

ASSESSMENT OF THE LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR OF
HOME ECONOMICS CHIEF ADMINISTRATORS
WITH SPECIAL ATTENTION TO
JOB-RELATED STRESS

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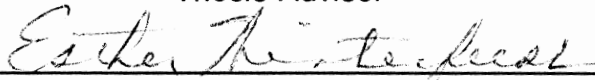
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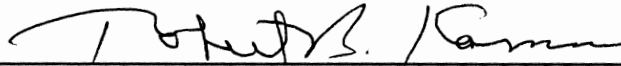
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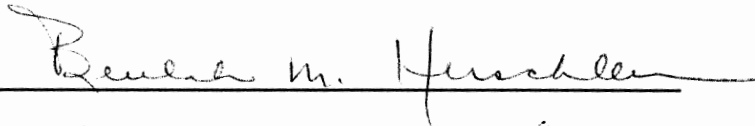


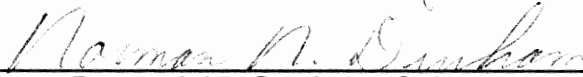
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

A 'leader of leaders' is perhaps the most appropriate way of describing the educational leaders of the 21st century. Tomorrow's educational leader can be expected to be both thinker and doer, a speculator and a pioneer, a master architect of sorts with nothing too big to build a dream upon and no one too small for sharing that dream (West and Marks, 1980, p. 4).

The majority of research on leadership studied people in formal organizations who are appointed to positions in which the exercise of leadership is a prime requirement. As stated by Stogdill and Shartle (1948, p. 287), "it is assumed that it is proper and feasible to make a study of leadership in places where leadership would appear to exist and that if a person occupies a leadership position he is a fit subject for study."

Behavioral factors which distinguish an effective leader from an ineffective leader have been of particular concern to researchers. Such research has been based on the belief that by identifying factors which contribute to effective leadership, it will help to refine the selection and/or training of leaders. Therefore, this study focused on identifying the effective leadership behavior of chief administrators of colleges of home economics, the leaders of home economics programs in institutions of higher education.

Literature indicated that administrators functioning in a leadership role sometimes experience stress. Stress has been the subject of much research, but there still appears to be a need for more research on the subject of job-related stress of administrators. Some studies of administrators indicated that they have been able to deal assertively with stressful situations despite tough

work loads and heavy responsibilities (Knight, 1984, p. 149). These studies speculated that the administrator expected stress to go along with the leadership position, and possibly learned ways to cope. This study investigated the leadership style of chief administrators of home economics programs in institutions of higher education, with special attention to the types of stress they experienced in their leadership role.

Background and Significance

Academic managers cannot view their job as only a science, it is also an art. While one could argue endlessly about whether being a dean is an art or a science, whether a dean is a leader or a manager, we hold that a dean is a leader and a manager who uses science in the performance of an art, an art that finally defies precise analysis (Tucker and Bryan, 1988, p. 3).

There is considerable debate over whether traits of leadership are inherited, or acquired and developed by individuals. Bennis and Nanus (1985) believe that leadership is not a rare skill. In the educational setting, a leader articulates leadership skills through institutional, professional, and personal goals and values. Through his/her leadership behavior the administrator is able to develop and encourage future leaders.

According to Greenleaf (1977, p. 4), "we live in the age of the anti-leader, and our vast educational structure devotes very little care to nurturing leaders." The home economics profession has stated that the development of leadership skills is necessary in order to move the endeavors of the profession forward. In order for future leaders to acquire these skills, they will need mentors, role models, and a mechanism for practicing their leadership skills throughout their education (Strengthening Home Economics Programs in Higher Education, 1986). Green (1988) believes an ongoing relationship with a mentor may be

the most effective way for people to become sensitized to their own styles, behaviors, and impact on others. She stresses that leaders are responsible for developing new talent by focusing attention to the human side of administration (p. 49).

Today more than ever, the administrator is faced with daily routines and roles that are laden with conflicts, ambiguities, and work overload. In modern organizations, including educational institutions, many instances of incompatibility, lack of clarity, and being overburdened are known to occur. Since job-related stress is so prevalent today, a need exists for continuing research. Hopefully, a better understanding of these role stressors can lead to a better quality of work life for the academic administrator.

The Problem

The major purpose of this study was to assess the leadership behavior of the chief administrator of home economics programs in institutions of higher education in the United States. Another purpose of this study was to determine if chief administrators, working in a leadership position, experience job stress. This study also determined if there were common demographic characteristics related to leadership styles and the type of job-related stress experienced by home economics chief administrators.

Specific objectives of this study were:

1. To determine if selected personal variables, such as: age, gender, race, marital status, number of children, children living at home, sole supporter, status of mother working, income, education, professional development, position title, academic rank, number of years in administrative position, and previous experiences, affect the

leadership behavior of chief administrators of home economics programs.

