LEADERSHIP STYLES AND CHARACTERISTICS OF HPER

CHAIRPERSONS AT SELECTED FOUR-YEAR

COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

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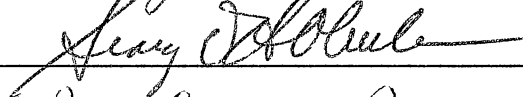DOCTOR OF EDUCATION
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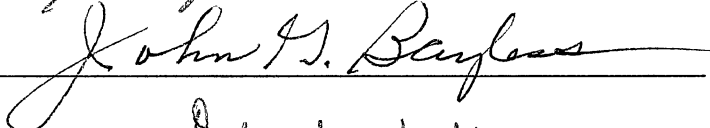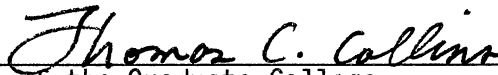Thesis Approved:

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The need for effective leaders in institutions of higher education
is a plea made by many authors as identified in the educational litera-
ture. Cyert (1983) mentioned changes that are occurring in social cir-
cumstances and expectations which are confronting higher education
administrators. These changes require management and leadership skills
that differ from those used in the past, as higher education institutions
are moving from a period of growth into a period of stability or possible
decline. McDade (1988) admonished colleges and universities to select
leaders and managers that were strong and visionary and who would be able
to transform their visions into reality.

Scholarly fascination with leaders and leadership dates back to at
least the work of Plato (Duke, 1986). Duke stated that the study of
leadership has grown in complexity as the roles of leaders have also
grown more complex. The focus of much of the scientific research since
the beginning of the twentieth century has focused on the determinants of
leadership effectiveness (Yukl, 1981).

Stogdill (1974, p. 259) commented that "There are almost as many
definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to
define the concept." Definitions of leadership usually have as a common
denominator the assumption that it is a group phenomenon involving the
interaction between two or more persons (Janda, 1960). Enochs (1981, p.

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178) stated: "Leadership is like beauty: It is difficult to define or describe, but you know it when you see it."

Conceptions of leadership effectiveness also differ from writer to writer. One major distinction between definitions of leadership effectiveness is the selected criterion. The selected outcomes may include group performance, the accomplishment of group goals, group worth, satisfaction with the leader, and the leader's retention of status in the group (Yukl, 1981). Effectiveness, as defined by Reddin (1970), is the extent to which a manager achieves the output requirements for a position. Fiedler (1964) indicated that the effectiveness of a particular leader was contingent upon the favorability of the situation in which the leader was involved. Research by Alexander (1980) indicated that the most effective group leaders were those perceived as highly energetic, supportive, and flexible in their style, and who provided stimulation for the group and the opportunity for emotional expression and closeness.

Leadership studies performed at Ohio State University, the University of Michigan, and Harvard University collectively established a basis for a contemporary study of management styles and management effectiveness. Despite differences in methodology of the studies, results were similar in that all identified management behavior as either task-oriented or relationship-oriented. Thus, this particular study based its investigation on academic chairpersons of physical education departments' use of task and relationship dimensions in various situations while focusing its analysis on the effectiveness dimension that Reddin (1970) introduced in his 3-D Management Theory.

Hersey and Blanchard (1982) indicated that, by adding the effectiveness dimension to the task and relationship dimension, Reddin (1970) integrated the concepts of management style with the situational demands

of a specific environment. The theory addressed the question: What types of situations match particular leadership styles to maximize effectiveness?

Academic department chairpersons encounter many diverse situations, including the administrative tasks of the department, in addition to the personal responsibilities of teaching, research, and scholarship (Heimler, 1967). According to Reddin's (1970) 3-D Management Style Theory, managers were asked to look at five situational elements which make up the total situation they were in and to use the appropriate blend of task and relationship orientation. Reddin's application of the 3-D Theory was careful to emphasize that management style changed with the situation and job. Wolotkiewicz (1980) defined management style as the blending of task and relationship:

> Style must be developed that will lead to the most effective utilization of available resources. . . . The exact pattern of the combination will be determined by the nature of the situation and the individuals involved" (p. 11).

Style and effectiveness were considered to be unique to the person and the situation. Drucker (1966) stressed that effective executives are as different as physicians, high school teachers, or violinists. Reddin's (1970) application of the 3-D Theory cautioned that management style changed with the situation and the job. He further emphasized that the fundamental issue in management is the concept of managerial effectiveness.

Statement of the Problem

Limited research has been completed which specifically addressed administrative characteristics; leadership style; and preparation of current health, physical education, and recreation (HPER) administrators.

Frost and Marshall (1977) indicated that administrative characteristics necessary for one organization may not be appropriate for another.

The problem, as defined by this study, was to address the relationship between management effectiveness and selected demographics of chairpersons of physical education departments in higher education institutions. Responses were sought to the following research questions:

1. What type of management styles are being utilized by physical education chairpersons?

2. Are the management styles being used by physical education chairpersons classified as more effective or less effective?

3. Is there a relationship between selected personal and professional characteristics of physical education chairpersons and their management effectiveness?

Need for the Study

It has become increasingly apparent to the researcher that leadership behavior has received considerable attention in the educational literature. There have been many research studies concerned with leadership styles of academic chairpersons, but most have dealt with the issue on a general basis. It was also apparent following the review of literature that there was a lack of information about leadership style and behavior of chairpersons of physical education departments in small colleges and universities. Most of the research appeared to be focused on larger research universities.

Administrative texts in physical education have focused on formal organizational methods rather than leadership behavior and managerial effectiveness. Research efforts consist mainly of exploring the functions, duties, and problems of administration (McIntyre, 1981).

The forthcoming retirement of a number of faculty and administrators in higher education demonstrates a need for competent chairpersons. It has been predicted that between 1990 and 2004, academic departments will need to hire 335,000 new faculty (Creswell, 1990). This study showed that 59.6% of the respondents were over 51 years of age. The fastest growth in higher education is taking place in administration (Chronicle of Higher Education, 1990).

A study of the leadership styles of current chairpersons may help in the selection of the new chairpersons to ensure that excellence will be maintained. Knowledge of the leadership styles of the present department chairpersons may identify areas of concern for these administrators. An additional need for the study included the selected professional and personal factors influencing their leadership behavior.

Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were tested at the .01 level of significance:

Hypothesis 1. There are no significant differences in the task orientation, relationships orientation scores, and leadership style among HPER chairpersons with different lengths of experience in their current position.

1a. There are no significant differences in the task orientation scores among HPER chairpersons with different lengths of experience in their current position.

1b. There are no significant differences in the relationships orientation scores among HPER chairpersons with different lengths of experience in their current position.

1c. There are no significant differences in the leadership style among HPER chairpersons with different lengths of experience in their current position.

Hypothesis 2. There is no significant difference in the task orientation, relationships orientation scores, and leadership style between HPER chairpersons based on gender.

2a. There is no significant difference in the task orientation scores between HPER chairpersons based on gender.

2b. There is no significant difference in the relationships orientation scores between HPER chairpersons based on gender.

2c. There is no significant difference in the leadership style between HPER chairpersons based on gender.

Hypothesis 3. There are no significant differences in the task orientation, relationships orientation scores, and leadership style among HPER chairpersons with different amounts of professional experience.

3a. There are no significant differences in the task orientation scores among HPER chairpersons with different amounts of professional experience.

3b. There are no significant differences in the relationships orientation scores among HPER chairpersons with different amounts of professional experience.

3c. There are no significant differences in the leadership style among HPER chairpersons with different amounts of professional experience.

Hypothesis 4. There are no significant differences in the task orientation, relationships orientation scores, and leadership style among HPER chairpersons of different ages.

4a. There are no significant differences in the task orientation scores among HPER chairpersons of different ages.

4b. There are no significant differences in the relationships orientation scores among HPER chairpersons of different ages.

4c. There are no significant differences in the leadership style among HPER chairpersons of different ages.

Hypothesis 5. There are no significant differences in the task orientation, relationships orientation scores, and leadership style among HPER chairpersons with different numbers of full-time faculty members supervised.

5a. There are no significant differences in the task orientation scores among HPER chairpersons with different numbers of full-time faculty members supervised.

5b. There are no significant differences in the relationships orientation scores among HPER chairpersons with different numbers of full-time faculty members supervised.

5c. There are no significant differences in the leadership style among HPER chairpersons with different numbers of full-time faculty members supervised.

Hypothesis 6. There is no significant difference in the task orientation, relationships orientation scores, and leadership style among HPER chairpersons based on different levels of formal management or administrative education.

6a. There is no significant difference in the task orientation scores between HPER chairpersons based on different levels of formal management or administrative education.

6b. There is no significant difference in the relationships orientation scores between HPER chairpersons based on different levels of formal management or administrative education.

6c. There is no significant difference in the leadership style between HPER chairpersons based on different levels of formal management or administrative education.

Hypothesis 7. There is no significant difference in the task orientation, relationships orientation scores, and leadership style between HPER chairpersons based on method of selection for the position.

7a. There is no significant difference in the task orientation scores between HPER chairpersons based on method of selection for the position.

7b. There is no significant difference in the relationships orientation scores between HPER chairpersons based on method of selection for the position.

7c. There is no significant difference in the leadership style between HPER chairpersons based on method of selection for the position.

<center>Delimitations</center>

The delimitations of the study were:

1. The study was delimited to the investigation of leadership style as measured by the Management Position Analysis Test (Reddin, 1983a) and the relationship to specific personal and professional characteristics as measured by a demographic data sheet designed by the researcher.

2. The study was delimited to physical education chairpersons employed in baccalaureate plus limited master's degree granting public four-year institutions whose enrollment ranged between 2,000 to 10,000 students.

Limitations

The limitations inherent to the study were:

1. The results of the study were extremely tentative due to the small number of respondents and are confined to the institutions in the study. Extensive generalization beyond this would not be directly supported by the study.

2. Survey information was often subject to sampling error.

Assumptions

The study was based on the following underlying assumptions:

1. The subjects participating in the study understood the questions on the Management Position Analysis Test (MPAT) (Reddin, 1983a) and responded to the best of their abilities.

2. The variables affecting the functions of the chairpersons were assumed to be homogeneous among the participating institutions.

Definition of Terms

The following definitions were selected and used in this study. The definitions which apply to the 3-D Management Position Analysis Test were offered by Reddin (1980).

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

Basic Leadership Style. The way in which a manager behaves as measured by the amount of task orientation and relationships orientation

used. The four basic styles are: Integrated, Dedicated, Related, and Separated.

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

Bureaucrat. A manager who is using a low task orientation and a low relationships orientation in a situation where such behavior is appropriate and who is therefore more effective; perceived as being primarily interested in rules and procedures for their own sake and as conscientious.

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

Dedicated Style. A basic style with more than average task orientation and less than average relationships orientation.

Deserter. A manager who is using a low task orientation and a low relationships orientation in a situation where such behavior is inappropriate and who is therefore less effective; perceived as uninvolved and passive or negative.

Developer. A manager who is using a high relationships orientation and a low task orientation in a situation where such behavior is appropriate and who is therefore more effective; perceived as having implicit

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

Division/Department. A term which refers to the smallest formal instructional-administrative unit within a state-supported, four-year institution.

Division/Department Chairperson. The formally designated head of the smallest instructional-administrative unit of a state-supported, four-year institution.

Dominant Styles. The styles most commonly used.

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

Integrated Style. A basic style with more than average task orientation and more than average relationships orientation.

Leaders. The individuals in the group given the task of directing and coordinating task-relevant group activities or who, in the absence of a designated leader, carries the primary responsibility for performing these functions in the group (Fiedler, 1967).

Leadership. The ability to influence or motivate an individual or a group of individuals to work willingly toward a given goal or objective under a specific set of circumstances (Tucker, 1984).

Leader Effectiveness. The extent to which a leader influences his/her followers to achieve group objectives.

Leadership Style. The consistent manner in which the manager conducts himself in influencing the thoughts and actions of the individual or group. It is operationally defined as the combination of an

individual's score on the task orientation, relationships orientation, and effectiveness levels.

Management Position Analysis Test (MPAT). A device designed to measure the types of behavior, in terms of task and relationships, used with more effective and less effective behavior of managers in their present positions.

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

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

Missionary. A manager who is using a high relationships orientation and a low task orientation in a situation where such behavior is inappropriate and who is therefore less effective; perceived as being primarily interested in harmony.

Over-Rejected Styles. Those styles used much less than others. They are seldom, if ever, used. They indicate the less effective things a manager least likes to do.

Related Style. A basic style with less than average task orientation and more than average relationships orientation.

Relationships Orientation. The extent to which a manager has personal job relationships; characterized by listening, trusting, and encouraging.

Separated Style. A basic style with less than average task orientation and less than average relationships orientation.

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

Supporting Styles. Those styles on which a high score is obtained but not high enough to call it dominant.

Task Orientation. The extent to which a manager directs his/her own and his/her co-workers' efforts characterized by initiating, organizing, and directing.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Definitions of Leadership

Leadership has been one of the most researched topics in the social sciences. "Four decades of research on leadership have produced a bewildering mass of findings. The endless accumulation of empirical data has not produced an integrated understanding of leadership" (Bass, 1981, p. xvii). Burns (1978) described the confusion concerning leadership as

> . . . one of the most observed and least understood phenomena
> on earth. There is no school of leadership, intellectual or
> practical. No central concept has emerged, in part, because
> scholars have worked in separate disciplines in pursuit of
> unrelated questions and problems (pp. 2-3).

There are almost as many different definitions of leadership as there are researchers who have attempted to define what leadership actually is. Bennis and Nanus (1985) estimated that over 350 definitions of leadership have been formulated over the last few decades. Everyone who has written about leadership appears to have developed his or her own definition or explanation of the concept.

The following are selected definitions of the term "leadership" found in the literature that emphasize several concepts for the purpose of this study. Fiedler (1967), one of the more influential researchers and theorists, defined leadership as ". . . an interpersonal relationship in which power and influence are unevenly distributed so that one person

is able to direct and control the actions and behaviors of others to a greater extent than they direct and control his" (p. 11).

Stogdill (1950) defined leadership as ". . . the process of influencing the activities of an organized group toward goal-setting and goal-achievement. . . . It is a process by which the leader influences his followers to achieve group objectives" (p. 28). In 1984, Tucker pointed out that leadership implied a relationship between the leader and one or more followers working willingly to achieve a common objective.

Gibb (1954) considered leadership as a quality within the group which must be carried out by the group. Leadership was considered as shared or "distributed leadership." Gardner (1990) also emphasized the idea of shared leadership by defining leadership as ". . . the process of persuasion or example by which an individual (or leadership team) induces a group to pursue objectives held by the leader or shared by the leader and his or her followers" (p. 1).

The myriad of definitions of leadership might suggest that there is little agreement as to the meaning of the term. Thibaut and Kelly (1961) considered that:

> Among the complex aspects of leadership, there do not seem to be any properties unique to the phenomena. In virtually all cases leadership seems to be analyzable in terms of other, simpler concepts. For example, the leader often emerges as a possessor of power which enables him to initiate changes in the behavior of other persons or to introduce innovations. In other instances, the leader appears as a person who performs certain functions for the group (p. 289).

Two assumptions about the leadership process appeared in most definitions. These assumptions were that: (1) it was a group phenomenon which involved the interaction between two or more persons, and (2) it involved an intentional influence exerted by the leader over the followers (Yukl, 1981). Katz and Kahn (1966) classified the various

definitions of leadership into three major compartments: (1) as the attribute of a position, (2) as the characteristic of a person, and (3) as a category of behavior.

The essence of the multitude of meanings and explanations of leadership can perhaps be better appreciated by noting an assessment made by Stogdill (1974). He presented the thought that different definitions of leadership may serve the following purposes:

1. Identify the object to be observed.

2. Identify a form of practice.

3. Satisfy a particular value orientation.

4. Avoid a particular value orientation or implication for practice.

5. Provide a basis for theory development (p. 16).

An Overview of Leadership Theories

Leadership has been studied and researched for a number of years, resulting in numerous theories. No universally accepted theoretical framework of leadership has been developed. As Bennis (1959) suggested:

> The concept of leadership eludes us or turns up in another form to taunt us again with its slipperiness and complexity. So we have invented an endless proliferation of terms to deal with it . . . and still the concept is not sufficiently defined (p. 259).

Three major approaches to leadership study include the trait theory, the behavioral theory, and the situational theory.

