" less 300	-	.153	.017*
	"Medium" 300-500	.153	-	.243
	"Large" more 500	.017*	.243	-
Quadrant 4, low task and low relationship behavior (*delegating*)	"Small" less 300	-	.005*	.024*
	"Medium" 300-500	.005*	-	.565
	"Large" more 500	.024*	.565	-

* P< .05

Regarding department chairs' experience in their current positions, the means and standard deviations are presented in Table 25 and the ANOVA Summary data are presented in Table 26. The results of the study reject part "d" of null hypothesis Number 2; a significant difference exists between the leadership styles of *participating* ($F(2, 62) = 3.257$, $p = .045$) among department chairs based upon experience in their current position. Finding a significant relationship existed, Fischers LSD procedures found a difference (Table 27) regarding *participating* leadership style. The results indicated that department chairs with 5 to 8 years of experience ($M = 3.56$) differ significantly from department chairs with over 8 years of experience ($M = 4.54$).

Table 25

Means and Standard Deviations for the Department Chairs' on LEAD-Self
Quadrant Scores Regarding Experience in Their Current Position

		1-4 years	5-8 years	Over 8 years
Quadrant 1, high task and low relationship behavior (*telling*)	N	4	18	41
	M	.50	1.11	1.02
	SD	.58	1.23	.94
Quadrant 2, high task and high relationship behavior (*selling*)	N	4	18	41
	M	6.75	5.89	5.41
	SD	.96	1.13	1.60
Quadrant 3, low task and high relationship behavior (*participating*)	N	4	18	41
	M	3.50	2.56	4.54
	SD	2.08	1.34	1.47
Quadrant 4, low task and low relationship behavior (*delegating*)	N	4	18	41
	M	1.25	1.44	1.02
	SD	.96	1.29	1.23

N: Number of Deans
M: Mean
SD: Standard Deviation

Table 26

ANOVA Summary for the Department Chairs' LEAD-Self Quadrant Scores
Regarding Experience In Their Current Position

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Quadrant 1, high task and low relationship behavior (*telling*)	Between Groups	1.231	2	.615	.598	.553
	Within Groups	61.753	60	1.029		
	Total	62.984	62			
Quadrant 2, high task and high relationship behavior (*selling*)	Between Groups	8.124	2	4.062	1.927	.154
	Within Groups	126.479	60	2.108		
	Total	134.603	62			
Quadrant 3, low task and high relationship behavior (*participating*)	Between Groups	14.075	2	7.037	3.257	.045*
	Within Groups	129.640	60	2.161		
	Total	143.714	62			
Quadrant 4, low task and low relationship behavior (*delegating*)	Between Groups	2.243	2	1.121	.730	.486
	Within Groups	92.170	60	1.536		
	Total	94.413	62			

* $p < .05$

Table 27

Fischers LSD Multiple Comparisons for the Department Chairs' on LEAD-Self
Quadrant Scores (*participating*) Regarding Experience In Their Current Position

		1-4 years	5-8 years	Over 8 years
Quadrant 3, low task and high relationship behavior (*participating*)	1-4 years	-	.946	.183
	5-8 years	.946	-	.022*
	Over 8 years	.183	.022*	-

* p<.05

Style Adaptability and Demographic Variables

Style adaptability and demographic variables of deans and department chairs are revealed through answering null hypotheses three and four of question three: How do demographic variables (gender, discipline, experience in current position, and enrollment of the college or department), influence leadership styles and style adaptability levels of deans and department chairs?

Style Adaptability and Demographic Variables: Deans

Ho3: There is no significant difference among style adaptability levels of deans as perceived by them for each of the following variables:

a. Gender of dean

b. Discipline

c. Enrollment of the college

d. Experience in current position

Regarding gender, the means and standard deviations are presented in Table 28 and the ANOVA Summary data are presented in Table 29. The results of the study fail to reject part "a"

of null hypothesis Number 3; no significant difference exists between the style adaptability

levels among male and female deans.