2. To determine if selected institutional variables such as: number of home economics majors, type of home economics degrees offered, number of full-time equivalent faculty, and Land Grant or non Land Grant university, affect the leadership behavior of home economics chief administrators.
3. To determine if selected personal variables, as listed in Objective 1 affect the type of job-related stress of chief administrators of home economics programs.
4. To determine if selected institutional variables, as listed in Objective 2 affect the type of job-related stress of chief administrators of home economics programs.
5. To determine the relationship between leadership behavior of home economics chief administrators and job-related stress.

Hypotheses

For the purpose of the study, the following null hypotheses were tested:

H1: There will be no significant difference between leadership behavior of home economics chief administrators based on selected personal variables as listed in Objective 1.

H2: There will be no significant differences in leadership behavior of home economics chief administrators based on selected institutional variables as listed in Objective 2.

H3: There will be no significant differences in job stressors (role overload, role ambiguity, role conflict) of home economics chief administrators based on selected personal variables as listed in Objective 1.

H4: There will be no significant differences in job stressors (role overload, role ambiguity, role conflict) of home economics chief administrators based on selected institutional variables as listed in Objective 2.

H5: There will be no significant relationship between the leadership behavior and job stress of home economics chief administrators.

Limitations and Assumptions

In this study of leadership behavior and the relationship to stress, the highest home economics administrator, (dean, chairperson, department head, or other similar position) in colleges with a home economics program in the United States, was surveyed. The population itself was one limitation of the study. Another limitation of the study was that each respondent's perception of his/her leadership behavior and amount of stress was related primarily to the position that he or she occupied in the college or university setting. The LEAD-Self instrument was limited since it could only measure the perceived leadership behavior of the administrators.

An assumption was made that the survey was completed by the person who actually occupies the highest position of administrator of home economics. It was assumed that respondents completed the questionnaire objectively, according to their actual work situation rather than what they perceive as ideal.

Definition of Terms

For the purpose of the study, the following definitions will be used:

1. Chief Administrator of Home Economics - The person occupying the highest administrative position for the home economics program in an institution of higher education. The administrative title affixed by the education institution

may be dean, chairperson, department head, or similar title, depending on the organizational structure of the higher education institution.

2. Association of Administrators of Home Economics - A professional association composed of home economics administrators in resident instruction, research, and/or extension representing institutions with membership in the National Association of State Universities and Land Grant Colleges and/or the American Association of State Colleges and Universities (Bylaws of AAHE, 1983).

3. National Council of Administrators of Home Economics - A professional association composed of any administrator whose role is defined in terms of the total unit (college, school, division, or department) of home economics in an institution of higher education (Bylaws of NCAHE).

4. Leadership - The process of influencing the activities of an individual or group in efforts toward goal achievement in a given situation. The leadership process is a function of the leader, the follower, and other situational variables (Hersey and Blanchard, 1988, p. 86).

5. Style Range - The extent to which the leadership style varies, indicating the degree of flexibility a leader uses in dealing with different situations (Hersey and Blanchard, 1988).

6. Style Adaptability - The degree to which a leader can vary his/her style appropriate to the readiness level of the individual or group involved in the different situations (Hersey and Blanchard, 1988).

7. Style/Readiness Matrix - A summary of the administrator's style range and style adaptability as a leader (Hersey and Blanchard, 1983).

8. Stress - A very broad class of problems dealing with any demands which tax the system, a physiological system, a social system, or a psychological system, and the response of that system (Lazarus, 1971).

9. Job Related Stress - Any characteristic of the job environment which poses a threat to the individual--either excessive demands or insufficient supplies to his needs (French, Cobb, Caplan, Van Harrison, and Pinneau, 1976, p. 3).

10. Role Stress - Job stress due to the consequences of role conflict, role ambiguity, and role overload.

11. Role Ambiguity - Discrepancy between the information available to a person and that which is required for adequate performance of his role (Kahn, Wolf, Quinn, Snoek, and Rosenthal, 1964, p. 73). There are two types of role ambiguity: ambiguity that occurs from a lack of information concerning the proper definition of the job, its goals and the permissible means for implementing them; and ambiguity that occurs when a person is concerned about his standing in the eyes of others and about the consequences of his actions for the attainment of personal goals (Kahn, et al., 1964, p. 94).

12. Role Conflict - The simultaneous occurrence of two (or more) sets of pressures such that compliance with one would make more difficult compliance with the other (Kahn, et al., 1964, p. 19).

13. Role Overload - A qualitative or quantitative measure. Quantitative refers to having too much to do while qualitative refers to work that is too difficult (French and Caplan, 1973).