The traitist approach attempted to determine what characteristics a successful leader possessed by studying the leader's personality or physical make-up. The theory asserted that there was a finite number of identifiable traits or characteristics which one could use to distinguish between effective and ineffective leaders. Researchers attempted to

isolate those specific traits that endowed leaders with unique qualities which made them different from their followers (Hoy and Miskel, 1982).

Hundreds of trait studies were conducted during the 1930s and 1940s to discover these leadership qualities (Yukl, 1989). However, the research failed to identify any traits that would guarantee leadership success. Jenkins (1947), after reviewing the leadership studies of several groups, said: "No single trait or group of characteristics has been isolated which sets off the leader from the members of his group" (pp. 74-75). Stogdill (1974) investigated over 100 trait studies in an attempt to determine the validity of the trait theory. His studies concluded that a limited number of traits appeared to correlate with effective leadership. The traits with the highest positive correlations with leadership were: intelligence, self-confidence, and task-relevant knowledge. Evidence suggested that "Leadership exists between persons in a social situation, and that persons who are leaders in one situation may not necessarily be leaders in other situations" (Stogdill, 1974, p. 126).

The early searches for personality traits to distinguish leaders from followers were remarkably unsuccessful (Hoy and Miskel, 1982). Stogdill (cited in Bass, 1981) essentially eliminated the search for universal traits by finding that "Leadership is not a matter of passive status nor of the mere possession of some combination of traits" (p. 68). Jenkins (1947, pp. 74-75) concluded: "Fifty years of study have failed to produce one personality trait or set of qualities that can be used to discriminate leaders from non-leaders." The general trend was a move from the "trait approach" in favor of a more flexible approach which recognized that the qualities of the leaders were a response to group situations and demands. Hemphill (1949) stated:

>There are no absolute leaders, since successful leadership must always take into account the specific requirements imposed by the nature of the group which is to be led, requirements as diverse in nature and degrees as are the organizations in which persons band together (p. 225).

According to Yukl (1989, p. 176), "The premise that certain leadership traits are absolutely necessary for effective leadership has not been substantiated in several decades of trait research." However, recent research has renewed an interest in the relationship between certain individual traits and leadership behavior. House and Betz (1979) contended that trait research should be continued because, "The magnitude of the correlations between leader traits and criteria of leadership are as high and often higher than correlations between leader behavior and leadership criteria" (p. 352). Some researchers are now attempting to relate traits to specific role requirements for different types of managerial positions. It is now recognized that certain traits increase the likelihood that a leader will be more effective, but they do not guarantee effectiveness, and the relative importance of different traits is dependent on the nature of the leadership situation (Bass, 1981).

Ghiselli (1963) discovered five traits--intelligence, supervisory ability, initiative, self-assurance, and individuality--to be significantly correlated with management performance. In 1984, Bennis completed a five-year study with 90 successful executives and their subordinates. Four common traits were shared by all of the leaders: "(1) management of attention, (2) management of meaning, (3) management of trust, and management of self" (Bennis, 1984, p. 19).

Stogdill's (1970) basic conclusion that "The qualities, characteristics, and skills required in a leader are determined to a large extent by the demands of the situation in which he is to function as a leader" (p. 123) led to the study of leader behaviors. The assumption behind the

style and behavior theories was that subordinates would perform effectively for leaders who used a particular style of leadership.

The behavioral theory of leadership evolved primarily as a reaction to the dissatisfaction with the traitist approach. Supporters of the behavioral approach viewed leadership behavior as a two-way process, and one of interaction involving shared experiences (Geering, 1980). Halpin (1955) stated that this approach was a natural result of the surveys of Gibb (1954) and Stogdill (1948), which indicated that leadership was a ". . . complex social phenomenon that cannot be treated meaningfully when conceived as an isolated trait or entity viewed apart from related group and institutional factors" (pp. 18-19).

The leadership studies initiated at Ohio State University in 1945 were an attempt to investigate the determinants of leader behavior and to determine the efforts of leadership style on work-group performance and satisfaction (Fleishman, 1957). Two significant dimensions of leadership, initiating structure and consideration, were identified by Halpin and Winer (Halpin, 1966), based on the work of Hemphill and Coons (1957). Initiating structure included behavior in which the supervisor organized and defined group activities to fulfill the organizational goals. Consideration implied friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth between the leader and members of the group. The emphasis turned to whether the leader was employee-centered, task-centered, both, or neither.

The Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (LDBQ) (Hemphill and Coons, 1959) was designed to describe how a leader carried out his or her activities. The scores derived from the responses to the questionnaire were used to indicate a manager's style of leadership.

Fleishman and Harris (1970) suggested that consideration and initiation of structure are independent. Thus, a leader may score high on both

dimensions, low on both, or high on one and low on the other. Lowin, Hrapchak, and Kavanagh (1969) argued:

> It is possible to exert considerable direction on the activities of one's subordinate, yet still maintain a highly supportive relationship with him. Just this delicate fusion of a high level of consideration and a high level of initiating structure may be the key to effective supervision (p. 238).

The same idea was also supported by Halpin's (1966) study of educational administrators. His opinion of effective leadership was characterized by high consideration and high initiation of structure.

In a study conducted by Hemphill (1955) using the LBDQ on 22 departments in a liberal arts college, it was found that the department chairpersons with the best campus "reputation" for effective administration were those who attended to the details of leadership concerning: (1) organizing departmental activities and initiating new ways of solving departmental problems, and, at the same time, (2) developing warm considerate relationships with members of the department.

Early behavioral studies analyzed the effects on the group's performance of the leader's behavior associated with different styles of leadership. Style is related to the amount of control over the subordinates exercised by the leader. The concepts of autocratic, democratic, and laissez-faire leadership differentiated leaders based on whether they were directive or participatory, emphasized tasks or individual satisfaction, and encouraged or discouraged interpersonal conduct (Lewin, Lippitt, and White, 1939).

This research, along with many other studies, led to the notion that leaders should be democratic in nature. Fuel was added to the "democratic is right" idea by Likert's (1958, 1967) studies conducted at the University of Michigan in which it was shown that, for certain groups in certain situations, the democratic style was productive and group members

had higher morale and more satisfaction when supervised under such a style than when subjected to other styles.

The leadership dimensions, consideration and initiating structure, of the Ohio Studies have been likened to the authoritarian-democratic styles. Campbell et al. (1970) compared the initiating structure as used by the Ohio group to the authoritarian style. Sayles (1966) pointed out that employee orientation, which is a factor of consideration, was closely associated with democratic leadership.

Knezevich (1969) identified three basic leadership styles which leaders developed. One, classified as "nomothetic", described a by-the-book, or institutional oriented leader. Decisions are based entirely upon the rules and regulations of the institution. Insecure, unknowledgeable administrators often use this style of behavior. A second type was labeled as "ideographic". This leader placed the self and personality in opposition to the institutional guides and policies. The third style of leadership was called "transactional," or subordinate centered. This style utilized a goal-oriented subordinate involvement decision-making process which followed institutional guideline and policy. Knezevich (1969) described transactional leadership as the most demanding yet effective style of leadership.

Blake and Mouton (1964) created the Managerial Grid in which management styles were illustrated in a two-dimensional approach, a concern for people (vertical axis), and a concern for productivity (horizontal axis). Their approach emphasized that the two dimensions were complementary and these concerns must be integrated to achieve effective performance. A leader who had maximum concern for people received a rating of nine. Likewise, a leader who had maximum concern for production also received a nine. The most effective and desirable style of leadership was one with

an ideal rating of **9.9**, or described as a team management style. Other management styles depicted in the grid are shown in Figure 1.
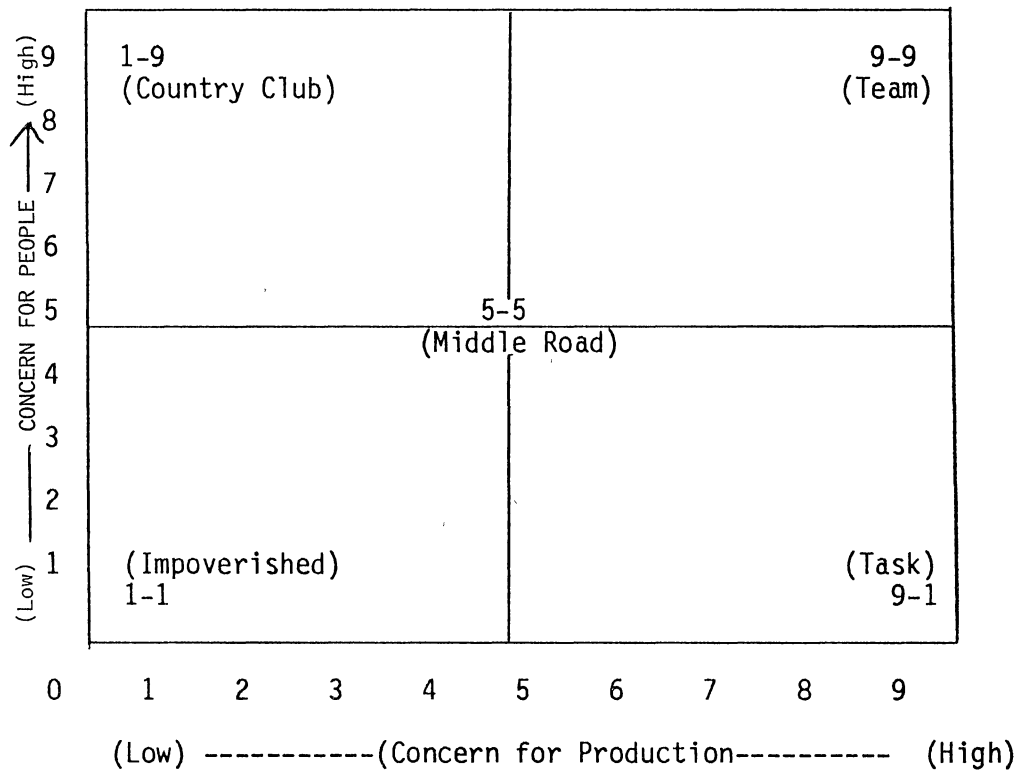
Source: R. Blake and J. Mouton, The Managerial Grid (1964).

Figure 1. The Managerial Grid

While much effort was devoted to the search for the "ideal" leadership style, one which maximized productivity and satisfaction in all situations, the research indicated that there was no one best leadership style. All of the behavioral theories assumed that leaders are effective when they engage in those activities which are most important for the specific situation. No one style of leadership is appropriate for all

situations encountered by a leader. Yukl (1981) criticized the consideration and initiating categories for presenting a simplistic picture of leadership: "They fail to capture the great diversity of behavior required by most kinds of managers and administrators" (pp. 121-122). The leader must choose a style that will best meet the needs of the group members and the goals of the organization, while satisfying the leader's own needs (Carlisle, 1973).

During the late 1960s, researchers recognized the limitations of the behavioral theories and began to focus on the importance of situational factors, such as the nature of the task performed by the group and the nature of the working environment. These studies introduced the idea that the most effective style would fit the present situation. Vroom (1960) agreed with this notion by emphasizing the point that the effectiveness of a leader cannot be determined without taking into account the nature of the situation. Reddin (1970, p. 61) stated: "The effectiveness of any behavior depends on the situation in which it is used. To know how to be effective, then, a manager needs to know how to read situations." Situational theories proposed that effective leadership depended on factors such as the nature of the external environment, the type of task, the personal qualities of the leader, leader-follower relations, maturity of the followers, availability of reward systems, clarification of roles, or any one of dozens of other factors, depending upon the specific theory (Bass, 1981; Yukl, 1981).

Fiedler (1967) developed his Contingency Model which was the first major theory to specifically view group performance or effectiveness as dependent upon the interaction of leadership style and the favorableness of the situation. This model has been reported as the most widely researched and most widely criticized framework for studying leadership

(Bass, 1981). Fiedler's model suggested that leaders have a particular style and the effectiveness of the leader in a particular situation will be dependent on the match between style (either task-oriented or relationship-oriented), the existing leader-member relations, the type of task, and the position power of the leader. Leaders were primarily inclined to be either task- or relations-oriented. These notions were very similar to initiating structure and consideration.

Fiedler (1967) designed the Least Preferred Co-Worker (LPC) Scale to measure leadership style. Low scores on the LPC were viewed as task-oriented in their leadership style. High LPC people were more concerned with employee relations.

The LPC was correlated with the range of situations depicted in the eight-cell model of group-task situations. This resulted in the contingency model, which indicated that task-oriented leaders were more effective in situations where they have either high or low control; relationship-oriented leaders were most effective when their situational control was moderate (Fiedler, 1972). Fiedler further developed the Contingency Model by including two factors related to a leader's performance: competence and experience (Fiedler and Garcia, 1987). The Cognitive Resource Theory assumes that intelligent and competent leaders make more effective plans and decisions than less intelligent ones. The theory also suggested that the relative intellectual abilities of groups and leaders may affect the group's performance.

The Three-Dimensional Leadership Theory, developed by Hersey and Blanchard (1977), related appropriate leader's behavior to the maturity of the followers. Maturity was defined as ". . . the ability and willingness of people to take responsibility for directing their own behavior" (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982, p. 151). The terms "task behavior and

relationship behavior" were used to identify a person's leadership style. Four basic leader behavior quadrants were labeled "high task and low relationship," "high task and high relationship," "low task and high relationship," and "low task and low relationship."

Hersey and Blanchard (1974) designed the Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description-Self (LEAD-SELF) and the Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability-Other (LEAD-OTHER) to gather data about the behavior of leaders. These instruments were designed to measure a leader's self-perception and others' perceptions of leadership style, style range (flexibility), and style adaptability (effectiveness).

In contrast to Fiedler's (1967) contingency model, the Path-Goal Model of Leadership proposed that effective leaders are those who clarify the paths to attaining goals and help subordinates overcome problems, thereby increasing the subordinate's satisfaction and productivity (House, 1971). A leader must be either task oriented or relationships oriented, depending on differences in the task, the work environment, and the subordinates' needs in order to increase motivation and satisfy needs.

Vroom and Yetton's (1973) Normative Model of Decision-Making related the leader's effectiveness to the degree in which subordinates were permitted to participate in making decisions. The model is grounded on an analysis of how a leader's decision-making behavior affected the quality of the decision and the subordinate's acceptance of the decision. The acceptance of a decision was determined by the degree of commitment by subordinates to implement a decision effectively. Vroom and Yetton developed five possible decision-making styles, ranging from an autocratic, leader-decides style to a participative, group-decides style. Empirical testing of the model revealed that the "Influence of situational factors

in determining choice of leadership methods is roughly four times the influence of individual differences" (Vroom and Yetton, 1973, p. 104).

From all of these various studies of leadership, it can be theorized that: (1) there are either no general leadership traits, or if they do exist, they are not to be described in any familiar psychological terms; and (2) in a specific situation, leaders and followers are detached by traits, and these traits will vary from situation to situation (Sharpton, 1985).

There have been many convictions expressed about the meaning of the terms "leadership" and "leadership theory." These ideas have carried over into the area of educational administration and have possibly influenced the development of leadership behavior of departmental chairpersons in higher education. It is necessary, then, to examine the chairperson's characteristics, roles, and leadership style.

Historical Developments and Leadership Analysis

of Higher Education Chairpersons

The historical development of the university department was a consequence of the increasing amount and organization of knowledge. The trend toward specialization of subject areas, the need for student-professor relationships, and the increase in enrollments are generally considered as the main impetus for the development of the department in the American university. Corson (1960) stated:

> Departments have been created, schools have been formed, as initiative has come from each subject matter discipline or professional field. The growth has not come from institutional leadership so much as from the need to satisfy the requirements of individual areas of teaching and scholarship and of growing professional fields (p. 85).

Bennett (1983) cited three events which influenced the evolution of the academic department. The first was the use of the title "dean" at Columbia University in 1792. The second event was the organization of six colleges, with a professor at the head of each, by Thomas Jefferson at the University of Virginia in the 1820s. The third noted event occurred when Professor George Tichnor added modern languages to the curriculum at Harvard in the 1828-1830 period, and the addition of the natural science schools at Yale and Harvard in 1848.