Table 28

Means and Standard Deviations for the Deans' style
Adaptability Levels Regarding Their Gender

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Male	16	29.31	1.99
Female	5	28.00	2.35
Total	21	29.00	2.10

Table 29

ANOVA Summary for the Deans' Style Adaptability Levels
Regarding Their Gender

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	6.563	1	6.563	1.531	.231
Within Groups	81.438	19	4.286		
Total	88.000	20			

Regarding discipline, the means and standard deviations are presented in Table 30 and

the ANOVA Summary data are presented in Table 31. The results of the study fail to reject part

"b" of null hypothesis Number 3; no significant difference exists between style adaptability

levels among deans regarding their discipline.

Table 30

Means and Standard Deviations for the Deans' Style Adaptability Levels
Regarding Their Discipline

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Agriculture	2	31.50	.71
Education	3	29.67	.58
Law	3	28.00	1.00
Liberal arts	3	29.33	3.21
Science	3	30.33	2.52
Engineering	3	27.00	1.73
Business	2	28.50	.71
Graduate	2	28.00	2.83
Total	21	29.00	2.10

Table 31

ANOVA Summary for the Deans' Style Adaptability Levels
Regarding Their Discipline

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	37.000	7	5.286	1.347	.305
Within Groups	51.000	13	3.923		
Total	88.000	20			

Regarding college enrollment, the means and standard deviations are presented in Table 32 and the ANOVA Summary data are presented in Table 33. The results of the study fail to reject part "c" of null hypothesis number 3; no significant difference exists between style adaptability levels among deans regarding to their college enrollment.

Table 32

Means and Standard Deviations for the Deans' Style Adaptability Levels
Regarding their college enrollment

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
"Small" less 300	2	29.00	1.41
"Medium" 300-500	9	28.67	1.87
"Large" more 500	10	29.30	2.50
Total	21	29.00	2.10

Table 33

ANOVA Summary for the Deans' Style Adaptability Levels
Regarding their college enrollment

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1.900	2	.950	.199	.822
Within Groups	86.100	18	4.783		
Total	88.000	20			

Regarding experience in their current position, the means and standard deviations are

presented in Table 34 and the ANOVA Summary data are presented in Table 35. The results of

the study fail to reject part "d" of null hypothesis Number 3; no significant difference exists

between style adaptability levels among deans regarding their experience in their current

position.

Table 34

Means and Standard Deviations for the Deans' Style Adaptability Levels
Regarding their experience

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
1-4 years	5	28.00	1.58
5-8 years	4	28.50	.58
Over 8 years	12	29.58	2.47
Total	21	29.00	2.10

Table 35

ANOVA Summary for the Deans' Style Adaptability Levels
Regarding their experience

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	14.403	2	7.202	1.661	.221
Within Groups	69.386	16	4.337		
Total	83.789	18			

Leadership Adaptability and Demographic Variables: Department Chairs

Ho4:   There is no significant difference among style adaptability levels of department chairs as

perceived by them for each of the following variables:

a.   Gender of department chair

b.   Discipline

c.   Enrollment of the department

d.   Experience in current position

Regarding gender, the means and standard deviations are presented in Table 36 and the

ANOVA Summary data are presented in Table 37. The results of the study fail to reject part "a"

of null hypothesis Number 4; no significant difference exists between style adaptability levels

among male and female department chairs.

Table 36

Means And Standard Deviations For The Department Chairs' Style Adaptability
Levels Regarding Their Gender

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Male	50	25.42	2.71
Female	13	26.15	3.00
Total	63	25.57	2.76

Table 37

ANOVA Summary for the Department Chairs' Style Adaptability
Levels Regarding Their Gender

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	5.556	1	5.556	.724	.398
Within Groups	467.872	61	7.670		
Total	473.429	62			

Regarding discipline, the means and standard deviations are presented in Table 38 and the ANOVA Summary data are presented in Table 39. The results of the study fail to reject part "b" of null hypothesis Number 4; no significant difference exists between the style adaptability levels among department chairs based upon their discipline.