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF SELECTED LITERATURE

The need for effective leaders in institutions of higher education is well documented in the educational literature. The literature describes a range of definitions for leadership along with conflicting theories concerning the role, functions, behavior, and characteristics of leaders. Unfortunately, there are fewer studies dealing with the leadership behavior of higher education administrators in middle-management positions, such as the dean, department head, chairperson, or director. In his review of over 500 reports on higher education, Peterson (1974) concludes that studies on leadership, decision-making, functional impact on the organization, and other aspects of administrative behavior have seldom been undertaken. There are few published studies concerning the characteristics and leadership effectiveness of administrators of home economics programs in higher education.

There is vast literature concerned with job stress but due to the complexity of the subject there continues to be a need for further study. Role conflict, role ambiguity, and role overload are often found as areas of concern in research on stress. Of these, a wide range of occupations have been studied; but a need still exists for research dealing with the types of stress experienced by leaders in administrative positions. Dill (1980) mentions the area of mid-management in higher education as a position fraught with ambiguity. Bennett (1988) states that conflicting constituencies, role ambiguity, and external constraints are hallmarks of the department chair's position.

The review of literature encompasses three main areas: leadership, job-related stress, and middle-management positions in higher education. The review of literature on leadership focuses on definitions and theory; a discussion of three main approaches to leadership; and a presentation of leadership behavior in institutions of higher education. The literature review on stress deals with definitions of job-related stress; explanations and studies on role ambiguity, role conflict and role overload; and research on stress of leaders and administrators. The third section describes the functions, roles, and characteristics of chief administrators such as deans, department heads, and chairpersons in institutions of higher education.

Leadership

Definitions of Leader and Leadership

The common elements in definitions of leader or leadership imply that leadership involves a social influence process in which a person steers members of the group towards a goal (Bryman, 1986, p. 2). Many definitions make a clear-cut distinction between the leader and nonleader.

One study on leadership discovered 130 different definitions for the word (Burns, 1978). Cyert (1980) describes leadership as the art of stimulating the human resources within the organization to concentrate on total organizational goals rather than individual or subgroup goals. Hersey and Blanchard (1988) define leadership as "the process of influencing the activities of an individual or a group in efforts toward goal achievement in a given situations" (p. 86).

The leader was defined by Jenkins (1956) as one who holds a particular position in an organization. Gardner believes leaders are "those who envision goals, affirm values, motivate, manage, achieve a 'workable level' of unity,

explain, serve as a symbol, represent their group externally, and renew the purposes and spirit of the group" (cited in Green, p. 243, 1988).

Leadership as a Power Relation

To be effective, acts of leadership must rely on some basis of power. Bennis and Nanus (1985) define power as "the basic energy needed to initiate and sustain action translating intention into reality" (p. 15). They believe leadership is the wise use of power.

Power seems implied in Warriner's (1955) suggestion that "leadership as a form of relationship between persons requires that one or several persons act in conformance with the request of another." According to McMurry (1973), power is the capacity to modify the conduct of other employees in a desired manner, together with the capacity to avoid having one's own behavior modified in undesired ways by other employees. While power officially is conferred by the organization, the power of leaders is derived from subordinates' willingness to accept the leader's authority (Fiedler and Chemers, 1977, p. 90).

Etzioni (cited in Hersey and Blanchard, 1988) describes two types of power: position power and personal power. Individuals who are able to influence the behavior of others because of their position in the organization are considered to have position power; individuals who derive power from their followers are considered to have personal power. Some individuals have both position and personal power. Tucker (1984) categorizes three types of power of administrators, managers, and leaders: power from formal authority, position power, and personal power. "Authority granted officially from a higher level in the bureaucracy of the institution" is called formal authority (p. 7). Power from an appropriate title or from an important position is called position power; power that derives respect and commitment from individuals because of the way they

perceive that person is called personal power. These types of power are used by the individual to effect a change in others' behavior.

French and Raven (1960) discussed five types of power that a leader may have:

1. Referent power - Power or influence based on admiration and identification with the leader.
2. Legitimate power - Power or influence based on the position held by the leader. Normally, the higher the position, the higher the legitimate power.
3. Expert power - Power or influence based on the expertise, skill, and knowledge of the leader.
4. Reward power - Power or influence based on the ability of the leader to provide rewards to others.
5. Coercive power - Power or influence using fear, coercion, and punishment.

Later, Raven and Kruglanski (1975) identified a sixth type of power:

6. Information power - Power or influence based on the leader's possession of or access to information that is perceived as valuable by others.

In 1979, Hersey and Goldsmith proposed a seventh type of power:

7. Connection power - Power or influence based on the leader's relationship with influential or important people (cited in Hersey and Blanchard, 1988).

According to Green (1988), in higher education, leaders must rely heavily on legitimate power, since colleges and universities are characterized by decentralized decision making, faculty independence, and pressures from numerous constituencies. Legitimate power depends on shared values and goals and acceptance by followers (p. 15).