The departmental structure was crystallized around the 1890s. This solidification was the result of the arrival of the land-grant institution at Cornell in 1868, the administrative reforms of Charles William Eliot at Harvard in 1870, and the emergence of the graduate school at Johns Hopkins University in 1876. The University of Chicago, at the end of the first year of operation, listed 26 departments of study in 1892-93 (Storr, 1966). A large number of new departments were founded at Columbia, Princeton, and Yale by the end of the 1890s (Veysey, 1965).

Rudolph (1962) stated that departmentalization within the American university created a new role in higher education—the department chairperson. The role of the department chairperson has grown in prominence since the early 1800s. Heimler (1967) cited the decentralization of the decision-making process in American colleges and the increased faculty power in the formulation of institutional policies which resulted in a rearrangement of the academic power structure. The academic departments are the fundamental organizational unit of postsecondary institutions. The department chairpersons occupy a pivotal role in the administrative process of these institutions (Heimler, 1967; Mobley, 1971). Hill and French (1967, p. 549) stated: "The real power in colleges is not centered in the administrative authority system, but in the department where

all important decisions are made by the collegium, or community of scholars."

Academic departments are critical organizational units in higher education institutions in the United States because they carry the major responsibility for managing the resources, programs, and personnel. Ehrle (1975) noted that the department chairmanship is one of the most important positions in academe, both because it is a testing ground for wider institutional leadership and it is the most common academic administrative position where key decisions about teaching, research, and service are made. Fisher (1977) described the chairperson as a link between the faculty and the administration. As early as 1942, Wilson characterized the chairperson as the "key position," not only in departmental organization but also in institution-wide organization (p. 88). Patton (1961) probably best summarized the department chairperson's importance by stating: "No one plays a larger part in determining the character of higher educational institutions than the department chairman" (p. 459).

One of the first thorough studies of the department chairperson was done by Reverend Edward Doyle (1953), who surveyed department chairpersons at 33 private liberal arts colleges. Doyle concluded that most chairpersons were selected on the basis of three factors: (1) teaching experience, (2) teaching ability, and (3) administrative talent. Additional findings were that only two colleges had rotating chairpersons, and only four specified the term of office. Chairpersons spent the least time in helping and supervising new professors, although about half thought it was important.

The complexity and diversity of the role of the chairperson is summarized well by Dressel, Johnson, and Marcus (1970), who concluded that

"The position of department chairman is vague, often misunderstood, and not clearly perceived" (p. 84).

McLaughlin, Montgomery, and Malpass (1975) administered a survey to department chairpersons in 32 doctorate-granting public universities. A taxonomy was provided for the duties of department chairpersons. These included academic, administrative, and leadership roles. The authors concluded that:

> The 1,198 respondents to the questionnaire indicate that they feel most comfortable in the role of the academician, although frustration occurs because of competing against demands on their time by administrative and leadership functions they are required to fulfill. Although they state they derive the least enjoyment from the administrative role, they recognize the importance of the activities associated with it. Leadership and decision-making incorporate both positive and negative aspects, but, in general, the department chairmen surveyed felt both are important functions from which they derive satisfaction, if not pleasure (p. 259).

In a more recent study conducted by Seagren, Wheeler, and Mitchell (1986), the focus was on the human resource function of the chairperson rather than the technical function. Seven roles were identified by chairpersons and faculty that were perceived as critical to faculty development and departmental vitality. The roles were: communicator, facilitator, academic leader, motivator, counselor, politician, and manager of "administrivia". Communicator, facilitator, and academic leader were the most frequently mentioned in the interviews. The chairpersons had received little or no training in the roles prior to assuming the position.

The researchers found few differences, except for communication patterns, between roles and activities performed in larger (greater than 20 FTE) versus smaller (less than 20 FTE) departments. Written communications (memos and newsletters) were utilized more in larger

departments, while "management by walking around" was performed in the small departments.

An important finding by Meredith (1975) was that few chairpersons had received either on-the-job training or specialized courses on the college level preparatory to their roles. A similar conclusion was found by Jennerich (1981) in a study performed on 218 department chairpersons in four-year colleges and universities. Only 41 (19%) reported that they had received some form of management training.

It has been estimated that 80% of all administrative decisions in higher education institutions occur at the departmental level (Roach, 1976). However, most chairpersons, with no leadership training, accept the position without a clear understanding of the role ambiguity, and without the awareness of the cost to their academic career and personal lives (Creswell, 1986).

Tucker (1984) determined that the tasks differed between chairpersons of community colleges and universities, and among departments of various size. The department chairperson of baccalaureate-granting institutions are inclined to perceive themselves as ". . . faculty members with some administrative responsibilities" (Tucker, 1984, p. 30). However, in community or junior colleges, the division chairperson usually perceived themselves as ". . . administrators with some faculty and teaching responsibilities" (Tucker, 1984, p. 30).

Given the nature and diversity of the tasks, some researchers have attempted to determine the effectiveness of chairpersons in satisfying their administrative responsibilities and to identify their leadership behavior. The effectiveness of a particular leadership style depends, in part, upon its acceptance by the faculty. The most effective and desirable behavior depends to a large extent on the expectations and

satisfaction of the faculty. Firth (1976, p. 328) stated: "Effective leadership is the product of multiple conditions within an organization. To be effective, leadership must be both consistent with organizational expectations and beneficial to organizational goals." Reddin (1970) suggested that another explanation of effectiveness appeared to be in the extent to which a leader's style, the combination of task and relationships orientation, fit the style demands of the situation.

Hemphill (1955) investigated the validity of using the reputation of a department for being well administered as a criterion for determining the quality of leadership in college departments. He found that large departments tended to have higher administrative reputation scores than did small departments, which may indicate that more care was exercised in the selection of chairpersons of large departments. Hemphill's results also indicated that the chairpersons of those departments with the best reputation were also described as above average on both Consideration and Initiation Structure on the LBDQ.

Schroeder (1969) used the LDBQ to investigate deans, chairpersons, and faculty from 17 state colleges and universities. The major results from this study were: (1) the faculty reported significantly more "consideration" from the ideal chairperson than expected; (2) deans expected more "initiating structure" from the ideal chairperson than did the faculty; (3) chairpersons from large departments scored lower on ideal behavior than those from small departments; and (4) neither institutional size, type of college, nor faculty ranks were factors in reported leadership behavior. Schroeder concluded that all three groups (deans, chairpersons, and faculty) appeared to place the ideal chairpersons's leadership style near the transactional dimension, which is closer to the ideographic than the nomothetic dimension.

Brown (1973) conducted a study to determine which leadership style of superiors most satisfied the professors of 28 public colleges and universities in four southwest states. The data showed a strong relationship between the professor's satisfaction with the interaction of the superior and the leadership style of that superior. The data tend to indicate a stronger dislike for authoritarian than a liking for democratic styles. The professors preferred a democratic or subordinate-centered leadership style, but did not necessarily favor the most extreme transactional style. The least satisfied professors were those whose chairperson made decisions and announced, or "sold" them.

In a similar study of the relationship between chairperson's leadership style and faculty satisfaction, Washington (1975) found that the degree of job satisfaction was highest in academic departments in which the faculty perceived the chairperson's leadership style to be above average in both initiating structure and consideration. A secondary finding was that the degree of faculty job satisfaction was significantly higher for faculty who were allowed to select their chairperson.

Jennerich (1981) attempted to rank the competencies that chairpersons perceived necessary for their position. The findings indicated a general group of competencies that all chairpersons considered necessary for effective leadership. The six items which were consistently ranked at the highest level were: (1) character/identity, (2) leadership ability, (3) interpersonal skills, (4) ability to communicate effectively, (5) decision-making ability, and (6) organizational ability. Jennerich (p. 55) concluded that ". . . being an effective chairperson therefore requires a blend of interpersonal as well as managerial competencies."

Daves (1983) studied nonpublic school administrators of the upper Midwest. The most often used leadership approach, regardless of the

school size or gender of the administrator, was the situational approach. Daves concluded that some of today's educational leaders are willing to alter their leadership approaches and possibly change their leadership styles to meet the leadership needs as they occur.

Knight and Holen (1985) studied the ratings of chairpersons' effectiveness based upon the Departmental Evaluation of Chairperson Activities for Development (DECAD) in 65 higher education institutions across the United States. The most significant findings were that the chairpersons who received the highest performance ratings by their faculty had high ratings on both initiating structure and consideration, and that a high performance rating was associated with a high rating on at least one of the traits. This research implied that, for chairpersons to be effective, they need to improve those behaviors strongly associated with the "high-high" leadership style.

Carlson (1973) designed a study to investigate how physical education chairpersons perceived their behavior compared to their faculty's perception. He found no significant difference between the chairperson's self-perceived leadership behavior and as perceived by their faculty. A secondary conclusion from the study was that biographical factors such as gender, age, years of experience, academic rank, and extent of formal education were not important factors for congruence of perception of the chairperson's leadership behavior.

A different finding was reported by Milner and Tetu (1979) in their study of leadership behavior in departments of physical education in higher education. Consideration, as a leadership dimension, received a higher rating of importance for both chairpersons and faculty members than did initiation of structure, both actually and ideally. This study

also indicated no significant differences in the leadership behavior of chairpersons based on gender.

A study conducted by Todd (1977) using Reddin's Management Style Diagnosis Test indicated the most prominent basic leadership style used by chairpersons was the Related Style. This style is characterized by less than average task orientation and more than average relationships orientation.

White and Karabetsos (1987) surveyed over 200 physical education chairpersons in higher education institutions to identify administrative characteristics and responsibilities. They found:

1. Eighty-eight percent of the chairpersons held a doctorate degree.

2. The great majority (84%) were men.

3. Eighty-two percent of the chairpersons were in the 40-59 age group.

4. Personnel management was identified by 60% of the chairpersons as the "most important" management area.

5. The leadership style used by most of the chairpersons appeared to be democratic.

Due to the many duties or responsibilities, the chairperson can be one of the key individuals in the governance of the college, for the department is one of the most powerful subunits within the college (Burns, 1962). Corson (1960, p. 94) stated: "The departmental chairman in the typical American university is a (if not the) key administrative officer." Future challenges facing higher education will require a leadership style which blends management technology and human resource development to survive.

In <u>The Confidence Crisis: An Analysis of University Departments</u>, Dressel, Johnson, and Marcus (1970) wrote:

> The chairman may plan the role of honest broker, attempting to interpret accurately to both the department and the dean the concerns and dissatisfactions of the other. He may play one against the other to enhance his own position, in which case his days as chairman may be numbered. Or he may attempt to cater to the dissatisfactions of one, enforcing its demands upon the other, in which case the days of his life may be lessened by ulcers, high blood pressure, or heart failure. Only the honest broker role produces healthy reciprocated confidence. Diminishing or no confidence was demonstrated by frequent replacement of the chairman, by high rates of faculty turnover, inadequate support, and decline in quality of the departmental program (p. 141).

Obviously, the leadership behavior of chairpersons needs to be examined. Such a study should be very advantageous to the training and development of the college or university department chairpersons. Bennett (1983) predicted that the importance of either the department or the chairperson will not diminish in the future.

Reddin's 3-D Theory

Reddin (1970) developed the 3-D Management Style Theory as a result of numerous research studies conducted by psychologists in the United States. These psychologists discovered that the two key elements in managerial behavior were the task to be done and relationships with other people, with one or the other receiving more emphasis or both dimensions being used in small or large amounts. Reddin (1970) referred to these elements as task orientation and relationships orientation. The two dimensions were identified as ". . . independent variables because the extent to which a manager uses one of them does not help to predict the amount of the other he is using" (Reddin, 1970, p. 21). The leader may use any combination of the two dimensions.

Four basic leadership styles were identified from different expressions of these dimensions: dedicated related, separated, and integrated (Reddin, 1970). Definitions of the four styles can be found in Chapter I. The four basic styles were arranged as shown in Figure 2, with task orientation (TO) describing one axis and relationships orientation (RO) indicated on the other.

```
High
                  ┌────────────────────┬────────────────────┐
                  │                    ┊                    │
             ↑    │                    ┊                    │
                  │     RELATED        ┊     INTEGRATED     │
                  │                    ┊                    │
      RO          ├ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─┼─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─┤
                  │                    ┊                    │
                  │                    ┊                    │
                  │     SEPARATED      ┊     DEDICATED      │
                  │                    ┊                    │
                  │                    ┊                    │
                  └────────────────────┴────────────────────┘
      Low          ─────────────────────────────────────────→   High
                                      TO
```
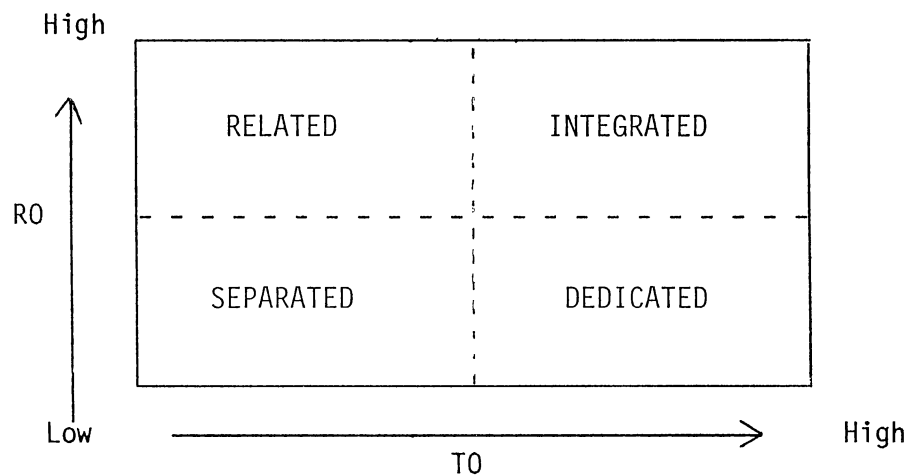
Figure 2. Basic Leadership Styles

According to Reddin (1970):

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

Reddin believed that none of these basic styles is effective or ineffective by itself. He stated:

> There is no consistent evidence that one style is generally more effective than the other. To suggest that there is, is to make what the social scientists call the 'normative error'; that is, to suggest that one thing is better than another based only on what one prefers to believe rather than on what the evidence suggests. Managers must say farewell to the manager who picks up a single behavioral theory at a seminar and spends the next few years chanting, 'Let us all become like I became,' and changes no one in the process (pp. 38-39).

A third dimension, effectiveness, affecting all types of behavior, was added to Reddin's (1970) typology. This dimension differentiated this typology from the others. Leader effectiveness is defined as ". . . the extent to which the leader's behavior is perceived as appropriate to the demands of the situation" (Reddin, 1970, p. 51). Leader effectiveness is determined by the behavior actually used, expressed in terms of task orientation and relationships orientation, and the perceived match of the behavior to the demands of the situation in which it is used. The same style expressed in different situations may be effective or ineffective. In the space of a day, an effective leader may well use all four basic styles when dealing with a wide variety of situations. To know how to be effective then, a manager must know how to interpret the many situations of the position.

Each of the four basic styles has a less effective equivalent and a more effective equivalent, resulting in eight managerial styles. These eight managerial styles are not eight additional kinds of behavior. Effectiveness is not used as a means of connecting the less-effective and more-effective styles as previously reported (Reddin, 1970), but rather that the eight styles be seen as a list, as does Bass (1981). The eight managerial styles are shown in Table I. These styles are derived from the eight possible combinations of above or below average on each of the task orientation, relationships orientation, and effectiveness dimensions.

TABLE I

DERIVATION OF EIGHT MANAGERIAL TYPES

Task	Relationships	Effectiveness	Type
Low	Low	Low	Separated - (Deserter)
Low	High	Low	Related - (Missionary)
High	Low	Low	Dedicated - (Autocrat)
High	High	Low	Integrated - (Compromiser)
Low	Low	High	Separated + (Bureaucrat)
Low	High	High	Related + (Developer)
High	Low	High	Dedicated + (Ben. Autocrat)
High	High	High	Integrated + (Executive)

Source: W. J. Reddin, Managerial Effectiveness and Style: Individual or Situation (1983b).

Many disagreements exist over which of the leadership styles is best. Early research seemed to indicate that the integrated style characterized by high task orientation and relationships orientation was best (Blake and Mouton, 1964). However, Reddin (1970) maintained that any of the four styles could be effective under the right set of circumstances.

From the central principle of the 3-D Theory that leader effective-
ness results from a match of style to situation, the three key skills of
an effective leader may be described as situational sensitivity skill,
style flexibility skill, and situational management skill. Situational
sensitivity is important to administrators in order to diagnose a situa-
tion to help decide which style to use. Style flexibility matches their
style to the situation or situational management skill to change the
situation itself. The acquisition of these three management skills was
called experience.