Table 38

Means and Standard Deviations for the Department Chairs' Style
Adaptability Levels Regarding their Discipline

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Agriculture	7	28.29	1.98
Education	8	24.75	3.45
Law	8	25.25	2.96
Liberal arts	7	26.14	2.27
Science	9	23.78	3.11
Engineering	11	25.82	1.78
Business	8	25.88	1.25
Graduate	5	25.00	3.94
Total	63	25.57	2.76

Table 39

ANOVA Summary for the Department Chairs' Style Adaptability
Levels Regarding Their Discipline

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	92.076	7	13.154	1.897	.088
Within Groups	381.353	55	6.934		
Total	473.429	62			

Regarding department enrollment, the means and standard deviations are presented in Table 40 and the ANOVA Summary data are presented in Table 41. The results of the study fail to reject part "c" of null hypothesis Number 4; there is insufficient evidence to show that a

significant difference exists between the style adaptability Levels among department chairs

based upon department enrollment.

Table 40

Means and Standard Deviations for the Department Chairs'
Style Adaptability Levels Regarding Their Department Enrollment

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Small less 300	17	26.18	2.96
Medium 300-500	25	25.32	2.38
Large more 500	21	25.38	3.07
Total	63	25.57	2.76

Table 41

ANOVA Summary for the Department Chairs' Style Adaptability
Levels Regarding Their Department Enrollment

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	8.566	2	4.283	.553	.578
Within Groups	464.863	60	7.748		
Total	473.429	62			

Regarding department chairs' experience in their current positions, means and standard

deviations are presented in Table 42 and the ANOVA Summary data are presented in Table 43.

The results of the study reject part "d" of null hypothesis Number 4; there is insufficient

evidence to show that a significant difference exists between style adaptability Levels among

department chairs based upon experience in their current position.

Table 42

Means and Standard Deviations for the Department Chairs' Style
Adaptability Levels Regarding Their Experience in Current Position

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
1-4 years	4	25.75	3.30
5-8 years	18	24.78	3.39
Over 8 years	41	25.90	2.40
Total	63	25.57	2.76

Table 43

ANOVA Summary for the Department Chairs' Style Adaptability Levels
Regarding Their Experience in Current Position

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	15.958	2	7.979	1.046	.357
Within Groups	457.471	60	7.625		
Total	473.429	62			

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

This study was designed to identify the leadership styles and style adaptability as defined by the Leadership Effectiveness and Adaptability Description (LEAD) Self Instrument, of deans and department chairs at three Public Doctoral Research Universities-Extensive (Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, 2000) in the northwest region of the United States. The study compared these factors in terms of gender of individual participants and examined how these factors may be affected by selected demographic factors.

Summary

This study would make available useful information about the leadership styles and style adaptability of deans and department chairs at three Public Doctoral Research Universities-Extensive, information based upon the perceptions of their leadership styles by as provided by the deans and department chairs. The Leadership Effectiveness and Adaptability Description (Appendix A) and the Personal Information Data Sheet (Appendix B) were used to conduct this study. The LEAD-Self survey is a validated research instrument of leadership styles. Permission to use the LEAD-Self instrument was granted by its developers (Appendix F), and the instrument was purchased from The Center for Leadership Studies in Escondido, California. The Personal Information Data Sheet was developed to obtain demographic data for comparison. The LEAD-Self Instrument and the personal information data sheet were mailed to the 24 deans and 76 department chairs at three Public Doctoral Research Universities-Extensive in the northwest region of the United States, more specifically, Washington, Idaho, and Oregon. In addition to a

pre-addressed return envelope, cover letter (Appendix E) was enclosed in each packet

explaining the purpose of the study with appropriate instructions concerning completion of the

survey.

The LEAD instrument surveys were scored and analyzed based upon directions provided

by The Center for Leadership Studies (2000). The results and information garnered from the

personal information data sheets were statistically analyzed using the Statistical Package for

Social Sciences (SPSS) software.

Three research questions and four hypotheses were stated in this study. The questions and

hypotheses were:

Research Question 1: How do deans and department chairs perceive their leadership styles?

Research Question 2: What is the average style adaptability level among deans and department

chairs?