Leadership Versus Management

In recent years, authors have sought to differentiate between leadership and management. Often terms like 'leadership style,' 'supervisory style,' and 'managerial style' tend to be used interchangeably, and seem to address the same phenomena (Bryman, 1986, p. 6).

According to Bennis and Nanus (1985) "managers are people who do things right and leaders are people who do the right thing" (p. 21). Selznick (1957) believes "an executive becomes a statesman as he makes the transition from administrative management to institutional leadership" (p. 4). Cyert (1980) defines management as "the art of allocating resources within the organization in a manner designed to reach the goals of the organization" (p. 63). This definition is different from his definition of leadership which uses such terms as human resources, individuals, and subgroups.

Zaleznik (1977) describes managers as reactive organization men concerned with routine and short-term projects whereas leaders use their influence to change the way people think about what is desirable, possible and necessary. He goes on to say that managers relate to people according to the role they play in certain events or in the decision-making process, whereas leaders are concerned with ideas and relate to people in a more intuitive and empathetic way. Zaleznik stresses the need for organizations to develop individuals to lead rather than simply manage.

"Because management skills are more concrete, they are easier to teach and to learn than are the other leadership skills" (Perlman, 1988, p. 244). Bennis and Nanus (1985) assert that the "major capacities of leadership can be learned...at least if the basic desire to learn is there...For those who are ready, most of the learning takes place during the experience itself" (pp. 222-223).

Ehrle and Bennett (1988) define academic administration as "running the shop by the book," academic management as "taking deliberate steps to change how the book is written," and academic leadership as "promulgating the values and visions that give the overall effort its meaning and direction" (p. 189).

Leadership in Higher Education Administration

Walker (1979) believes successful academic administrators differ from their less successful counterparts in their conceptions of a university community, the administrative process, and their own role and status more than in their personality or experience. Ineffective leaders, he stated, tend to view decision making as a series of isolated acts of courage; effective leaders view it as a continuous, reasoned process of policy development and information.

In a report given to the American Association of Colleges of Nursing, Yingling (1981) considers leadership to be the main function of a dean. "It becomes the dean's responsibility to design roadways with destinations, and then lead and guide faculty, students, and staff to those points along the road that move a school and program ahead" (American Association of Colleges of Nursing, p. 71).

According to Bennett (1988) chairs are selected for reasons that have little to do with their management or leadership skills. Because of this, Perlman (1988) believes there is strong support for the concept of preparing future leaders. He mentions the low number of people entering leadership positions in higher education who have initially participated in organized leadership development programs.

According to Kamm (1982), the type of leadership especially needed in higher education today and for the future, must give careful attention to the over-

riding mission of education--"to help each person to be and to become the best each is capable of being and becoming" (p. xi).

Three Major Approaches to Leadership Theory

Three major approaches to leadership theory include the trait theory, the behavioral or leadership style theory, and the contingency approach. The review of literature on these three concepts will relate mainly to leadership in organizations.

Leadership Trait Theory. Decades of research questioning whether an individual can be a 'natural leader' failed to provide conclusive evidence. The bulk of the research on leadership traits sought to establish personal characteristics of leaders which distinguish them from non-leaders or followers.

Stogdill (1948) found correlations between leadership style and the following traits: intelligence, scholarship, dependability in exercising responsibilities, activity and social participation, and socio-economic status. He concluded 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. 63).

Stogdill (cited in Bass, 1981) conducted a followup survey from 1948-1970 based on 163 studies of leader characteristics. The leader was characterized by the following traits: an abundant amount of energy, stamina, and ability to maintain a high rate of physical activity; intelligence; ascendance and dominance; self-confidence; achievement drive and desire to excel; and high sociability and interpersonal skills.

In an experimental study using simulation, Hinton and Barrow (1976) sought to determine the personality correlates of the reinforcement strategies

used by leaders in relation to their subordinates. Leaders who used positive reinforcement strategies were more willing to take responsibility for, and have confidence in, their own actions. They were more prepared to make their own decisions; and more relaxed and enthusiastic about life. Those using negative sanctions tended to be more socially bold, more suspicious and self-opinionated, more inclined to think in abstract terms, and more conscientious.

Ghiselli (1963) found five traits to be significantly correlated with management performance and organizational level. Those traits were: intelligence, supervisory ability, initiative, self-assurance, and individuality.

Research has been unable to support the trait theory approach to leadership. "A person does not become a leader by virtue of the possession of some combination of traits, but the pattern of personal characteristics of the leader must bear some relevant relationship to the characteristics, activities, and goals of the followers" (Stogdill, 1948, p. 64).