The instrument developed by Reddin (1983a) to measure self-perceived
leadership style and situational demands is the Management Position An-
alysis Test. The MPAT was constructed to measure the eight types of
managerial behavior and two orientations, task and relationships. The
test does not attempt to obtain any absolute measure of managerial effec-
tiveness. It measures the style of behavior, in terms of task and rela-
tionships, used with more-effective and less-effective behavior. The
MPAT provides the leader with a style-profile, which is a description of
the extent to which each leadership style is used. The test will be
discussed in greater detail in Chapter III of this study.

Summary

The current leadership literature revealed the complexity of the
subject. The theories are diverse and deal with such factors as personal
traits, personalities, decision-making techniques, and orientations
toward task and people. Some theorists contend that an effective leader
demonstrates an above average concern for both the task and relationships
dimensions.

The leadership style theories provide a better understanding of administrative behavior which is crucial to improved management. Several of the findings and applications of the current research have specific implications to higher education.

The current emphasis of leadership literature is focused upon the contingency model of leadership effectiveness, which suggests that different leadership behaviors are required in different situations. This approach theorized that there was no single ideal leadership style. The effectiveness of a leader was dependent upon his or her ability to match leadership style to different situations.

Academic departments are the basic organizational units of higher education institutions. The survival of American colleges is largely dependent upon the ability of the academic departments to provide quality educational programs (Jennerich, 1981). The importance of the chairperson can no longer be ignored. They are part of a powerful group within the college structure. The chairperson is generally appointed to the position based upon scholarly reputation.

The leadership style of the chairperson has been found to be positively correlated to professor job satisfaction. The effectiveness of a chairperson is most often determined by leadership ability. However, most enter the position with little preparation, which leaves much of the department administration to chance (Creswell, 1990).

The 3-D Theory of Managerial Effectiveness identified four basic leadership styles and eight managerial styles associated with the personality elements of task orientation and relationships orientation. The 3-D Theory does not attempt to put people into one style area. Chairpersons use all styles, depending on situational elements.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The central purpose of this study was to determine the relationship between selected personal and professional factors and the task orientation, relationships orientation, and leadership style of physical education chairpersons in higher education institutions. In addition, a population and sample description, a discussion on the questionnaire, data collection, and analysis of the data were discussed in this chapter.

Description of the Population

The population for this study consisted of 202 chairpersons of physical education departments located in four-year public colleges and universities. These institutions were baccalaureate and limited master's degree-granting institutions whose enrollments were between 2,000 and 10,000 students. The institutions for this study were identified in the 1990 Higher Education Directory and were cross-referenced with the Physical Education Gold Book (1989).

The list of institutions was divided into six districts of the American Alliance for Health, Physical Education, Recreation and Dance: northwest, central, midwest, eastern, southern, and southwest. Stratified proportional sampling was used to achieve geographical representativeness. The number selected from each district was in proportion to

the size of that stratum in the total population. A sample size of 132 was selected (Isaac and Michael, 1981).

The sample consisted of 38% (50 institutions) from the Southern District, 25% (33 institutions) from the Eastern District, 15% (20 institutions) from the Midwest District, 13% (17 institutions) from the Central District, 5% (7 institutions) from the Southwest District, and 4% (5 institutions) from the Northwest District. The sample was randomly selected from the population.

Instrumentation

The Management Position Analysis Test (MPAT) was selected for use in this study to determine the leadership styles of individual respondents. The test is directly related to the 3-D Theory of Management Effectiveness discussed in Chapter II. This test is composed of 80 sets of four statements, with each designed to provide a style profile or a description of an individual's style of on-the-job leadership behavior. The MPAT is a forced-choice instrument which measures the chairperson's perceived managerial style in his or her current position.

The chairpersons were instructed to read the four statements in each set and to make an interpretation as to which two statements best described his/her behavior in their current management position. From the statements and choices made by these chairpersons, descriptive behaviors relative to one of the eight leadership styles discussed in Chapter II were determined, along with the task orientation and relationships orientation scores.

The MPAT measures the eight types of behavior and two orientations. Reddin (1983b) decided to measure each type against a wider domain of situations. The wider domain approach was chosen so as to attempt to

measure manager behavior more broadly. Twenty situational elements were derived subjectively to represent a wide range of situational elements in which a manager might use one behavior or another (Reddin, 1983b).

A panel of experts selected by Reddin (1983b) reviewed and sorted the items to correspond with one of the leadership styles. Each of the statements had been tested and statistically refined in order to eliminate the less discriminating ones. The item presentation was designed so that each set contained either more-effective or less-effective items, selection of two of four items, and randomization of the situational items.

Scores of each of the leadership style dimensions, task orientation and relationships orientation were determined by summing the number of times the respondent selected statements which were descriptive of high orientation in the specific dimension. The range of possible raw scores for a given dimension range from a minimum score of zero to a maximum score of 160. The higher the score, the more concerned the respondent was with the orientation being measured. The leadership style synthesis was determined from summing the number of times the style was actually chosen. The maximum frequency of choice for each style is 40 and the minimum is zero. The style receiving the most frequencies indicated a dominant style.

Validity and Reliability of the MPAT

Reddin (1983b) correlated the MPAT with four other tests whose purpose was to measure similar or related concepts to the MPAT. These instruments were: Fleishman's (1969) Leadership Opinion Questionnaire (LOQ), Fiedler's (1967) Least Preferred Co-Workers Measure (LPC), Hall's (1961) My Organization Measure (MO), and Gordon's (1970) Work Environment

Preference Schedule (WEPS). The findings (as Reddin predicted) revealed significant correlations with the LOQ, the MO, and the WEPS. For one test, the LPC, no significant correlations were found, and according to Reddin (1983b, p. 107), "Since the LPC has not been correlated to much else either, this finding would not seem to suggest a lower usefulness for the MPAT."

Reddin (1983b) reported the results of the MPAT scores when compared to managerial behavior ratings of participants at a Managerial Effectiveness Seminar. This seminar was an instrumented, intensive six-day seminar designed to acquaint a manager with his or her behavior, how to assess a situation, and to promote teamwork. The MPAT scores were compared to managerial behavior ratings by peers. The relationships found were basically positive. Reddin cited these positive findings as further evidence of validity after one has considered the difficulties with the experimental conditions at the seminar.

Reddin (1983b) reported a test-retest reliability of the MPAT instrument. A study of 27 educational administrators yielded reliability coefficients for the eight styles and orientations from .72 to .85. The time between testing sessions was one week. A similar study was also reported of 104 managers tested-retested three months apart. The reliability coefficients for the eight styles and orientation ranged from .56 to .77.

Demographic Data Questionnaire

A demographic data questionnaire was developed by the researcher to collect personal and environmental information about the participants. The demographic data questionnaire was modified from one used by King (1986). A copy of the questionnaire is found in Appendix C. The

specific variables included on the questionnaire were: method of selection for the position, years of total professional experience, years of experience in one's current position, the number of full-time faculty directly supervised, gender, age, and formal management training.

Data Collection

This study was designed to investigate the task orientation, relationships orientation, and leadership style of selected chairpersons of physical education departments in state-supported four-year institutions of higher education. The instrument used was the MPAT designed by Reddin (1983a). The study was also designed to identify selected professional and personal characteristics of the chairpersons, and to determine if significant relationships existed between these characteristics, leadership style, and orientation scores.

The researcher began the study in January, 1990, after securing permission from Organizational Tests, Ltd., New Brunswick, Canada (see Appendix A). The names and addresses of the institutions which had enrollments within the designated range of 2,000 to 10,000 were obtained from the 1990 Higher Education Directory.

Data collection was begun September 4, 1990, by mailing the questionnaire, demographic request, and the investigator's cover letter to each physical education chairperson in the sample (see Appendixes B, C, and D). The questionnaires were coded for statistical analysis. A follow-up inquiry was mailed on October 1, 1990, to the participants who had not returned the questionnaire. A copy of this letter may be found in Appendix E. The data analysis was begun in April, 1991, and was completed in May of the same year.

Methods and Procedures of Statistical Analysis

The responses to the MPAT were scored by following the instructions that were provided with the test. The choices made on each of the 80 sets of statements were recorded and tallied to indicate the total number of times the respondent selected each style.

The raw scores for task orientation and relationships orientation were calculated by summing the number of times the four styles containing the specific orientation were selected. From the raw scores, information was obtained to tabulate a chairperson's task orientation, relationships orientation, and leadership style.

The first part of the analysis of data consisted of descriptive statistics of the physical education chairpersons who participated in the study and their leadership style. The descriptions were provided according to frequencies and percentages, with mean scores and ranges provided when appropriate.

The second part of the data analysis consisted of a synthesis of leadership styles selected by the respondents. This involved the classification of task orientation and relationships orientation scores into high and low. The classifications were based upon Reddin's (1983b) suggestion that the theoretical average of each orientation was 80.

The final part of the analysis consisted of a statistical test for each hypothesis. A series of one-way analysis of variance (unweighted means) were performed to determine the between-groups and within-groups variance of the task orientation and relationships orientation for each of the independent variables. This particular test was chosen due to the unequal number of subjects per group.

Chi-square was used to analyze differences in leadership style according to categories established for the demographic variable. This procedure was chosen because of its computational simplicity and appropriateness for frequency data. The independent variables and strata groups used for hypotheses one through seven are listed in Table II.

TABLE II

INDEPENDENT VARIABLE GROUPS FOR HYPOTHESES
ONE THROUGH SEVEN

Hypothesis	Variable	Group
1	Years of experience in current position	1-2 3-5 6-10 11 or more
2	Gender	Male Female
3	Total years of professional experience	1-10 11-15 16-20 21-25 16 or more
4	Age	25-40 41-45 46-50 51 or more
5	Number of faculty supervised	1-5 6-15 15 or more
6	Formal management or administrative education	Yes No
7	Method of selection for the position	Dean Faculty

The independent variables were categorized to simplify their distribution. The data were produced from the information provided on the demographic questionnaire. The 0.01 level of significance for both analytical procedures was implemented as the level of acceptance or rejection of the hypotheses. The 0.01 level was selected over the 0.05, due to the low number of independent variables being reused in the analyses. The Guyl StatPak (1983) was used as the statistical procedure to analyze the data.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSES OF DATA

Introduction

The analyses of the hypotheses stated in Chapter III and the descriptive data collected for this study are presented in this chapter. A demographic data questionnaire completed by the HPER chairpersons included the following specific variables: method of appointment, years of experience in current position, total years of professional experience, number of full-time faculty supervised, gender, age, areas of administrative responsibilities, managerial preparation, and the perception of the chairperson of the need for managerial training. The MPAT was used for determining the leadership styles of individual respondents. The findings were based upon the MPAT scores and the demographic data questionnaires returned by 52 of the 132 HPER chairpersons contacted. Five of the returned questionnaires were not used in the study. Three respondents completed the demographic questionnaires, but did not complete the MPAT. Thus, these three respondents were not included in the statistics of this study, other than this citing. Two chairpersons indicated that they did not wish to participate in the study. There were 80 administrators who did not respond, either by not returning the questionnaire or by indicating that they did not wish to participate in the study. In all, there were 47 physical education chairpersons who did participate in the study. The 47 participating institutions are listed in Appendix F.

Demographic Data

Method of Appointment

Respondents were asked to indicate their method of appointment for the position currently held. Indicated in Table III are the frequency and percentages of each group. Over 63% regarded their selection as being appointed by the dean or other academic officials.

TABLE III

DISTRIBUTION OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION CHAIRPERSONS
BY METHOD OF APPOINTMENT

Method	Frequency	Percentage
Appointed by dean	30	63.8
Elected by faculty	17	36.2
No response	0	0.0
Totals	47	100.0

Years of Experience in Current Position

Data provided by the HPER chairpersons regarding years of experience in their current position are shown in Table IV. Thirty six percent of the chairpersons indicated that they have held their current position for 11 or more years. Twenty-three percent of the chairpersons have been in their current position for 6-10 years. The category mean for years of experience in current position was 2.744. This indicated that the typical years of service in the current position was slightly more than five years.

TABLE IV

DISTRIBUTION OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION CHAIRPERSONS
BY YEARS IN CURRENT POSITION

Years in Position	Frequency	Percentage
1-2	8	17.0
3-5	10	21.3
6-10	11	23.4
11 or more	17	36.2
No response	1	2.1
Totals	47	100.0

Total Years of Professional Experience

The responses given by the HPER chairpersons related to their total years of professional experience are displayed in Table V. All of the respondents had at least 10 years of professional experience. Thirty-two (68.1%) of the respondents indicated that they had 26 or more years. The category mean for total years of professional experience was 4.489, indicating a typical professional experience level of slightly more than 21 years.

TABLE V

DISTRIBUTION OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION CHAIRPERSONS
BY TOTAL YEARS OF PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE

Total Professional Experience	Frequency	Percentage
1-10	0	0.0
11-15	1	2.1
16-20	7	14.9
21-25	7	14.9
26 or more	32	68.1
No response	0	0.0
Totals	47	100.0

Number of Full-Time Faculty Members

Directly Supervised

In Table VI, the distribution of HPER chairpersons is presented by the number of full-time faculty members in their respective departments. The range of 6-15 faculty members had a frequency of 28 (59.6%) respondents. The category mean was 2.19. This indicated an average department size of slightly more than six faculty members.

TABLE VI

DISTRIBUTION OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION CHAIRPERSONS
BY FULL-TIME FACULTY MEMBERS SUPERVISED

Groups	Frequency	Percentage
1-5	5	10.6
6-15	28	59.6
16 or more	14	29.8
No response	0	0.0
Totals	47	100.0

Gender

Respondents were asked to indicate their gender on the demographic questionnaire. Included in Table VII are the frequency and percentages of each group. The distribution of physical education chairpersons by

gender revealed that 35 male and 12 female chairpersons participated in the study. These members represented 74.5 and 25.5%, respectively.

TABLE VII

DISTRIBUTION OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION
CHAIRPERSONS BY GENDER

Gender	Frequency	Percentage
Male	35	74.5
Female	12	25.5
No response	0	0.0
Totals	47	100.0

Age

Data provided by the HPER chairpersons regarding their age are indicated in Table VIII. Over one-half or 59.6% of the respondents were in the age category of 51 or more years of age, and the next highest level was the 46-50 years category, representing 23.4% of the respondents. These two groups, ranging in age from 46 or more years, represented 83.0% of the total number of respondents. The category mean was 3.383, indicating a typical age of slightly more than 46 years of age.

TABLE VIII

DISTRIBUTION OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION
CHAIRPERSONS BY AGE

Age Group	Frequency	Percentage
25-40	2	4.2
41-45	6	12.8
46-50	11	23.4
51 or more	28	59.6
No response	0	0.0
Totals	47	100.0

Areas of Administrative Responsibilities

Data provided by the respondents regarding their administrative responsibilities are displayed in Table IX. According to the data collected, over 90% identified themselves as a HPER chairperson, or a chairperson with other administrative duties identified by the respondents as teaching and research. Only three respondents (6.4%) indicated they had dual responsibilities as the department chairperson or athletic director.

TABLE IX

DISTRIBUTION OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION CHAIRPERSONS
BY ADMINISTRATIVE AREAS

Areas	Frequency	Percentage
Physical Education	25	53.2
Physical Education plus Athletic Director	3	6.4
Physical Education with other adminis- trative duties	19	40.4
No response	0	0.0
Totals	47	100.0

Perception of the Need for Admin-

istrative Training

Respondents were asked if they would recommend some form of formal management training for department chairpersons. The frequency and percentages of each group are displayed in Table X. Eighty-three percent perceived a need for formal management training for the chairpersons.

Managerial Preparation

The physical education chairpersons were asked to indicate whether they had received any formal management training for department chairpersons. The responses given by the HPER chairpersons are presented in Table XI. Of the 47 respondents, only 12 (25.5%) had received any formal management training prior to becoming a department chairperson.