Research Question 3: How do demographic variables (gender, discipline, experience in current

position, and enrollment of the college or department), influence leadership styles and

style adaptability levels of deans and department chairs?

Null Hypothesis 1: There is no significant difference among leadership styles of deans

as perceived by them for each of the following variables:

a. Gender of dean

b. Discipline

c. Enrollment of the college

d. Experience in current position

Null Hypothesis 2: There is no significant difference among leadership styles of

department chairs as perceived by them for each of the following variables:

a.   Gender of department chair

b.   Discipline

c.   Enrollment of the department

d.   Experience in current position

Null Hypothesis 3:   There is no significant difference among style adaptability levels

of deans as perceived by them for each of the following variables:

a.   Gender of dean

b.   Discipline

c.   Enrollment of the college

d.   Experience in current position

Null Hypothesis 4:   There is no significant difference among style adaptability levels

of department chairs as perceived by them for each of the following variables:

a.   Gender of department chair

b.   Discipline

c.   Enrollment of the department

d.   Experience in current position

Conclusions

Deans and department chairs are responsible for managing multiple tasks and groups,

therefore, style of leadership, style adaptability, and methods to improve interaction with others

become important. Although several theories of leadership exist in terms of task versus behavior,

Hersey and Blanchard's (1977) Situational Leadership Theory takes the quadrant leadership

model and expands upon it. A leader is effective only if they use the leadership style appropriate

for the readiness level of the group. Therefore, a dean or department chair will only be effective if the appropriate leadership style is employed for the level of their college or department.

With regard to leadership style, both deans and department chairs selected *selling* (high task/high relationship behavior) as their primary leadership style, and selected *participating* as their secondary style. With *selling* as the main category of leadership style, deans and department chairs appear to acquire the acceptance of their faculty and staff and carryout the behaviors most wanted or needed by them. The followers in this of style are confident and willing to take responsibility but are unable to do because of a lack of expertise (Center for Leadership Studies, Inc., 2002).

Regarding style adaptability, deans and department chairs fell in the middle range of scores. According to the Center for Leadership Studies, Inc. (2002), the middle range reflects "…a moderate degree of adaptability. Scores in this range usually indicate a pronounced primary leadership style with less flexibility into the secondary styles" (Center for Leadership Studies, Inc., 2002).

Based upon the findings of this study, it could be concluded that leadership styles of deans are not significantly affected by demographic factors. There was insufficient evidence to show that a significant difference exists for leadership styles among deans as perceived by them, with the exception of their discipline; there was however sufficient evidence that a significant difference exists between *delegating* leadership style among deans based upon their discipline.

Contrary to deans' leadership style, it could be concluded that the leadership styles of department chairs are affected by demographic factors. The results of this study indicated that male department chairs used *telling* and *delegating* leadership styles more than female

department chairs, while female department chairs used *participating* more than male. This difference between male and female department chairs leadership styles reflects the changing criteria for modern leaders. Glaser and Smalley (1995) found that women are now uniquely equipped to contribute to the new work climate because of their natural leadership tendencies. These characteristics include: having a positive attitude, solid job knowledge, a personal touch, generosity, a sense of direction, consistency, flexibility/ adaptability, open-mindedness, trustworthiness/ reliability, firmness/ decisiveness, a sense of humor, strength/ confidence, visibility/ accessibility, and ability to motivate.

A significant difference exists between the leadership styles of *selling*, *participating*, and *delegating* among department chairs based upon their discipline. A significant difference was found to exist between the leadership styles of *participating* and *delegating* among department chairs based upon their departments' enrollment. A significant difference exists between the leadership styles of *participating* among department chairs based upon experience in their current position. Professional and organizational development in communication, decision-making, and problem solving abilities improve the quality of decisions made at college and department level.

Findings of this study indicated that that style adaptability levels of deans and department chairs at the three Public Doctoral Research Universities-Extensive evaluated for this study are not significantly affected by demographic factors. There was insufficient evidence to conclude that a significant difference exists for style adaptability levels among deans and department chairs as perceived by them.