Leadership Style or Behavior Theory. In the late 1940's, the study of leadership shifted from studies of 'traits' towards studies of 'style' or behavior. A highly influential series of studies on leadership behavior have been conducted at Ohio State University using an interdisciplinary team of researchers (cited in Hersey and Blanchard, 1988). The staff eventually narrowed the description of leader behavior to two dimensions: Initiating Structure and Consideration. Leaders with high scores in Initiating Structure tend to organize work tightly, to structure the work context, and to provide explicit definitions of role responsibility. Leadership research at Ohio State sought to relate descriptions of leadership to measures of outcome (e.g., performance, job satisfaction, absenteeism).

Korman (1966) has been critical of The Ohio State studies because in virtually every study, the vast majority of correlations failed to achieve statistical

significance. Korman also criticizes the Ohio State studies for failing to include situational variables in their analysis.

The early Michigan studies (cited in Hersey and Blanchard, 1988) of leadership identified two concepts: employee orientation and production orientation. Employee oriented leaders stress the relationship aspect of the job; production oriented leaders emphasize the production and technical aspects of the job.

Likert's (1967) studies at the University of Michigan identified a systematic approach to leadership. Likert described four kinds of management system:

- A. System 1 - 'exploitive authoritative' management.
- B. System 2 - 'benevolent authoritative' management.
- C. System 3 - 'consultative' management.
- D. System 4 - 'participative group' management.

As one moves from System 1 to System 4 management, participation by organizational members increases, affecting motivation and cooperation.

The Managerial Grid, developed by Blake and Mouton (1978), identified five different types of leadership based on concern for production and concern for people. The Managerial Grid tends to be an attitudinal model that measures the values and feelings of managers. Each concern is conceptualized on a nine-point scale, thus yielding 81 possible combinations of managerial behavior.

Contingency Approach. Contingency approaches to leadership focus on the possibility that the effectiveness of a particular leadership style is situationally contingent (Bryman, 1986, p. 126). No one style of leadership is considered universally appropriate. A particular style may impact various outcomes in some situations but not in others.

According to Fiedler (1964), leadership effectiveness is contingent upon three components of the situation: leader-member relations (often called group atmosphere), task structure, and position power. Scores are obtained using the 'least preferred co-worker' (LPC) scale. High LPC leaders are considered to be relationship-oriented, in that they seek out satisfying relationships. Low LPC leaders tend to be task-oriented and less concerned with human relations. Criticism of the LPC scale is mainly due to the fact that fruitless attempts have been made to correlate it with every conceivable personality trait and behavior observation score.

House and Mitchell (1974) formulated a path-goal approach to leadership. The leader's behavior becomes a source of motivation for enhancing subordinates level of performance and for facilitating their chances of attaining goals. Four kinds of leader behavior have an impact on the motivational process:

1. Instrumental Leadership - Behavior clarifies for the employee what is expected of him, how work should be accomplished, and each person's role.
2. Supportive Leadership - Behavior entails a concern on the leader's part for his subordinates' well-being and status.
3. Participative Leadership - Behavior denotes a consultative approach; involving subordinates in decision making.
4. Achievement-oriented Leadership - Behavior sets high performance goals and exhibits confidence in his subordinates. According to the path-goal theory, the extent to which the leaders behavior will be effective is contingent upon the personal characteristics of the subordinate and the work environment.

Hersey and Blanchard (1988) developed the Situational Model, a three-dimensional leadership model. This model builds on the assumption that there is no ideal style of leadership that is appropriate; it depends on the situation.

Situational leadership is based on the interplay among (1) the amount of guidance and direction (task behavior) a leader gives, (2) the amount of socioemotional support (relationship behavior) a leader provides, and (3) the readiness level that followers exhibit in performing a specific task (Hersey and Blanchard, 1988).

Situational Leadership contains four leadership behavior quadrants: Style 1 - high task and low relationship, Style 2 - high task and high relationship, Style 3 - low task and high relationship, and Style 4 - low task and low relationship. If the individual or group is at a Readiness level of R1 (unable and unwilling) for a specific task, the leader should provide high amounts of guidance but little supportive behavior--a S1 or "telling" style. If the individual or group is at a readiness level of R2 (still unable, but willing) for a specific task, the leader should provide high amounts of both task and relationship behavior--a S2 or "selling" style. When the individual or groups is at a readiness level of R3 (able, but unwilling or insecure), the leader should provide little guidance but high amounts of relationship or support behavior--a S3 or "participating" style. At a readiness 4 level, the group is both willing and able to perform a specific task, and the leader should provide little direction or supportive behavior--a S4 or "delegating" style.

Two instruments are used to determine leadership effectiveness: "The Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description - Self" (LEAD-Self), and the "Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description - Other" (LEAD-Other). The LEAD instruments were designed to measure self-perceptions of three aspects of leadership style: style, style range (flexibility), and style adaptability (effectiveness).