TABLE X

DISTRIBUTION OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION CHAIRPERSONS
BY PERCEPTION OF NEED FOR FORMAL
MANAGEMENT TRAINING

Group	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	39	83.0
No	6	12.8
No response	2	4.3
Totals	47	100.0

TABLE XI

DISTRIBUTION OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION CHAIRPERSONS
BY FORMAL MANAGEMENT TRAINING

Group	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	12	25.5
No	34	72.3
No response	1	2.1
Totals	47	100.0

Description of Leadership Styles

The MPAT produced scores on two orientations, task orientation and relationships orientation. Task orientation and relationships orientation were defined in Chapter I of this study. Six (12.8%) of the HPER chairpersons had a high task orientation score, while 47 (87.2%) had a low task orientation score. A high relationships orientation score was shown by 31 (66.0%) of the respondents, and 16 (34.0%) of the respondents had low relationships orientation scores.

The scores from the MPAT may be combined to describe each physical education chairperson's Leadership Style Profile. The Leadership Style Profile is a quantitative description of the extent to which an individual used each of the managerial styles. The score for each style was determined by summing the number of times an individual selected a MPAT statement which was descriptive of that style. The profile is a set of eight numbers ranging from 0 to 40, which quantitatively describe the extent to which each style is exhibited. Reddin (1983b) stated that the average score for each style is approximately 20.

Presented in Table XII is the composite Leadership Style Profile for the total sample and an overall picture of the average leadership style by the respondents in this study. This was a quantitative description of the direction to which an individual was inclined in so far as the eight leadership styles were concerned. The Bureaucrat Style mean score of 10.49 was the lowest. The Missionary Style mean score of 27.36 was the highest.

The MPAT also indicated the dominant leadership styles that were prevalent among the participating chairpersons. The responses indicated by the respondents relating to their management styles are displayed in

Table XIII. Reddin (1980, p. 4) cautioned administrators that "There is no one best or ideal style, but rather, effectiveness will result from using the style most appropriate for the situation."

TABLE XII

PHYSICAL EDUCATION CHAIRPERSONS' LEADERSHIP
STYLE PROFILE (MEAN SCORES AND RANGES)

Leadership Style Profile	Mean Scores	Range
Deserter	10.66	3-25
Missionary	27.36	14-37
Autocrat	15.51	7-25
Compromiser	26.23	13-36
Bureaucrat	10.49	1-23
Developer	26.38	14-35
Benevolent Autocrat	19.17	10-28
Executive	23.71	15-30

Note: Each style includes 47 scores.

TABLE XIII

DISTRIBUTION OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION CHAIR-
PERSONS BY MANAGEMENT STYLE

Management Style	Frequency	Percentage
More Effective:		
Bureaucrat	0	0.0
Developer	10	21.3
Benevolent Autocrat	0	0.0
Executive	4	8.5
	14	29.8
Less Effective:		
Deserter	0	0.0
Missionary	17	36.2
Autocrat	0	0.0
Compromiser	16	34.0
	33	70.2
Totals	47	100.0

Analyses of the Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1

There are no significant differences in the task orientation and
relationships orientation scores, and leadership style among HPER

chairpersons with different lengths of experience in their current position.

Since each of the individual leadership style scores was reported in terms of task orientation, relationships orientation, and leadership style, it was decided to construct three separate hypotheses as they pertained to the chairpersons' experiences in their current position. The statement of each hypothesis is as follows:

Hypothesis 1a. There are no significant differences in the task orientation scores among HPER chairpersons with different lengths of experience in their current position.

Hypothesis 1b. There are no significant differences in the relationship orientation scores among HPER chairpersons with different lengths of experience in their current position.

Hypothesis 1c. There are no significant differences in the leadership style among HPER chairpersons with different lengths of experience in their current position.

In order to test the hypotheses (H1a and H1b), a one-way analysis of variance (unweighted means) was completed for the current position groups for task orientation scores and then repeated for the relationships orientation scores. Hypothesis 1C was tested using the chi-square test of independence. The output generated for these analyses were tested at a 0.01 significance level.

Hypothesis 1a

There are no significant differences in the task orientation scores among HPER chairpersons having different lengths of experience in their current position.

To test this hypothesis, each chairperson was assigned to a group. The chairpersons were asked to check the appropriate group listed on the demographic data questionnaire. The tables used to illustrate this hypothesis correspond with the groups on the demographic data questionnaire. Using the years of experience in their current position as the independent variable, a one-way analysis of variance was performed comparing the task orientation mean scores of the four groups. At the 0.01 level of significance (F = 0.478, df = 3/42), it was found that the differences among the four groups were not significant (Table XIV). The null hypothesis was accepted, and the conclusion was that there is no significant difference in the task orientation scores for HPER chairpersons having different lengths of experience in their current position.

TABLE XIV

SUMMARY OF ANOVA FOR EFFECT OF YEARS OF
EXPERIENCE IN THE CURRENT POSITION
ON LEADERSHIP DIMENSIONS

Dimension	df	MS	F
Task Orientation	3/42	21.911	.478
Relationships Orientation	3/42	18.263	.129

Hypothesis 1b

There are no significant differences in the relationships orientation scores among HPER chairpersons with different lengths of experience in their current position.

The same method for grouping was used to classify each chairperson as in Hypothesis 1a. Using the years of experience in their current position as the independent variable, a one-way analysis of variance was performed comparing the relationships orientation mean scores of the four groups. At the 0.01 level of significance (F = 0.129, df = 3/42), it was found that the differences among the four groups were not significant (see Table XIV). The null hypothesis can be accepted, and the conclusion was that there is no significant difference in the relationships orientation scores for physical education chairpersons having different lengths of experience in their current position.

Hypothesis 1c

There are no significant differences in the leadership style among HPER chairpersons with different lengths of experience in their current position.

This hypothesis was tested by assigning each chairperson to one of the four groups for length of experience in his or her current position. Within each group, the leadership style scores were used to classify each administrator. A 4 x 8 chi-square analysis was performed, and the resulting contingency table is shown in Table XV. The chi-square (x = 6.760, df = 9) calculated was not significant at the 0.01 level. As a result, the null hypothesis was accepted that there is no significant

difference in the dominant leadership style of HPER chairpersons when categorized by the years in their current position.

TABLE XV

CONTINGENCY TABLE FOR EXPERIENCE IN CURRENT
POSITION GROUPS BY LEADERSHIP STYLE

Experience in Current Position	Leadership Style							
	Miss.	Comp.	Dev.	Exec.	Aut.	Des.	Ben. Aut.	Bur.
1-2 years	4	1	2	1	0	0	0	0
3-5 years	3	5	1	1	0	0	0	0
6-10 years	6	2	2	1	0	0	0	0
11+ years	4	7	5	4	0	0	0	0
Column Totals	17	15	10	4	0	0	0	0

Note: There were no missing cases.

Hypothesis 2

There is no significant difference in the task orientation, relationships orientation scores, and leadership style between HPER chairpersons based on gender.

Since each of the individual leadership style scores were reported in terms of task orientation, relationships orientation, and leadership style, it was decided to construct three separate hypotheses as they

pertained to the chairpersons' gender. The statement of each hypothesis is as follows:

Hypothesis 2a. There is no significant difference in the task orientation scores between HPER chairpersons based on gender.

Hypothesis 2b. There is no significant difference in the relationships orientation scores between HPER chairpersons based on gender.

Hypothesis 2c. There is no significant difference in the leadership style between HPER chairpersons based on gender.

In order to test the hypotheses (H2a and H2b), a one-way analysis of variance (unweighted means) was completed for gender for task orientation scores and then repeated for the relationships orientation scores. Hypothesis 2c was tested using the chi-square test of independence. The output generated for these analyses was tested at a 0.01 significance level.

Hypothesis 2a

There is no significant difference in the task orientation scores between HPER chairpersons based on gender.

To test this hypothesis, the HPER chairperson's gender was identified as the independent variable. A one-way analysis (unweighted means) of variance was performed comparing the task orientation mean scores of the two groups. At the 0.01 level of significance (F = .117, df = 1/45), it was found that the difference between the two groups was not significant (Table XVI). The null hypothesis was accepted, and the conclusion was that there is no significant difference in the task orientation scores for HPER chairpersons when categorized by gender.

TABLE XVI

SUMMARY OF ANOVA FOR EFFECT OF GENDER
ON LEADERSHIP DIMENSIONS

Dimension	df	MS	F
Task Orientation	1/45	5.672	.118
Relationships Orientation	1/45	828.061	7.230

Hypothesis 2b

There is no significant difference in the relationships orientation scores between HPER chairpersons based on gender.

The same method for grouping was used to classify each chairperson as in Hypothesis 2a. Using gender as the independent variable, a one-way analysis of variance (unweighted means) was performed comparing the relationships orientation mean scores of the two groups. At the 0.01 level of significance (F = 7.230, df = 1/45), it was found that the difference between the two groups was significant (see Table XVI). The null hypothesis was rejected, and the conclusion was that there is a significant difference in the relationships orientation scores for HPER chairpersons when categorized by gender. As a follow-up analysis to the significant F ratio, the difference can be directly interpreted, due to only one degree of freedom. The mean score of the female group (111.083) was higher than that of the male group (101.457).

Hypothesis 2c

There is no significant difference in the dominant leadership style between HPER chairpersons based on gender.

This hypothesis was tested by assigning each chairperson to one of the two groups, male or female. Within each group, the dominant leadership styles were used to classify each administrator. A 2 x 8 chi-square analysis was performed, and the resulting contingency table is shown in Table XVII.

TABLE XVII

CONTINGENCY TABLE FOR GENDER GROUPS BY
LEADERSHIP STYLE

| Gender | Leadership Style | | | | | | | |
	Miss.	Comp.	Dev.	Exec.	Aut.	Des.	Ben. Aut.	Bur.
Male	12	10	9	4	0	0	0	0
Female	5	6	1	0	0	0	0	0
Total	17	15	10	4	0	0	0	0

Note: There were no missing cases.

The chi-square (x = 3.980, df = 3) calculated was not significant at the 0.01 level. The null hypothesis was accepted, and the conclusion was that there is no significant difference in leadership style for HPER chairpersons when categorized by gender.

Hypothesis 3

There are no significant differences in the task orientation, relationships orientation scores, and leadership style among HPER chairpersons with different amounts of professional experience.

The respondents were asked to respond to one of five categories on the demographic questionnaire. Due to no response in the 1-10 years category, for analysis it was collapsed with the 11-15 years category to produce a new group, 1-15 years.

Since each of the individual leadership style scores was reported in terms of task orientation, relationships orientation, and leadership style, it was decided to construct three separate hypotheses as they pertained to the chairperson's total years of professional experience. The statement of each hypothesis is as follows:

Hypothesis 3a. There are no significant differences in the task orientation scores among HPER chairpersons with different amounts of professional experience.

Hypothesis 3b. There are no significant differences in the relationships orientation scores among HPER chairpersons with different amounts of professional experience.

Hypothesis 3c. There are no significant differences in the leadership style among HPER chairpersons with different amounts of professional experience.

In order to test the hypotheses (H3a and H3b), a one-way analysis of variance (unweighted means) was completed for total years of professional experience for task orientation scores and then repeated for the relationships orientation scores. Hypothesis 3c was tested using the

chi-square test of independence. The output generated for these analyses was tested at a 0.01 significance level.

Hypothesis 3a

There are no significant differences in the task orientation scores among HPER chairpersons with different amounts of professional experience.

To test this hypothesis, the HPER chairperson's years of professional experience was identified as the independent variable. A one-way analysis of variance (unweighted means) was performed comparing the task orientation mean scores of the four groups. At the 0.01 level of significance (F = 0.170, df = 3/43), it was found that the differences between the four groups were not significant (Table XVIII). The null hypothesis was accepted, and the conclusion was that there are no significant differences in the task orientation scores for HPER chairpersons when categorized by total years of professional experience.

TABLE XVIII

SUMMARY OF ANOVA FOR EFFECT OF YEARS OF
PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE ON
LEADERSHIP DIMENSIONS

Dimension	df	MS	F
Task Orientation	3/43	8.485	.170
Relationships Orientation	3/43	62.232	.460

Hypothesis 3b

There are no significant differences in the relationships orientation scores among HPER chairpersons with different amounts of professional experience.

The same method for grouping was used to classify each chairperson as in Hypothesis 3a. Using years of professional experience as the independent variable, a one-way analysis of variance (unweighted means) was performed comparing the relationships orientation mean scores of the four groups. At the 0.01 level of significance ($F = 0.460$, $df = 3/43$), it was found that the differences between the four groups were not significant (see Table XVIII). The null hypothesis was accepted, and the conclusion was that there are no significant differences in the relationships orientation scores for HPER chairpersons with different amounts of professional experience.

Hypothesis 3c

There are no significant differences in the dominant leadership style among HPER chairpersons with different amounts of professional experience.

This hypothesis was tested by assigning each chairperson to one of the four groups based upon the information obtained through the demographic questionnaire. Within each group, the dominant leadership style was used to classify each administrator. A 4 x 8 chi-square analysis was performed, and the resulting contingency table is shown in Table XIX. The chi-square ($x = 9.822$, $df = 9$) calculated was not significant at the 0.01 level. The null hypothesis was accepted, and the conclusion was

that there are no significant differences in the leadership styles for HPER chairpersons with different amounts of professional experience.

TABLE XIX

CONTINGENCY TABLE FOR PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE
BY LEADERSHIP STYLE

Professional	Leadership Style							
Experience	Miss.	Comp.	Dev.	Exec.	Aut.	Des.	Ben. Aut.	Bur.
1-15 years	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
16-20 years	3	0	2	2	0	0	0	0
21-25 years	3	3	1	1	0	0	0	0
26 + years	12	12	7	1	0	0	0	0
Totals	18	16	10	4	0	0	0	0

Note: There were no missing cases.

Hypothesis 4

There are no significant differences in the task orientation, relationships orientation scores, and leadership style among HPER chairpersons of different ages.

The respondents were asked to respond to one of four age groups on the demographic questionnaire. Due to only two responses in the "25-40 years old" category, it was collapsed with the "41-45 years old" category to produce a new group, "25-45 years old" for statistical purposes.

Since each of the individual leadership style scores was reported in terms of task orientation, relationships orientation, and leadership style, it was decided to construct three separate hypotheses as they pertained to the age groups of the chairpersons. The statement of each hypothesis is as follows:

Hypothesis 4a. There are no significant differences in the task orientation scores among HPER chairpersons of different ages.

Hypothesis 4b. There are no significant differences in the relationships orientation scores among HPER chairpersons of different ages.

Hypothesis 4c. There are no significant differences in the leadership style among HPER chairpersons of different ages.

In order to test the hypotheses (H4a and H4b), a one-way analysis of variance (unweighted means) was completed for the age groups for task orientation scores and then repeated for the relationships orientation scores. Hypothesis 4c was tested using the chi-square test of independence. The output generated for these analyses was tested at a 0.01 significance level.

Hypothesis 4a

There are no significant differences in the task orientation scores among HPER chairpersons of different ages.

To test this hypothesis, the HPER chairperson's age was identified as the independent variable and was divided into three groups. A one-way analysis of variance (unweighted means) was performed comparing the task orientation mean scores of the three groups. At the 0.01 level of significance ($F = 0.793$, $df = 2/44$), it was found that the differences among the three groups were not significant (Table XX). The null hypothesis can be accepted, and the conclusion was that there are no significant

differences in the task orientation scores for HPER chairpersons when categorized by age.

TABLE XX

SUMMARY OF ANOVA FOR EFFECT OF AGE ON
LEADERSHIP DIMENSIONS

Dimension	df	MS	F
Task Orientation	2/44	37.887	.793
Relationships Orientation	2/44	168.324	1.304

Hypothesis 4b

There are no significant differences in the relationships orientation scores among HPER chairpersons of different ages.

The same method for grouping was used to classify each chairperson as in Hypothesis 4a. Using age as the independent variable, a one-way analysis of variance (unweighted means) was performed, comparing the relationships orientation mean scores of the three groups. At the 0.01 level of significance ($F = 1.304$, df = 2/44), it was found that the differences among the three groups were not significant (see Table XX). The null hypothesis was accepted, and the conclusion was that there are no significant differences in the relationships orientation scores for HPER chairpersons of different ages.

Hypothesis 4c

There are no significant differences in the leadership style among HPER chairpersons of different ages.

This hypothes's was tested by assigning each chairperson to one of the three groups based upon the information obtained through the demographic questionnaire. Within each group the dominant leadership style was used to classify each administrator. A 3 x 8 chi-square analysis was performed, and the resulting contingency table is shown in Table XXI.