Based upon Bolton and Boyer's (1972) study, professional and organizational development in academic colleges and departments helping deans and department chairs

imrprove their capabilities to address at their own level the broad problem that faces

developing their leadership style and style adaptability. At the same time developing educational

plan, improving teaching effectiveness, and improving relationship among faculty, staff, and

students.

Recommendations

 The following recommendations are made as a result of the findings of this study:

1. Further research could be conducted to establish whether there are differences between the leadership behaviors of deans and department chairs at Public Doctoral Research Universities-Extensive;

2. Further research could be conducted to establish whether there are differences between the leadership behaviors of male and female deans and department chairs at Public Doctoral Research Universities-Extensive;

3. Further research could be conducted to establish suitable continuing education programs to provide for the development of enhanced leadership behaviors of deans and department chairs at Public Doctoral Research Universities-Extensive;

4. Further research could be conducted to establish if there are differences in the leadership behaviors of deans and department chairs over a period of time; and

5. Further research could be conducted to determine differences between the leadership behaviors of deans and department chairs at institutions of higher education in Jordan and the United States.

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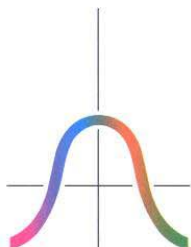Gmelch, W. H., & Miskin, V. D. (1995). *Chairing an academic department. Thousand Oaks: SAGE Publications.*

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APPENDIX A

LEAD-SELF INSTRUMENT

LEAD

Self

Leadership Style/Perception of Self

Developed by Center for Leadership Studies, Inc.

Your Name _____

Purpose

This instrument is used to evaluate the leadership behaviors you use when you are engaged in attempts to influence the actions and attitudes of others.

The information gathered with the **LEAD** *Self* provides insight into your current strengths--and areas for your leadership skill development. It supplies information about which leadership behaviors you use and the extent to which you match those behaviors to the needs of others.

Instructions - Using the Instrument

- Assume you are involved in each of the following twelve situations. Each situation has four alternative actions you might initiate.

- Read each item carefully.

- Think about what you *would* do in each circumstance.

- Circle the letter of the alternative action choice you think most closely describes what behavior you would use in the situation presented.

- Circle only *one* choice.

- Circle a choice for *each* of the twelve situations. Don't skip any.

- Move through the items quickly and stick with the first choice you make on each item. Your first choice tends to be the most accurate one.

Reminder: Circle what you think you *would* do, not what you *should* do. The goal is to evaluate what behaviors you *actually use*--not to get *right answers*. If there is no alternative action that describes what you would do in the situation, circle the item that *most closely* resembles what you would do.

Leadership **E**ffectiveness & **A**daptability **D**escription

1. SITUATION	ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS
Your followers are not responding lately to your friendly conversation and obvious concern for their welfare. Their performance is declining rapidly.	*You would …* A. Emphasize the use of uniform procedures and the necessity for task accomplishment. B. Make yourself available for discussion but not push your involvement. C. Talk with followers and then set goals. D. Intentionally not intervene.
2. SITUATION	ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS
The observable performance of your group is increasing. You have been making sure that all members were aware of their responsibilities and expected standards of performance.	*You would …* A. Engage in friendly interaction, but continue to make sure that all members are aware of their responsibilities and expected standards of performance. B. Take no definite action. C. Do what you can to make the group feel important and involved. D. Emphasize the importance of deadlines and tasks.
3. SITUATION	ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS
Members of your group are unable to solve a problem. You have normally left them alone. Group performance and interpersonal relations have been good.	*You would …* A. Work with the group and together engage in problem solving. B. Let the group work it out. C. Act quickly and firmly to correct and redirect. D. Encourage the group to work on the problem and be supportive of their efforts.
4. SITUATION	ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS
You are considering a change. Your followers have a fine record of accomplishment. They respect the need for change.	*You would …* A. Allow group involvement in developing the change, but not be too directive. B. Announce changes and then implement with close supervision. C. Allow the group to formulate its own direction. D. Incorporate group recommendations, but direct the change yourself.
5. SITUATION	ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS
The performance of your group has been dropping during the last few months. Members have been unconcerned with meeting objectives. Redefining roles and responsibilities has helped in the past. They have continually needed reminding to have their task done on time.	*You would …* A. Allow the group to formulate its own direction. B. Incorporate group recommendations, but see that objectives are met. C. Redefine roles and responsibilities and supervise carefully. D. Allow group involvement in determining roles and responsibilities, but not be too directive.
6. SITUATION	ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS
You stepped into an efficiently run organization. The previous administrator tightly controlled the situation. You want to maintain a productive situation, but would like to begin humanizing the environment.	*You would …* A. Do what you can to make the group feel important and involved. B. Emphasize the importance of deadlines and tasks. C. Intentionally not intervene. D. Get the group involved in decision making, but see that objectives are met.