Tucker (1984) suggests that an autocratic (high task, low relationship) chairperson may be most appropriate for a young and relatively immature

department. As the department matures, the chairperson may need to adopt a less autocratic and more participative style of leadership. "Unfortunately, some chairpersons choose an autocratic style because it suits their personalities rather than because it is the style best suited to the needs of the department" (p. 45).

Job-Related Stress

Stress in organizations is becoming an increasingly important concern in both academic research and organizational practices. Unfortunately, stress remains a term without conceptualization and without definitional and operational agreement (Selye, 1975; Mason, 1975; Beehr and Newman, 1978).

Selye (1956) defines stress as "a nonspecific response to any demand". Stress is defined as "a misfit between a person's skills and abilities and demands of the job" (French, Rogers, and Cobb, 1974). Beehr and Newman (1978), after an extensive review of research on stress, define "job stress as a condition wherein job related factors interact with the worker to change (disrupt or enhance) his/her psychological or physiological condition such that the person (mind and/or body) is forced to deviate from normal functioning."

Cooper and Marshall (1976) define job-related stress as "negative environmental factors or stressors (e.g., work overload, role conflict, role ambiguity, poor working conditions) associated with a particular job." Buck (1972) views job-related stress as basically dysfunctional, however, he concedes that some stress may be beneficial to the individual and the organization. Situations have potential for stress when the demands which are perceived exceed the individual's capabilities to meet them and where there are substantial differences in rewards and costs from meeting or not meeting the demands (McGrath, 1976).

Many studies on job-related stress focus on behavior in the work role. These studies frequently examine such role characteristics as role ambiguity, role conflict, role overload, role underload, and role-status congruency. Each of these role characteristics have been shown to be associated with stress (French, 1974 and Kahn et al., 1964).

Role Ambiguity, Role Conflict and Role Overload

Role ambiguity is "the degree to which required information is available to a given organizational position (Kahn, et al., 1964). The extent to which information is communicated clearly and consistently to an individual will determine the level of certainty he feels about his role requirements and his place in the organization. The extent to which such information is lacking will determine the level of ambiguity he experiences. Role ambiguity is predictably associated with stress and can lead to a reduction in the demands and requirements of the role being successfully met (Kahn, et al., 1964).

Bennett (1988) believes chairperson is a position with "role ambiguity built into it" (p. 59). According to the author, the chairperson has a difficult position of being a faculty member on one hand and an administrator who must deal with faculty problems on the other hand.

Role conflict occurs for an individual when various members of the organization hold different role expectations toward that person (Kahn, et al., 1964). One common characteristic of role conflict exist when members of the organization exert pressure to change the behavior of the individual. Kerr and Gade predict that in the coming decade the major source of conflict in higher education will be faculty against faculty and faculty against administration (cited in Green, 1988). "Conflict at one or more levels in an academic institution is a

regular and recurring part of the institution's [of higher education] life" (Ehrle and Bennett, 1988, p. 181).

Frew (1977) relates role conflict and role ambiguity with a role model approach. Complex role relationships in the organization contain four roles at work at any one time:

1. From the role sender:
 - a. Ideal role - What the person is (and should be) doing at the job.
 - b. Sent role - What the person wants another person to think they are (and should be) doing at the job.
2. From the role receiver:
 - a. Ideal role - What he thinks the role sender is (and should be) doing at the job.
 - b. Sent role - What he wants the role sender to think that he wants him to be doing at the job. These complex role relationships cause a great deal of conflict and ambiguity, which, in turn, cause stress.

For the individual and organization, conflict and ambiguity are not always unfavorable. Conflict, at times, may provide the basis for individual achievement and progressiveness; and ambiguity may lead to individual flexibility and adaptation to change (Kahn, et al., 1964). Researchers contend that job stress may have functional as well as dysfunctional qualities (Burke, 1976; Hall and Lawler, 1971; Lazarus, 1966; Selye, 1975).

Kahn, et al. (1964) conducted a National Survey on job-related stress. Their findings suggest that role conflict and role overload leads to intensified internal conflicts, increased tension associated with various aspects of the job, reduced satisfaction with the job and its various components, and decreased confidence in superiors and in the organization as a whole.

Role ambiguity leads to increased emotional tension and decreased satisfaction with one's job. Ambiguity also contributes significantly to a sense of futility and to a loss of self-confidence. The results indicated that conflict and ambiguity were independent sources of stress; either or both of them may be present in any given role. The highest level of stress occurred under the combined conditions of high conflict and high ambiguity, although the combination was not significantly higher than either one alone.

French, Caplan, and Harrison (1982) used the P-E fit model to compare the relationship of quantitative workload and stress, using samples of individuals from 23 different occupations. The conceptual idea behind the P-E fit model is that an individual's adjustment consists of goodness of fit between the characteristics of a person and the properties of that person's environment.