TABLE XXI

CONTINGENCY TABLE FOR AGE BY LEADERSHIP STYLE

Age	Miss.	Comp.	Dev.	Exec.	Aut.	Des.	Ben. Aut.	Bur.
25-45 years	3	1	2	2	0	0	0	0
46-50 years	5	4	2	0	0	0	0	0
51 + years	9	11	6	2	0	0	0	0
Totals	17	16	10	4	0	0	0	0

Note: There were no missing cases.

The chi-square (x = 5.381, df = 6) calculated was not significant at the 0.01 level. The null hypothesis was accepted, and the conclusion was that there are no significant differences in the leadership styles for HPER chairpersons of different ages.

Hypothesis 5

There are no significant differences in the task orientation, relationships orientation scores, and leadership style among HPER chairpersons with different numbers of full-time faculty members supervised.

The demographic data questionnaire provided space for the chairpersons to respond with the number of full-time faculty members within their departments. The respondents were asked to respond to one of three groups on the demographic questionnaire. The groups were: 1-5 persons, 6-15 persons, and 15 or more persons.

Since each of the individual leadership style scores was reported in terms of task orientation, relationships orientation, and leadership style, it was decided to construct three separate hypotheses as they pertained to the number of full-time faculty members supervised. The statement of each hypothesis is as follows:

Hypothesis 5a. There are no significant differences in the task orientation scores among HPER chairpersons with different numbers of full-time faculty members supervised.

Hypothesis 5b. There are no significant differences in the relationships orientation scores among HPER chairpersons with different numbers of full-time faculty members supervised.

Hypothesis 5c. There are no significant differences in the leadership style among HPER chairpersons with different numbers of full-time faculty members supervised.

In order to test the hypotheses (H5a and H5b), a one-way analysis of variance (unweighted means) was completed for the number of full-time faculty members supervised for task orientation scores and then repeated for the relationships orientation scores. Hypothesis 5c was tested using the chi-square test of independence. The output generated for these analyses was tested at a 0.01 significance level.

Hypothesis 5a

There are no significant differences in the task orientation scores among HPER chairpersons with different numbers of full-time faculty members supervised.

Using the number of full-time faculty members supervised as the independent variable, a one-way analysis of variance (unweighted means) was performed comparing the task orientation mean scores of the three groups. At the 0.01 level of significance (F = 0.387, df = 2/44), it was found that the differences among the three groups were not significant (Table XXII).

TABLE XXII

SUMMARY OF ANOVA FOR EFFECT OF SIZE OF
DEPARTMENTS ON LEADERSHIP DIMENSIONS

Dimension	df	MS	F
Task Orientation	2/44	18.809	.387
Relationships Orientation	2/44	21.089	.156

The null hypothesis was accepted, and the conclusion was that there are no significant differences in the task orientation scores for HPER chairpersons when categorized by the number of full-time faculty members within their department.

Hypothesis 5b

There are no significant differences in the relationships orientation scores among HPER chairpersons with different numbers of full-time faculty members supervised.

The same method for grouping was used to classify each chairperson as in Hypothesis 5a. Using the number of full-time faculty members supervised as the independent variable, a one-way analysis of variance (unweighted means) was performed comparing the relationships orientation mean scores of the three groups. At the 0.01 level of significance (F = 0.156, df = 2/44), it was found that the differences among the three groups were not significant (see Table XXII). The null hypothesis was accepted, and the conclusion was that there are no significant differences in the relationships orientation scores for HPER chairpersons when categorized by the number of full-time faculty members supervised.

Hypothesis 5c

There are no significant differences in the leadership style among HPER chairpersons with different numbers of full-time faculty members supervised.

This hypothesis was tested by assigning each chairperson to one of the three groups, based upon information obtained through the demographic questionnaire. Within each group, the dominant leadership style was used to classify each administrator. A 3 x 8 chi-square analysis was

performed, and the resulting contingency table is shown in Table XXIII. The chi-square (x = 2.391, df = 6) calculated was not significant at the 0.01 level. The null hypothesis can be accepted, and the conclusion was that there are no significant differences in the leadership style for HPER chairpersons having different numbers of full-time faculty members supervised.

TABLE XXIII

CONTINGENCY TABLE FOR SIZE OF DEPARTMENT
BY LEADERSHIP STYLE

Number of	Leadership Style							
Faculty	Miss.	Comp.	Dev.	Exec.	Aut.	Des.	Ben. Aut.	Bur.
1-5 members	1	2	2	0	0	0	0	0
6-15 members	10	9	6	3	0	0	0	0
16 + members	6	5	2	1	0	0	0	0
Totals	17	16	10	4	0	0	0	0

Note: There were no missing cases.

Hypothesis 6

There is no significant difference in the task orientation, relationships orientation scores, and leadership style among HPER chairpersons based on different levels of formal management or administrative education.

The demographic data questionnaire provided space for the chairpersons to indicate whether or not they had any formal management education prior to becoming a department chairperson. For the purpose of analysis, the information provided by the respondents was grouped into two categories: yes or no.

Since each of the individual leadership style scores was reported in terms of task orientation, relationships orientation, and leadership style, it was decided to construct three separate hypotheses as they pertained to the formal management education of the HPER chairperson. The statement of each hypothesis is as follows:

Hypothesis 6a. There is no significant difference in the task orientation scores between HPER chairpersons based on different levels of formal management or administrative education.

Hypothesis 6b. There is no significant difference in the relationships orientation scores between HPER chairpersons based on different levels of formal management or administrative education.

Hypothesis 6c. There is no significant difference in the leadership style between HPER chairpersons based on different levels of formal management or administrative education.

In order to test the hypothesis (H6a and H6b), a one-way analysis of variance (unweighted means) was completed for the levels of formal management education for task orientation scores and then repeated for the relationships orientation scores. Hypothesis 6c was tested using the chi-square test of independence. The output generated for these analyses was tested at a 0.01 significance level.

Hypothesis 6a

There is no significant difference in the task orientation scores between HPER chairpersons based on different levels of formal management or administrative education.

Using the level of formal management education as the independent variable, a one-way analysis of variance (unweighted means) was performed comparing the task orientation mean scores of the two groups. At the 0.01 level of significance (F = 0.146, df = 1/44), it was found that the difference between the two groups was not significant (Table XXIV). The null hypothesis was accepted, and the conclusion was that there is no significant difference in the task orientation scores for HPER chairpersons having different levels of formal management education prior to becoming a department chairperson.

TABLE XXIV

SUMMARY OF ANOVA FOR EFFECT OF MANAGEMENT
EDUCATION ON LEADERSHIP DIMENSIONS

Dimension	df	MS	F
Task Orientation	1/44	6.981	.146
Relationships Orientation	1/44	3.603	.026

Hypothesis 6b

There is no significant difference in the relationships orientation scores between HPER chairpersons based on different levels of formal management or administrative education.

The same method for grouping was used to classify each chairperson as in Hypothesis 6a. Using the level of formal management training as the independent variable, a one-way analysis of variance (weighted means) was performed comparing the relationships orientation mean scores of the two groups. At the 0.01 level of significance (F = 0.002, df = 1/44), it was found that the difference between the two groups was not significant (see Table XXIV). The null hypothesis was accepted, and the conclusion was that there is no significant difference in the relationships orientation scores for HPER chairpersons having different levels of formal management education prior to becoming a department chairperson.

Hypothesis 6c

There is no significant difference in the leadership style between HPER chairpersons based on different levels of formal management or administrative education.

This hypothesis was tested by assigning each chairperson to one of the two groups, based on information obtained through the demographic questionnaire. Within each group, the dominant leadership style was used to classify each administrator. A 2 x 8 chi-square analysis was performed, and the resulting contingency table is shown in Table XXV.

The chi-square (x = 1.096, df = 3) calculated was not significant at the 0.01 level. The null hypothesis can be accepted, and the conclusion was that there is no significant difference in leadership style for HPER

chairpersons having different levels of formal management education prior to becoming a department chairperson.

TABLE XXV

CONTINGENCY TABLE FOR MANAGEMENT EDUCATION
BY LEADERSHIP STYLE

Management Education	Leadership Style							
	Miss.	Comp.	Dev.	Exec.	Aut.	Des.	Ben. Aut.	Bur.
Yes	3	5	3	1	0	0	0	0
No	14	11	6	3	0	0	0	0
Totals	17	16	9	4	0	0	0	0

Note: There were no missing cases.

Hypothesis 7

There is no significant difference in the task orientation, relationships orientation scores, and leadership style between HPER chairpersons based on method of selection for the position.

The demographic data questionnaire provided space for the chairpersons to indicate their method of selection for their current position. For the purpose of analysis, the information provided by the respondents was grouped into two categories: appointed by the dean or other administrative officials, or elected by the faculty members of the respective departments.

Since each of the individual leadership style scores was reported in terms of task orientation, relationships orientation, and leadership style, it was decided to construct three separate hypotheses as they pertained to the method of selection for the HPER chairperson position. The statement of each hypothesis is as follows:

Hypothesis 7a. There is no significant difference in the task orientation scores between HPER chairpersons based on method of selection for the position.

Hypothesis 7b. There is no significant difference in the relationships orientation scores between HPER chairpersons based on method of selection for the position.

Hypothesis 7c. There is no significant difference in the leadership style between HPER chairpersons based on method of selection for the position.

In order to test the hypotheses (H7a and H7b), a one-way analysis of variance (unweighted means) was completed for the method of selecting groups for task orientation scores and then repeated for the relationships orientation scores. Hypothesis 7c was tested using the chi-square test of independence. The output generated for these analyses was tested at a 0.01 significance level.

Hypothesis 7a

There is no significant difference in the task orientation scores between HPER chairpersons based on method of selection for the position.

Using the method of selection as the independent variable, a one-way analysis of variance (unweighted means) was performed comparing the task orientation scores of the two groups. At the 0.01 level of significance (F = 0.447, df = 1/45), it was found that the difference between the two

groups was not significant (Table XXVI). The null hypothesis was accepted, and the conclusion was that there is no significant difference in the task orientation scores for HPER chairpersons based on method of selection for their current position.

TABLE XXVI

SUMMARY OF ANOVA FOR EFFECT OF METHOD OF
SELECTION ON LEADERSHIP DIMENSIONS

Dimension	df	MS	F
Task Orientation	1/45	21.363	.447
Relationships Orientation	1/45	273.184	2.153

Hypothesis 7b

There is no significant difference in the relationships orientation scores between HPER chairpersons based on method of selection for the position.

The same method for grouping was used to classify each chairperson as in Hypothesis 7a. Using the method of selection as the independent variable, a one-way analysis of variance (unweighted means) was performed comparing the relationships orientation mean scores of the two groups. At the 0.01 level of significance (F = 2.153, df = 1/44), it was found that the difference between the two groups was not significant (see Table

XXVI). The null hypothesis was accepted, and the conclusion was that there is no significant difference in the relationships orientation scores for HPER chairpersons based on method of selection for their current position.

Hypothesis 7c

There is no significant difference in the leadership style between HPER chairpersons based on method of selection for the position.

This hypothesis was tested by assigning each chairperson to one of the two groups based upon the information obtained through the demographic questionnaire. Within each group the dominant leadership styles were used to classify each administrator. A 2 x 8 chi-square analysis was performed, and the resulting contingency table is shown in Table XXVII.

TABLE XXVII

CONTINGENCY TABLE FOR METHOD OF SELECTION
BY LEADERSHIP STYLE

Method of Selection	Leadership Style							
	Miss.	Comp.	Dev.	Exec.	Aut.	Des.	Ben. Aut.	Bur.
Dean	10	10	7	3	0	0	0	0
Faculty	7	6	3	1	0	0	0	0
Totals	17	16	10	4	0	0	0	0

Note: There were no missing cases.

The chi-square (x = .577, df = 3) calculated was not significant at the 0.01 level. The null hypothesis was accepted, and the conclusion was that there is no significant difference in the leadership styles for physical education chairpersons based on method of selection for their current position.

Summary

The findings presented in this chapter include descriptive information concerning selected professional and personal characteristics and leadership style of HPER chairpersons. The statistical testing of the hypotheses was developed to identify significant differences between reported leadership dimensions based upon selected variables. Thirty-nine percent of the selected HPER chairpersons responded to the study.

Almost three-fourths (74.5%) of the participants were male. The majority (59.6%) of the HPER chairpersons were in the age category of 51 or more years, and the next highest category was the 46-50 years of age group, representing 23.4% of the respondents. The combined two groups represented 83.0% of the total number of respondents.

In response to the method of selection for the chairperson position, 63.8% of the subjects were appointed by the dean or other academic officials. All of the respondents had at least 10 years of professional experience and 68.1% had 26 or more years. Seventeen of the HPER chairpersons (36.2%) indicated that they had 11 or more years in the current position. The respondents were administrators of departments, with over one-half (59.6%) having 6-15 full-time faculty members.

One aspect of formal education which was reported showed that 34 of the HPER chairpersons (72.3%) had not received any type of formal management education prior to assuming the position. However, 83.0% indicated

that they would recommend some form of training or education for new chairpersons. Only three (6.4%) respondents were also serving as athletic directors.

In the overall study, the leadership style of Missionary (36.2%) was the most prominent of HPER chairpersons; 34.0% of those analyzed indicated a preference for the Compromiser style. A high task orientation score was reported for 12.8% of the respondents, while 66.0% indicated a high relationships orientation.

Only one of the seven hypotheses showed significance. The analysis of hypothesis 2b showed that there is a significant difference in the mean scores for relationships orientation for HPER chairpersons based on gender.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, AND

RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

This chapter contains a summary of the study, the findings gleaned from the analysis of the data collected, conclusions, and recommendations for further research. It was the purpose of this study to determine the leadership styles of HPER chairpersons in four-year public colleges and universities and to determine if there was a relationship between selected professional and personal characteristics and leadership style. The study was based upon the 3-D Theory of Managerial Effectiveness (Reddin, 1970), and was intended to identify administrative characteristics related to management effectiveness.

The Management Position Analysis Test (MPAT), developed by Reddin (1983a), was used to investigate the leadership styles of selected HPER chairpersons. The 202 institutions of higher education from which the sample was taken were four-year public colleges and universities whose enrollments ranged between 2,000 and 10,000 students. The questionnaires were mailed to a total of 132 chairpersons who were randomly selected to participate in the study. Data were collected from 47 HPER chairpersons. The tests were scored according to the MPAT manual procedures. Scores for task orientation, relationships orientation, and leadership style were computed. Information from the demographic questionnaire was used

to group the respondents for the analysis of the leadership data. Using the leadership dimensions of task orientation, relationships orientation, and dominant leadership style as the dependent variables, the observed differences between levels of selected independent variables were analyzed. The independent variables were: years of experience in current position, gender, years of total experience, age, number of full-time faculty members in the department, formal administrative/management education, and method of selection for the position.

The basic statistical approach analyzed the significance of difference among the various groups of subjects on two leadership dimensions and dominant leadership style. Each of the seven hypotheses was expanded to three separate hypotheses dealing with the scores on task orientation, relationships orientation, and dominant leadership style.

Findings

The descriptive data revealed some interesting information concerning the HPER chairpersons. The majority (75%) of the respondents were male. Over one-half (59.6%) of the respondents were 51 or more years of age and 23.4% were 46-50 years of age.

In response to the professional characteristics of the HPER chairpersons, 68% indicated that they had 26 or more years of professional experience, while 17 (36%) respondents had been in their current position for 11 or more years. The second highest group (23%) had completed 6 to 10 years as a chairperson. Only 17 (36.2%) had been selected for their current position by their faculty. Over one-half (59;6%) of the subjects supervised departments with 6 to 15 full-time faculty members. Only three (6%) of the HPER chairpersons were also serving as athletic directors.

Of the 47 respondents, 39 (83%) recommended some form of leadership training for chairpersons. Only 12 (25.5%) indicated that they had received some form of administrative training/education prior to assuming the role of a chairperson. Of the 12 chairpersons who received some form of administrative training, 11 (92%) recommended such training for new chairpersons.

Overall, four leadership styles were demonstrated by HPER chairpersons. Thirty-three (70%) exhibited less effective styles (Missionary and Compromiser), while 14 (30%) exhibited more effective styles (Developer and Executive).