7. SITUATION You are considering changing to a structure that will be new to your group. Members of the group have made suggestions about needed change. The group has been productive and demonstrated flexibility in its operations.	**ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS** *You would …* A. Define the change and supervise carefully. B. Participate with the group in developing the change, but allow members to organize the implementation. C. Be willing to make changes as recommended, but maintain control of implementation. D. Avoid confrontation; leave things alone.
8. SITUATION Group performance and interpersonal relations are good. You feel somewhat insecure about your lack of direction of the group.	**ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS** *You would …* A. Leave the group alone. B. Discuss the situation with the group and then initiate necessary changes. C. Take steps to direct followers toward working in a well-defined manner. D. Be supportive in discussing the situation with the group, but not too directive.
9. SITUATION Your boss has appointed you to head a task force that is far overdue in making requested recommendations for change. The group is not clear on its goals. Attendance at sessions has been poor. Their meetings have turned into social gatherings. Potentially, they have the talent necessary to help.	**ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS** *You would …* A. Let the group work out its problems. B. Incorporate group recommendations, but see that objectives are met. C. Redefine goals and supervise carefully. D. Allow group involvement in setting goals, but not push.
10. SITUATION Your followers, usually able to take responsibility, are not responding to your recent redefining of standards.	**ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS** *You would …* A. Allow group involvement in redefining standards, but not take control. B. Redefine standards and supervise carefully. C. Avoid confrontation by not applying pressure; leave the situation alone. D. Incorporate group recommendations, but see that new standards are met.
11. SITUATION You have been promoted to a new position. The previous supervisor was uninvolved in the affairs of the group. The group has adequately handled its tasks and direction. Group interrelations are good.	**ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS** *You would …* A. Take steps to direct followers working in a well-defined manner. B. Involve followers in decision making and reinforce good contributions. C. Discuss past performance with the group and then examine the need for new practices. D. Continue to leave the group alone.
12. SITUATION Recent information indicates some internal difficulties among followers. The group has a remarkable record of accomplishment. Members have effectively maintained long-range goals. They have worked in harmony for the past year. All are well qualified for the task.	**ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS** *You would …* A. Try out your solution with followers and examine the need for new practices. B. Allow group members to work it out themselves. C. Act quickly and firmly to correct and redirect. D. Participate in discussion of problem while providing support for followers.

APPENDIX B

PERSONAL INFORMATION DATA SHEET

Personal Information Data Sheet

Directions: Please provide the following demographic information by choosing the appropriate. Be sure to respond to each item. Leave this data sheet with the LEAD-Self Instrument and return both by mail to the researcher's address.

1-   **Gender:**   Male (   )   Female (   )

2-   **Ethnicity:**   African American   (   )

                        Hispanic   (   )

                        Asian   (   )

                        Native American   (   )

                        Anglo European   (   )

                        Other   (   )

3-   **Age:**   (   )

4-   **Marital Status:** Single (   ) Married (   ) Divorced/ Separated (   )

5-   **Total years of experience in education**:   (   )

6-   **Current administrative position**: …………………………………….

7-   **Position before current position**: …………………………………

8-   **Number of years at current position**:   (   )

9-   Which of the following best describes your college/ department's enrollment?