The results indicated that the greatest stress resulted for persons with jobs that were too complex rather than not complex enough. The relationship between job complexity and strain resulted in a U-shaped configuration. Too much job complexity was at least as stressful as too little job complexity.

Some studies on job stress have explored the relationship of stress and an individual's organizational effectiveness. In a study by Allen, Hitt, and Greer (1982) using professional and clerical subjects, types of stress (job conflict, job ambiguity, and job overload) were measured using Kahn's, et al. (1964) Job-Related Tension Index. The study found that, in general, as occupational stress increased, perceived organizational effectiveness decreased in magnitude.

Jamal (1984), in a study of hospital nurses in Montreal, concluded that the job stressors, role conflict, role overload, and resource inadequacy were related to job performance and motivation in a negative linear fashion. He believed his findings were appropriate because when individuals are unsure about their job duties and obligations, or receive conflicting messages from

different people in the organization, they are unlikely to show better or even moderately better performance on the job. The stressor role ambiguity showed a monotonic nonlinear relationship with job performance and motivation. Jamal concluded that this relationship should be further tested.

Jamal's (1984) study also compared the independent relationship of professional commitment to the four job stressors (role conflict, role ambiguity, role overload and resource inadequacy) and anticipatory turnover. Individuals with a high professional commitment were not as seriously affected by job stressors as those individuals with low professional commitment.

Stress and Administrators, Leaders, and Managers

Tung and Koch (1980) sought to compare the occupational stress profiles of male and female educational administrators to determine whether there were significant differences in their profiles. The study also examined whether males and females were equally good candidates for administrative jobs, which are positions often associated with a high degree of job-related stress.

The instrument utilized in the study was the Administrative Stress Index (Indik, Seashore, and Slesinger, 1964). The sample (n = 1,156) were members of the Confederation of Oregon School Administrators. Results indicated that women administrators experienced lower levels of self-perceived occupational stress than their male counterparts on all factors.

A study of 61 high-level managers participating in an executive development program measured the relationship of role conflict and role ambiguity to perceived threat and anxiety (Hamner and Tosi, 1974). Role conflict and role ambiguity were positively related to job threat and anxiety. The researchers made the argument that stress is a function of an individuals

organizational level. Perhaps because managers expect role conflict and role ambiguity to exist in an executive position, it does not produce a high degree of anxiety and stress.

Research reported by House (1971) suggests that under conditions of high stress, a high degree of leader supportiveness and consideration is required for organizational effectiveness and member satisfaction. His study also suggests that when task-role demands are ambiguous, leader initiating structure will have a positive effect on both performance and employee satisfaction.

Further studies by House and Rizzo (1972) of managerial and professional technical employees supported these findings. Formal organizational practices and task oriented leadership were found to be negatively correlated with role conflict and role ambiguity.

A national survey sample of males by Kahn, et al. (1964) noted that when the power of the role sender was high, individuals experienced high role conflict (Kahn, et al., 1964). Forty-eight percent reported that from time to time they were caught between two sets of people who wanted different things from them, and 15 percent reported this to be a frequent and serious problem. Conditions of high role conflict, generated by a powerful role sender who was dependent upon the person's performance, created for the individual a feeling of helplessness. The research indicated that individuals who cannot withdraw physically from the pressures of a powerful role sender, will at least withdraw psychologically.

Middle Management Administrators in Higher Education

Most of the higher education literature concerning leadership deals with the presidency; few research studies have been published concerning deans, department heads, and chairpersons in higher education. According to Dill (1980, p. 261), "deanships are important and, today, almost universal elements in the organizational structures of American colleges and universities." He believes that the role of deanship deserves more attention than it has received in studies of higher education.

In a 1975 study by Litherland of the functions of the dean of home economics in land grant colleges and universities, the review of research found very limited studies identifying the actual function of practicing deans. It was concluded that the position of dean has "gradually evolved into a central position between faculty and higher administration" (Litherland, 1975, p. 46).

Profile of Middle Management Administrators of Colleges and Universities

Cyphert and Zimpher's study (1976) was conducted to identify the personal and professional characteristics of deans of schools, colleges and departments of education. Their study was based on a 20 percent sample (n = 271) of the entire population. Each institution was ranked from low to high according to their total enrollment to assure that the sample was representative of size. At the time of the sample (October 1975), the population of schools, colleges, and departments of education totaled 1,360 institutions.

Data obtained in the Cyphert and Zimpher's study (1976) revealed the following profile of the personal characteristics of deans:

1. The current mean age of all deans was 48.
2. Eighty-four percent of the respondents were male and 16 percent were female.
3. Women were more likely to carry the title "chairperson" in contrast to men, who were more often called "dean".