The leadership style of Missionary was the most prominent among the respondents. It was defined by Reddin (1980) as a leader who uses a high relationships orientation in a situation where such behavior is inappropriate and who is, therefore, less effective. The Missionary is perceived as being primarily concerned with harmony and being liked. The chairperson treats faculty members with great kindness and consideration, allowing them to set their own objectives according to the faculty's needs, accepting them even if somewhat unsatisfactory.

The second most prominent leadership style chosen was Compromiser. This style was defined by Reddin (1980) as that of an administrator who uses a high task orientation and a high relationships orientation in a situation that requires a high orientation to only one or neither, and who was therefore less effective. This chairperson likes the idea of teamwork, but often is not able to find ways to utilize it.

Only one statistically significant difference was identified, indicating that a real difference existed within the associated variable. There was a significant difference in the mean scores of relationships orientation for HPER chairpersons based on gender. Based upon direct

observation of the mean scores, it was found that female HPER chairpersons scored significantly higher at the 0.01 level of significance on the relationships orientation than did the male HPER chairpersons.

Conclusions

The frequency data indicated that the HPER chairpersons utilized only four of the leadership styles: Missionary, Compromiser, Developer, and Executive. These four styles are the effective and ineffective counterparts of the basic integrated and related styles of leadership. Effectiveness results from the use of a style in an appropriate situation. The compromiser and executive styles are the inappropriately used and appropriately used versions of the basic integrated style. Missionary and Developer are the inappropriately and appropriately used versions of the basic related style. Both styles are characterized by high relationships orientation. This suggested that HPER chairpersons in this study were relationship-oriented, indicating that they had personal job relationships characterized by Reddin (1970) as listening, trusting, and encouraging. This finding was consistent with those of Milner and Tetu (1979) and Jennerich (1981).

A possible explanation for this finding may be that HPER chairpersons and faculty members deal more with human interactions and human relations. Fiedler and Chemers (1974) implied that, as an organization or discipline increases its focus on human and social interactions, the leaders tend to decrease in task orientation. White and Karabetsos (1987) identified personnel management as the most important management area for HPER administrators.

The Missionary and Compromiser leadership styles are not viewed as absolute measures of ineffectiveness, but they do identify what types of

task and relationships behavior a chairperson is using when he or she is less effective and when he or she is more effective (Reddin, 1983b). One of the less-effective leadership types is used as a description of the leader's behavior when the particular behavior does not meet the demands of the situation. There was little relationship between a chairperson's use of a more-effective version of a style and a less-effective style based on a correlation conducted between the more and less effective styles (Reddin, 1983b).

Specifically, this study found only one significant difference between leadership style dimensions and demographic data. Female HPER chairpersons had higher relationships orientation mean scores than did their male counterparts. One exploratory explanation for this finding could possibly be that females are often socialized to nurture others and support harmony rather than developing technical skills, possibly resulting in less effective styles. This may account for the finding that only one female chairperson demonstrated a more-effective dominant leadership style in this study. Based upon the analysis of the data obtained from this study, female HPER chairpersons appeared to be as task oriented as did the male subjects.

The lack of significant differences found between leadership style dimensions and demographic data suggested some preliminary conclusions: (1) responses to the items on the questionnaire were based upon the respondents' perceptions of his or her leadership behavior, which may be a different criterion than faculty members or upper-level administrators would use, (2) the demographic variables were too limited, (3) the sample size was not large enough to detect any real differences, or (4) there may not truly be any significant differences.

If the demographic variables were too limited for this research study, additional significant variables should be identified. Other variables that could possibly affect leadership behavior include: the maturity level of the department, ages of the faculty members, and type of advanced degrees and ranks held by the faculty.

Recommendations

It is recommended that further research be conducted in the area of leadership in the discipline of physical education and its allied fields of study. In reviewing the methods, procedures, and results of this study, the researcher suggests the following recommendations for further research:

1. A replicated study with a larger sample size.

2. Further investigation of leadership styles with a different scale developed especially for higher education administration.

3. Additional research of the study of leadership styles of HPER chairpersons of institutions of different size, types of degrees granted, and student enrollment within the department.

4. A comparative study of leadership behavior among the department chairpersons from colleges with more than one area of emphasis.

5. Because of the possible differences between self-perceived and actual leadership behavior, research related to actual behavior should be conducted.

6. A comparison of staff perceived leadership styles of department chairpersons and actual leadership styles should be made.

Various research studies in the educational literature provide divergent and suggestions for effective behavior of chairpersons in higher education. These studies provide an argument for universities offering

programs in educational administration to expand the curriculum to include studies to assist future leaders to improve the behaviors associated with effective leadership styles.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

LETTER OF PERMISSION

Organizational Tests (Canada) Ltd.
FREDERICTON, N B CANADA
P O BOX 324 E3B 4Y9
PHONE
(506) 452-7194

FAX (506) 452-2931

January 17, 1990

Ms. Donna Cobb
P. O. Box 2731
ADA, OK 74820
U. S. A.

Dear Donna:

On behalf of Bill Reddin, I hereby give you permission to use the instrument entitled Management Position Analysis Test (MPAT) in the study for your dissertation.

Dr. Reddin would like to give you one or two thoughts on design of thesis investigation and he will be in contact with you as soon as possible.

I wish you success with your thesis.

Yours truly,

Laura Hasselman
Administrative Secretary
for Bill Reddin

APPENDIX B

MANAGEMENT POSITION ANALYSIS TEST

AND INSTRUCTIONS

Management Position Analysis

START HERE

Page One

ANSWERING THE QUESTIONNAIRE

(1) Inserted at the back of this booklet you will find an Answer Sheet. Remove the Answer Sheet and put it to the side. You will not need it until later.

(2) The Management Position Analysis consists of 80 sets of 4 statements each. You must select 2 statements in each set which best describe what you actually **do in the job you now have** It is very important that you select 2 statements in each set

You may sometimes find that none of the statements applies. If so, select the 2 statements which best describe what you would do if you had to make a choice among the 4 statements given

(3) The questionnaire begins at the far left side of this booklet. Turn there and read the first set of 4 statements. Select the 2 statements which apply most closely to what you actually do in the job you now have. When you have made your selections, circle the number which appears at the upper left of each statement

(4) Move to the next set of 4 statements and continue to work your way through the questionnaire. This process will take about 1 hour. The self scoring will take about another hour. When you have completed the questionnaire, you will have circled 160 numbers

COMPLETING THE ANSWER SHEET

(5) Take out the Answer Sheet. You will note that the Answer Sheet has 320 numbers on it, numbered consecutively from 1 to 320. Circle the numbers on the Answer Sheet which correspond to the numbers you have circled on the Questionnaire. Please be sure to press very hard

(6) When you have completed Step 5, tear off the Answer Sheet and set it aside. You will not need it further

(7) Turn to Page Two

Management Position Analysis

QUESTIONNAIRE

57 I follow company policy and procedures when dealing with staff advisors	**315** I believe in the team approach to the extent that I think most problems are best solved that way	**189** I watch the implementation of plans by individuals and give direct assistance and guidance where needed	**31** All inter departmental differences in which I am involved are solved jointly
49 I feel it is not usually worth the effort to cooperate with staff advisors	**227** I believe that proper treatment of people is more important than productivity	**181** I watch implementations of plans closely, point out errors and criticize where necessary	**295** I seem interested only in the task at some meetings and only in relationships at others
107 I believe in encouraging all concerned to present the company to the public in a good light	**205** I show that I think good control techniques are among the most important keys to high productivity	**95** I believe a fundamental goal of the firm is to create customers	**217** I emphasize regular evaluation, measurement and review of performance
83 I believe in maintaining good customer relationships even at high cost to the company.	**293** I tend to dominate at meetings	**183** I keep an eye on the implementation of plans but do not always take action when it is most needed	**257** I avoid conflict even when facing it could be useful
237 I personally set high output standards for myself and others and work hard to see that they are met	**287** I treat errors primarily as opportunities for everyone to learn and am prepared to look openly at my own errors	**105** I believe in simply following past practice when dealing with the general public	**155** When I am responsible for planning I involve many others
37 I direct the work of my subordinates and discourage deviations from my plans	**119** I sometimes encourage new ideas but do not always follow up on too many of them	**193** I do not seem interested in any kind of control procedures	**243** I communicate with others so as to maintain good relationships above all else
303 I use meetings to arrive at the best possible decisions to which everyone is committed	**73** I believe the best way to maintain good union relations is for both sides to follow the agreement just as it is written	**187** I am responsive to sound proposals for modifying plans open to suggestions and always willing to help	**141** I personally set clear objectives that are understood by all those involved
135 While my objectives are usually fairly clear, I allow them to be quite loose so that they are not always a good guide	**289** I do not seem interested in meetings even when they might be useful	**51** I go out of my way to cooperate with staff advisors I want to make them feel that they are needed	**261** When disagreement arises I take a firm stand
297 I believe formal meetings are the best ones	**139** I successfully motivate others to set their own clear objectives	**29** I am open to suggestions from other departments and use what I personally believe to be the best ideas	**223** I have both methods and output under constant review and changes in them are regularly implemented as needed
305 I have no opinion, one way or the other, about the team approach to management	**99** I believe that the general public must be kept content at all times even though productivity might fall	**165** I think the best way to introduce change is to make an announcement and then let people get on with it	**87** I say that good relationships with the customer should exist but I do not always do as much as I could to help matters
59 I understand and co-operate well with staff advisors	**13** I work well with higher level management and ensure that they know exactly how I see my job	**159** When I am involved the plans made represent the best thinking of all concerned	**265** I respond to disagreement and conflict by referring to rules and procedures
179 I tolerate deviations in implementing plans if this will avert unpleasantness.	**53** I tend to avoid or to argue with staff advisors thinking they often know little of the practical side of things	**231** I have some interest in high productivity but it is not always apparent and thus productivity sometimes suffers	**273** I show little concern about errors and usually do little to correct or reduce them.

77 I respect unions and they respect me My thoughts on union management relations are put over effectively	**175** I inform all concerned well in advance of any possible changes and give them an opportunity to influence the proposed change	**281** I believe that errors would be minimal if people simply followed established rules and procedures	**267** When conflict arises I help those involved to find a sound basis for agreement
309 I believe in "One Man One Job Well Done"	**71** I say I want to cooperate with union representatives but sometimes put little effort into doing so	**1** I do not show too much interest in maintaining good relationships with those above me	**163** I try to introduce changes very gradually so no one will become upset
79 My relationships with union representatives demonstrate that I have a commitment to both productivity and productive union-management relationships	**169** I introduce changes formally and follow closely any established procedures	**299** I make many suggestions at meetings and encourage others to do the same	**253** I keep everyone fully informed of what I think they need to know in order to do their jobs better
247 While I do try to keep an open channel of communication with others I am not always successful in doing so	**113** I believe the value of creativity change and innovation is often overemphasized	**3** I try to avoid disagreements with higher management even though this may lower my own or my subordinates productivity	**70** I think that union representatives are a nuisance and prefer to have little to do with them
41 I think that things go best when subordinates understand and follow the duties in their job description	**171** I prepare those affected by a change by talking with them well in advance	**317** I believe in the team approach but also believe a good team needs a good leader who knows what he is doing	**191** I keep an eye on the implementation of plans and respond quickly to and solve, any blockages
17 I do not give as much priority as I should to maintaining good relationships with other departments	**147** I prefer to let each individual make his own plans as long as they do not interfere with the plans of others	**133** Decisions from the specific objectives I set for others are discouraged	**311** I like the idea of team work but often am not able to find ways to apply it
251 I maintain open trusting communication channels with everyone	**157** I plan well and concentrate primarily on my own good ideas and assign individual responsibilities	**47** I demonstrate that I expect high output from my subordinates yet recognize and consider individual differences	**233** I believe that the best measure of output is a comparison based on norms previously established
67 I go out of my way to cooperate with union representatives and to keep them as happy as possible	**5** I want to do my job with as little interference from those above as possible	**27** I accept the fact that one can learn from errors but only occasionally do I put this to use	**129** I think that the idea of setting overall objectives can be overdone
173 I inform all concerned of the reason for a change	**271** I try to resolve conflict as quickly as possible by uncovering its underlying cause	**185** Once plans are made I make sure their implementation follows the original plan very closely	**91** I believe that the opinions of customers are of prime concern to the company
85 I believe my job is to supply a product and the feelings of customers should have little effect on me or on company policy	**151** I make an effort at planning but the plans do not always work out	**65** I have little sympathy or interest in unions and what they stand for	**307** I believe that team meetings are good primarily because they get people to talk together more
127 I am constantly on the watch for new useful and productive ideas from any source and develop many new ideas myself	**313** I think that the team approach is of use at times but that formal meetings accomplish as much or even more	**75** I am effective in encouraging trusting union-management relationships	**45** I make clear to subordinates what I expect of them I show that I value efficiency and productivity
39 When dealing with subordinates I attempt to combine both task and relationship considerations but one or the other often suffers	**177** I do not seem as interested as I might be in the actual implementation of decisions	**291** I like meetings to run harmoniously	**213** I evaluate individuals personally I frequently point out their good and bad points and criticize where necessary

201 I believe that tight controls are a sound way to increase productivity	**219** I encourage others to evaluate their own and my own performance	**93** I believe that the company should first produce a good product and then get the customer to accept it	**63** I see staff advisors as sources of competent help and welcome suggestions from them
161 I think that the actual introduction of a change requires little effort on my part	**115** I think that many new ideas lead to unnecessary disagreement and friction	**197** I insist that others follow procedures exactly but sometimes object if I am told to do so	**103** I say that good relationships with the general public are beneficial to the company but do little about maintaining them
123 I seek out new and good ideas and motivate others to be as creative as possible	**61** I believe staff advisors must prove that their suggestions will increase productivity	**16** I believe higher management is best seen as part of other teams that should interlock effectively with my own	**249** I prefer to write out communications with others
195 I overlook violations of any kind if it helps to make things run more smoothly	**21** I believe in doing my job by myself and prefer little involvement with managers or other departments	**167** I sometime talk about the problems of introducing change but do not always attempt to deal with these problems	**97** I believe the company should have little or no concern with the interests of the general public
269 When facing conflict I stand my ground and I try to be as persuasive as possible	**111** I work with all concerned to present the company in the best possible light to the general public	**137** The objectives I set are usually fairly clear though somewhat inflexible	**203** I believe that performance data is best fed back to the individual concerned rather than to a superior or a staff unit
277 I believe that when an error occurs the person responsible should be reprimanded	**7** I want to improve my relationships with superiors but do not always take the action necessary	**145** I think that planning is not really as important as some people think	**19** I prefer to cooperate and thus avoid any disagreement with other departments
207 If a procedure or control is violated I make sure I concentrate on finding out why	**121** I believe that formal meetings are a perfectly sound way to produce new ideas	**13** My relationship with subordinates is excellent and is characterized by mutual trust and respect	**285** I think the best way to minimize errors is for those making them to have their errors explained
55 I say that I am willing to cooperate with staff advisors but do not always do so	**241** I could supply more useful information to others than I do	**131** I allow subordinates to set their own objectives according to their needs and accept them even if somewhat unsatisfactory	**229** I seem more interested in day-to-day productivity than in long-run productivity
25 I prefer to go through the right channels when working with managers of associated departments	**11** I understand and cooperate well with higher level management	**125** I both develop and propose many new ideas	**255** I have an open communication channel with everyone on any matter and others have it with me
225 I am not too interested in improving productivity just for its own sake	**35** I treat subordinates with great kindness and consideration	**117** I think new ideas from below are often less useful than those from above	**263** When conflict arises I try to be fair but firm
27 I work to maintain good relationships with other departments	**301** I take an active and useful part in meetings and use them to push successfully for my ideas	**113** I set objectives with others which are clear and fully agreed to by all those directly involved	**153** I plan with a fine attention to detail
211 I usually say that a good job has been done whether or not it was really satisfactory	**101** I believe that what the general public thinks should not influence the company unduly	**199** I say that I believe control techniques are useful but establish few and violate some	**13** I do not show too much interest in subordinates