        (   ) Small (less than 300)

        (   ) Medium (300 – 500)

        (   ) Large (more than 500)

APPENDIX C

LEADERSHIP STYLE AND RANGE

Your Leadership Style

To develop your Leadership Profile, refer to the **LEAD** *Self* or **LEAD** *Other* instrument being processed. The first step will be to transfer the circled alternative action for each of the twelve situations from the **LEAD** instrument to the corresponding numbered situations in Graphic I below. Then, total the number of circled actions for each of the four vertical columns and write their sums next to "Totals."
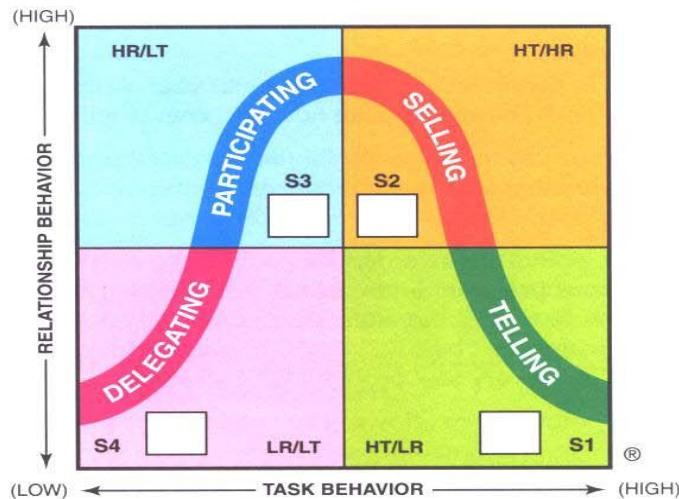
Graphic I

	STYLE RANGE STYLE SELECTED				
	1	2	3	4	
1	A	C	B	D	R1
2	D	A	C	B	R2
3	C	A	D	B	R3
4	B	D	A	C	R4
5	C	B	D	A	R1
6	B	D	A	C	R2
7	A	C	B	D	R3
8	C	B	D	A	R4
9	C	B	D	A	R1
10	B	D	A	C	R2
11	A	C	B	D	R3
12	C	A	D	B	R4
Totals					

SITUATIONS

Group Readiness Described in Situation

S1 Telling
S2 Selling
S3 Participating
S4 Delegating

Style Profile

Refer to columns 1 through 4 in Graphic I. Transfer the total for each column to the box in the corresponding quadrants in the model below, e.g., write the column 1 total in the S1 quadrant box, the column 2 total in the S2 quadrant box, etc.

Graphic III
Style Profile

ABLE AND WILLING AND CONFIDENT	ABLE BUT UNWILLING OR INSECURE	UNABLE BUT WILLING OR CONFIDENT	UNABLE AND UNWILLING OR INSECURE
R4	R3	R2	R1

FOLLOWER READINESS

Now you can interpret the results of the scoring you just completed. From this, three very important pieces of information come together to form your Leadership Style Profile:

Primary Style

Primary style is the style that you would tend to use most frequently. The quadrant in the model above which has the greatest number of responses indicated is your primary style.

Secondary Style

Secondary, or supporting style(s) can include more than one quadrant—other than your primary style—in which there are two or more responses. These styles tend to be your "back-up" styles when you are not using your primary style.

Style Profile, continued

Style Range

Style range refers to the total number of quadrants in Graphic III in which there are two or more responses. Style range provides you a sense for how flexible you are in varying the types of behaviors you engage in when attempting to influence others.

Three or more responses in a quadrant indicate a high degree of flexibility in the use of behaviors in that quadrant. Two responses in a quadrant indicate moderate flexibility. One response in a quadrant is not statistically significant, and therefore it is difficult to predict flexibility into that style.

Style Adaptability

Style range is important in gaining insight into your ability to influence others, and having a range of styles is helpful. The key variable now becomes when to use each style.

Previously, your Leadership Style Profile indicated preferences and tendencies of leader behavior. **Style adaptability** is the degree to which you are able to vary your style *appropriately* to the readiness level of a follower in a specific situation.