109 I believe that all employees should present the company to the public as being a good corporate citizen	**319** I actively support and promote the team approach to management	**9** I believe that there will be few problems between myself and higher management if proper procedures and channels are followed	**235** I motivate others to set high output standards and encourage and support them so that these high standards are met
110 I see planning as a one-man job and do not usually involve others or their ideas	**215** I talk about the importance of evaluation and review but do not always get involved with it myself as much as I might	**81** I have little interest in myself or others maintaining sound relationships with the customers	**275** I believe that if an error occurs it should be corrected in such a way that no one will be upset
239 I set high standards for myself and encourage others to set high output standards	**89** I follow general company policy in maintaining customer relationships	**283** I think that most errors arise for a good reason and it is better to look for the reason than at the error itself	**221** I keep methods and output under constant review and make changes to ensure high output
23 I want to cooperate with managers of other departments but my cooperation seldom works out as well as I would like	**209** I believe that evaluation and review are often overstressed	**259** At the first sign of conflict I attempt to smooth things over	**245** I am not always as receptive as I might be when others communicate with me and I am good at "shooting down" ideas
314 I think that the team approach is of use at times but that formal meetings accomplish as much or even more	**108** I believe in encouraging all concerned to present the company to the public in a good light	**62** I believe staff advisors must prove that their suggestions will increase productivity	**144** I set objectives with others which are clear and fully agreed to by all those directly involved.
226 I am not too interested in improving productivity just for its own sake	**244** I communicate with others so as to maintain good relationships above all else	**54** I tend to avoid or to argue with staff advisors thinking they often know little of the practical side of things	**40** When dealing with subordinates I attempt to combine both task and relationship considerations but one or the other often suffers
316 I believe in the team approach to the extent that I think most problems are best solved that way	**190** I watch the implementation of plans by individuals and give direct assistance and guidance where needed	**48** I demonstrate that I expect high output from my subordinates yet recognize and consider individual differences	**138** The objectives I set are usually fairly clear though somewhat inflexible
132 I allow subordinates to set their own objectives according to their needs and accept them even if somewhat unsatisfactory	**118** I think new ideas from below are often less useful than those from above	**8** I want to improve my relationships with superiors but do not always take the action necessary	**274** I show little concern about errors and usually do little to correct or reduce them
126 I both develop and propose many new ideas	**208** If a procedure or control is violated I make sure I concentrate on finding out why	**234** I believe that the best measure of output is a comparison based on norms previously established	**92** I believe that the opinions of customers are of prime concern to the company
86 I believe my job is to supply a product and the feelings of customers should have little effect on me or on company policy	**120** I sometimes encourage new ideas but do not always follow up on too many of them	**290** I do not seem interested in meetings even when they might be useful	**148** I prefer to let each individual make his own plans as long as they do not interfere with the plans of others
192 I keep an eye on the implementation of plans and respond quickly to and solve any blockages	**122** I believe that formal meetings are a perfectly sound way to produce new ideas	**252** I maintain open trusting communication channels with everyone	**110** I believe that all employees should present the company to the public as being a good corporate citizen
168 I sometimes talk about the problems of introducing change but do not always attempt to deal with these problems	**18** I do not give as much priority as I should to maintaining good relationships with other departments	**276** I believe that if an error occurs it should be corrected in such a way that no one will be upset	**150** I see planning as a one-man job and do not usually involve others or their ideas

170 I introduce changes formally and follow closely any established procedures	**140** I successfully motivate others to set their own clear objectives	**118** I believe in the team approach but also believe a good team needs a good leader who knows what he is doing	**15** I believe higher management is best seen as part of other teams that should interlock effectively with my own
162 I think that the actual introduction of a change requires little effort on my part	**260** At the first sign of conflict I attempt to smooth things over	**69** I think that union representatives are a nuisance and I prefer to have little to do with them	**312** I like the idea of team work but often am not able to find ways to apply it
124 I seek out new and good ideas and motivate others to be as creative as possible	**158** I plan well and concentrate primarily on my own good ideas and assign individual responsibilities	**272** I try to resolve conflict as quickly as possible by uncovering its underlying causes	**74** I believe the way to maintain good union relations is for both sides to follow the agreement just as it is written
228 I believe that proper treatment of people is more important than productivity	**102** I believe that what the general public thinks should not influence the company unduly	**296** I seem interested only in the task at some meetings and only in relationships at others	**66** I have little sympathy with, or interest in unions and what they stand for
238 I personally set high output standards for myself and others and work hard to see that they are met	**64** I see staff advisors as sources of competent help and welcome suggestions from them	**154** I plan with a fine attention to detail	**300** I make many suggestions at meetings and encourage others to do the same
166 I think the best way to introduce change is to make an announcement and then let people get on with it	**56** I say I am willing to cooperate with staff advisors but do not always do so	**98** I believe the company should have little or no concern with the interests of the general public	**308** I believe that team meetings are good primarily because they get people to talk together more.
304 I use meetings to arrive at the best possible decisions to which everyone is committed	**186** Once plans are made I make sure their implementation follows the original plan very closely	**76** I am effective in encouraging trusting union-management relationships	**142** I personally set clear objectives that are understood by all those involved
216 I talk about the importance of evaluation and review but do not always get involved with it myself as much as I might	**242** I could supply more useful information to others than I do	**100** I believe that the general public must be kept content at all times even though productivity might fall	**182** I watch implementation of plans closely, point out errors and criticize where necessary.
202 I believe that tight controls are a sound way to increase productivity	**284** I think that most errors arise for a good reason and it is better to look for the reason than at the error for itself	**94** I believe that the company should first produce a good product and then get the customer to accept it	**176** I inform all concerned well in advance of any possible changes and give them an opportunity to influence the proposed change
306 I have no opinion, one way or the other, about the team approach to management	**164** I try to introduce changes very gradually so no one will become upset	**246** I am not always as receptive as I might be when others communicate with me and I am good at "shooting down" ideas	**21** I want to cooperate with managers of other departments but my cooperation seldom works out as well as I would like
188 I am responsive to sound proposals for modifying plans open to suggestions and always willing to help	**302** I take an active and useful part in meetings and use them to push successfully for my ideas	**80** My relationships with union representatives demonstrate that I have a commitment to both productivity and productive union management relationships	**218** I emphasize regular evaluation, measurement and review of performance
68 I go out of my way to cooperate with union representatives and to keep them as happy as possible	**310** I believe in 'One Man, One Job Well Done"	**104** I say that good relationships with the general public are beneficial to the company but do little about maintaining them	**210** I believe that evaluation and review are often overstressed

78 I respect unions and they respect me My thoughts on union-management relations are put over effectively	160 When I am involved the plans made represent the best thinking of all concerned	282 I believe that errors would be minimal if people simply followed established rules and procedures	12 I understand and cooperate well with higher level management
38 I direct the work of my subordinates and discourage deviations from my plans	200 I say that I believe control techniques are useful but I establish few and violate some	50 I feel it is not usually worth the effort to cooperate with staff advisors	116 I think that many new ideas lead to unnecessary disagreement and friction
288 I treat errors primarily as opportunities for everyone to learn and am prepared to look openly at my own errors	250 I prefer to write out communications with others	156 When I am responsible for planning I involve many others	14 I work well with higher level management and ensure that they know exactly how I see my job
152 I make an effort at planning but the plans do not always work out	194 I do not seem interested in any kind of control procedures	20 I prefer to cooperate and thus avoid any disagreement with other departments	278 I believe that when an error occurs the person responsible should be reprimanded
26 I prefer to go through the right channels when working with managers of associated departments	172 I prepare those affected by a change by talking with them well in advance	286 I think the best way to minimize errors is for those making them to have their errors explained	96 I believe a fundamental goal of the firm is to create customers
82 I have little interest in myself or others maintaining sound relationships with customers	196 I overlook violations of any kind if it helps to make things run more smoothly	294 I tend to dominate at meetings	232 I have some interest in high productivity but it is not always apparent and thus productivity sometimes suffers
236 I motivate others to set high output standards and encourage and support them so that these high standards are met	270 When facing conflict I stand my ground and try to be as persuasive as possible	256 I have an open communication channel with everyone on any matter and others have it with me	42 I think that things go best when subordinates understand and follow the duties in their job description
180 I tolerate deviations in implementing plans if this will avert unpleasantness	262 When disagreement arises I take a firm stand	72 I say I want to cooperate with union representatives but sometimes put little effort into doing so	146 I think that planning is not really as important as some people think
222 I keep methods and output under constant review and make changes to insure high output	32 All inter-departmental differences in which I am involved are solved jointly	266 I respond to disagreement and conflict by referring to rules and procedures	44 My relationship with subordinates is excellent and is characterized by mutual trust and respect
198 I insist that others follow procedures exactly but sometimes object if I am told to do so	136 While my objectives are usually fairly clear I allow them to be quite loose so that they are not always a good guide	2 I do not show too much interest in maintaining good relationships with those above me	52 I go out of my way to cooperate with staff advisors I want to make them feel that they are needed
224 I have both methods and output under constant review and changes in them are regularly implemented as needed	90 I follow general company policy in maintaining customer relationships	268 When conflict arises I help those involved to find a sound basis for agreement	30 I am open to suggestions from other departments and use what I personally believe to be the best ideas
184 I keep an eye on the implementation of plans but do not always take action when it is most needed	34 I do not show too much interest in my subordinates	292 I like meetings to run harmoniously	214 I evaluate individuals personally I frequently point out their good and bad points and criticize where necessary

58 I follow company policy and procedure when dealing with staff advisors	**204** I believe that performance data is best fed back to the individual concerned rather than to a superior or a staff unit	**46** I make clear to subordinates what I expect of them I show that I value efficiency and productivity	**128** I am constantly on the watch for new, useful and productive ideas from any source and develop many new ideas myself
130 I think that the idea of setting overall objectives can be overdone	**4** I try to avoid disagreements with higher management even though this may lower my own or my subordinates' productivity	**22** I believe in doing my job by myself and prefer little involvement with managers of other departments	**264** When conflict arises I try to be fair but firm
220 I encourage others to evaluate their own and my own performance output	**206** I show that I think good control techniques are among the most important keys to high productivity	**112** I work with all concerned to present the company in the best possible light to the general public	**298** I believe formal meetings are the best ones
212 I usually say that a good job has been done whether or not it was really satisfactory	**6** I want to do my job with as little interference from those above as possible	**88** I say that good relationships with the customers should exist but I do not always do as much as I could to help matters	**258** I avoid conflict even when facing it could be useful
254 I keep everyone fully informed of what I think they need to know in order to do their job better	**240** I set high standards for myself and encourage others to set high output standards	**10** I believe that there will be few problems between myself and higher management if proper procedures and channels are followed	**60** I understand and cooperate well with staff advisors
134 Deviations from the specific objectives I set for others are discouraged	**280** I accept the fact that one can learn from errors but only occasionally do I put this to use	**114** I believe the value of creativity, change and innovation is often over-emphasized	**84** I believe in maintaining good customer relationships even at high cost to the company.
320 I actively support and promote the team approach to management	**106** I believe in simply following past practice when dealing with the general public	**28** I work to maintain good relationships with other departments	**174** I inform all concerned of the reason for a change
248 While I do try to keep an open channel of communication with others, I am not always successful in doing so	**178** I do not seem as interested as I might be in the actual implementation of decisions	**36** I treat subordinates with great kindness and consideration	**230** I seem more interested in day-to-day productivity than in long-run productivity.

APPENDIX C

DEMOGRAPHIC DATA QUESTIONNAIRE

ADMINISTRATIVE CHARACTERISTICS
OF HPERD ADMINISTRATORS

DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

Directions   Please respond to the following items by placing a check mark
in the appropriate space

1 I was
   ☐ A   appointed by the Dean or other academic officials
   ☐ B   elected by members of my department

2 How long have you been a chairperson at this institution?
   ☐ A   1-2 years
   ☐ B   3-5 years
   ☐ C   6-10 years
   ☐ D   11 years or longer

3 The number of total professional experience
   ☐ A   1-10 years
   ☐ B   11-15 years
   ☐ C   16-20 years
   ☐ D   21-25 years
   ☐ E   26 years or longer

4 The number of full-time faculty members under your supervision
   ☐ A   1-5 members
   ☐ B   6-15 members
   ☐ C   15 members or larger

5 Gender
   ☐ A   Male
   ☐ B   Female

6 Age
   ☐ A   25-40 years
   ☐ B   41-45 years
   ☐ C   46-50 years
   ☐ D   51 or more

7 Areas of administrative responsibilities
   ☐ A   Physical education chairperson
   ☐ B   Physical education chairperson and athletic director
   ☐ C   Physical education chairperson with other administrative duties

8 Would you recommend some form of formal management training for department chairpersons?

☐ A Yes
☐ B No

9 Did you have any formal management training before becoming a department chairperson?

☐ A Yes
☐ B No

If you would like a summary of this study please complete the following

Name _____

Address _____

_____

_____

APPENDIX D

COVER LETTER TO HPER CHAIRPERSONS

September 4, 1990

To Whom It May Concern:

I am a graduate student at Oklahoma State University working toward my
doctoral degree in administration of physical education. I am con-
ducting my doctoral study, which is to investigate management styles
of chairpersons in physical education departments at selected institu-
tions. It is anticipated that this study will classify management
styles based on task and relationships orientation in various depart-
mental situations.

I would greatly appreciate it if you would complete the enclosed in-
strument and return it to me by September 28. Please know that a few
items might seem unrelated, but the form was professional developed
and has a very rational organization.

Your cooperation will be greatly appreciated, and hopefully, will add
to the knowledge in the area of administration of physical education.
If you would like to receive a summary of the results, please complete
the form at the bottom of the demographic data page and return to me.

Thank you for assisting me with this study.

Sincerely,

Donna Cobb
Doctoral Candidate
Oklahoma State University

APPENDIX E

FOLLOW-UP LETTER

October 1, 1990

Dear Colleague:

A few weeks ago, I sent you a survey instrument designed to assess your management style according to various situations. As of this date, I have not received your returned questionnaire. I am especially interested in your response and hope that you will complete the questionnaire and return it at your earliest convenience.

Realizing that letters are lost in the mail or the shuffle of a new semester, please contact me as soon as possible and I will forward you another copy.

Your participation in this research study is very much appreciated. Thank you again for your time and assistance, and any inconveniences this may have caused you.

Sincerely,

Donna Cobb
Doctoral Candidate
Oklahoma State University

APPENDIX F

LIST OF PARTICIPATING INSTITUTIONS

List of Participating Institutions

INSTITUTION	STATE	ENROLLMENT
Armstrong State College	GA	3,186
Auburn University at Montgomery	AL	5,061
Austin Peay State University	TN	4,765
California State University - Bakersfield	CA	4,649
Cameron University	OK	5,529
Central Missouri State University	MO	9,429
Central State University	OH	2,680
Columbus College	GA	3,626
Costal Carolina College	SC	3,650
East Stroudsburg University of Pennsylvania	PA	4,678
Emporia State University	KS	5,459
Frostburg State University	MO	4,186
Georgia Southern College	GA	8,776
Indiana University Northwest	IN	5,372
Kearney State College	NE	9,381
Kentucky State University	KY	2,105
Mansfield University of Pennsylvania	PA	2,749
McNeese State University	LA	7,448
Missouri Southern State College	MO	5,124
Moorhead State University	MN	8,435
Murray State University	KY	7,376
Norfolk State University	VA	7,721
Northern State College	SD	3,029
Northwest Missouri State University	MO	4,995
Northwestern State University	OK	2,047
Pembroke State University	NC	2,645
Pittsburg State University	KS	5,273
Southeast Missouri State University	MO	8,506
Southeastern State University	OK	4,064
Southern Oregon State University	OR	4,714
Southern Utah State College	UT	3,012
Southwest State University	MN	2,359
State University of New York at Genesco	NY	5,273
Sue Ross State University	TX	2,106
Tarleton State University	TX	5,243
The Citadel College	SC	3,733

INSTITUTION	STATE	ENROLLMENT
University of Minnesota - Duluth	MN	7,645
University of Montevallo	AL	2,584
University of Southern Indiana	IN	4,673
University of Wisconsin - Platteville	WI	5,299
University of Wisconsin - Superior	WI	2,200
Valdosta State College	GA	7,056
Wayne State College	NE	2,924
West Georgia College	GA	6,410
West Texas State University	TX	5,742
Western Oregon State University	OR	3,659
Westfield State College	MA	5,067

Source: Higher Education Directory (1990).

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VITA

Donna Sue Cobb

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Education

Thesis: LEADERSHIP STYLES AND CHARACTERISTICS OF HPER CHAIRPERSONS
AT SELECTED FOUR-YEAR COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

Major Field: Higher Education

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Duncan, Oklahoma, August 26, 1954, the
daughter of Marion John and Drewsella Cobb.

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