In Graphic II, points are awarded for each alternative action selected in response to the twelve situations provided in the **LEAD** instrument. The number of points awarded is determined by how well the alternative action selected matches the situation. Thus, a "3" response indicates the "best fit." A "0" response indicates that an alternative action was selected that has a very low probability of success.

The use of a point system allows your Leadership Style Adaptability to be expressed as a score. The possible adaptability score ranges from 0 to 36. Expressing adaptability as a score allows some generalizations to be made based on numerical benchmarks.

30–36 Scores in this range indicate a leader with a high degree of adaptability. The leader accurately diagnoses the ability and willingness of the follower for the situation and adjusts accordingly.

24–29 This range reflects a moderate degree of adaptability. Scores in this range usually indicate a pronounced primary leadership style with less flexibility into the secondary styles.

0–23 Adaptability scores less than 23 indicates a need for self development to improve both the ability to diagnose task readiness and to use appropriate leader behaviors.

APPENDIX D

STYLE ADAPTABILITY

Style Adaptability

To determine your Leadership Style Adaptability, circle the scores in Graphic II below that correspond to the alternative action choices made for each situation in Graphic I. For example, if for Situation 1 alternative action choice C was chosen, circle 2 under column C below. Next, add the numbers in each vertical column and write their sums next to "Subtotals." Finally, add the subtotals for column A, B, C, and D to calculate "Leadership Style Adaptability" and write this number in the box provided.

Graphic II

SITUATIONS	STYLE ADAPTABILITY PROBABILITY OF SUCCESS			
	A	B	C	D
1	3	1	2	0
2	3	0	2	1
3	2	1	0	3
4	2	0	3	1
5	0	2	3	1
6	1	2	0	3
7	0	3	1	2
8	3	1	0	2
9	0	2	3	1
10	2	0	1	3
11	0	3	1	2
12	1	3	0	2
Subtotals	+	+	+	=

Style Adaptability Score

d.

c.

APPENDIX E

COVER LETTER TO DEANS AND DEPARTMENT CHAIRS
FOR SURVEY

Informed consent

Dear Participant:

You have been invited to participate in the study, "Leadership styles and style adaptability of deans and department chairs at three public research universities." The purpose of this study is to (a) how do deans and department chairs perceive their leadership styles? (b) What is the average style adaptability level among deans and department chairs?

For the purposes of data collection, you will be asked to respond to the questionnaire that is administered via mail with an enclosed self-address stamp for its return. Your participation is confidential, and confidentiality will be maintained through storage of data in a secure location accessible only to the researcher and his advisor; use of personal and organizational pseudonyms in written reports and oral presentations of this research; and purging of personality-identifiable information from questionnaires and research reports.

There are no foreseeable risks or discomfort to participants involved in this study. While you will be encouraged to answer questionnaire questions honestly, you may refrain from questionnaire questions if you are uncomfortable. You may choose to withdraw during the responding process at any time.

If you have questions or need additional information about this research or your participation, you may contact me at: Aieman AL-OMARI, 1630 NE Valley Rd. APT. # E103 Pullman, Washington 99163/ Dr. Willie Heggins III 365 Cleveland Hall Pullman, Washington 99164, or by e-mail at: aieman66@hotmail.com and wheggins@wsu.edu. You can call the WSU Institutional Review Board at (509)335-9661. This study has been reviewed and approved for human participation by the WSU IRB.

I consent to participate in the research study named and described above.

Participant Name: (printed) _____

Signature: _____ Date: _____

Researcher Signature: _____ Date: _____

Researcher Signature: _____ Date: _____

APPENDIX F

CENTER FOR LEADERSHIP STUDIES, INC.
PERMISSION TO USE MATERIALS

April 4, 2005

Mr. Omari,

Permission to use the LEAD Self & Directions in your dissertation for graduate school at Washington State University is granted (as per your advisor's verbal agreement with Dr. Hersey).

I hope this letter will be acceptable to your school. I will send a original signed hard copy via US mail today.

Thank you,

Julene Burton
Contracts, Copyrights, & Permissions

Center for Leadership Studies
Julene Burton
230 West Third Avenue
Escondido, CA 92025
(760) 741-6595 or julene.burton@situational.com