Other characteristics included:

4. Ninety-three percent of the respondents in the study were white, six percent black, and one percent Oriental.
5. Of the respondents, 86 percent were married, four percent were widowed or divorced, and 10 percent never married.
6. The mean number of children for the sample was 2.1 children.
7. Fifty-nine percent of the spouses of the respondents who were married were employed.
8. Ninety-two percent of the respondents had doctorates.
9. Forty-five percent of the mothers of male deans were not employed outside the home, whereas 47 percent of the mothers of female deans were employed.

The professional profile of the deans determined the following:

1. Of the respondents who received doctorates, the mean age for completion of the degree was 37 years of age, with a range of ages from 31 to 40 years.
2. Most of the respondents had acquired a dean's position two years after first giving it consideration. Males took slightly more than that amount of time (2.2 years), while females took considerably less time between consideration and acquisition (.65 years).

3. Of the respondents, 37 percent were deans or acting deans; 40 percent were chairpersons or acting chairpersons; and the remaining 23 percent were heads, directors, or professors.

4. Eighty-nine percent of the respondents had a position in higher education before becoming a dean, and 57 percent became a dean at the same institution in which they were previously employed.

5. Previous employment revealed that 12 percent had been chairpersons, 12 percent had been associate or assistant deans, and 3 percent had been both. Less than one percent had held a previous dean's position before their current one.

The professional profile also determined the following:

6. The average amount of time the deans had held their position was 5 1/2 years.

7. Sixty-four percent of those sampled were professors, and 23 percent were associate professors. The higher percentage of full professors occurred among males. Ninety-two percent of the total array of respondents did not have tenure as deans.

8. The highest mean salary was reported by those working for doctoral institutions and the lowest salaries occurring in bachelor institutions. Salaries in private institutions were lower than those in public institutions.

Moore, Salimbene, Marlier, and Bragg's (1983) conducted a study utilizing a normative career trajectory for academic deans. The normative career trajectory was developed by establishing sequentially ordered, common positions that begin with a single entry position (i.e., faculty) and end with a single top position (i.e., president). In order to examine the career trajectory for deans, each dean's career history was analyzed to determine what positions

the individual had held during his/her career (i.e., faculty, department head, assistant or associate dean, and dean).

The examination of career histories of a sample of 653 deans revealed that approximately six percent had held each position: faculty, department head, and assistant or associate dean. They found that the largest percentage (34%) of deans came to their position directly from the position of faculty. The next largest percentage (29%) moved from faculty, to department head, to dean. Fifteen percent with no faculty experience became deans. By examining the career trajectory of deans, the researchers concluded that "although faculty experience is the predominant entry portal for the dean...a fairly large percentage of individuals had managed to reach their current positions without it" (p. 514).

Faulwell and Gordon (1983) conducted a survey of the members of the American Conference of Academic Deans. This survey yielded responses from 90% of the members--238 male and 68 female administrators. The majority of the respondents were employed at institutions with a faculty size under 300 (87.9%) and student bodies under 3,000 (74.3%). Seventy-five percent of the respondents were employed by private institutions. The research indicated a significant differences in the responses between males and females concerning salary, level of position, and number of years in higher education administration.

Results from the survey determined the salaries, age, and years in higher education administration of male and female respondents. The percentage of males with a salary less than \$35,000 was 25.2 percent as compared to 53.8 percent of the females. Twenty-six percent of males earned salaries over \$50,000 compared to only six percent of the females.

The results of the survey indicated no statistically significant difference in the age distribution of respondents. The percentage of respondents 40 years of age or younger was 3.5 percent of the females and 12.2 percent of the males. The median age for male respondents was 48.2 and for females 46.5 years. Faulwell and Gordon found that a greater percentage of males (28.3%) as opposed to females (10.3%), had been in higher education administration for over 13 years. The survey also revealed that a greater number of males, 16.4 percent compared to 4.4 percent of females, had been in their present position for nine years or more.

Faulwell and Gordon concluded that the lower salary of female administrators was due to their younger age and fewer number of years in higher education administration. It appeared that both males and females entered higher education administration at approximately the same median age, 39 years. In the Cyphert and Zimpher study (1976), the mean age at which respondents had assumed their current deanship was 43 years, with a mean range from 37 to 48 years. Faulwell and Gordon found that salaries between males and females do not appear to differ significantly during the first three years, but begin to differ significantly in the three to five year ($p < .02$) and five to seven year categories ($p < .005$).

Moore (1983) conducted a national study of administrators in higher education ($n = 2,896$). There were 653 deans or directors in the sample, of which 13.8 percent were women. Over one half of the women deans were in the fields of nursing, home economics, arts and sciences and continuing education.

Moore's (1983) study revealed the following:

1. Slightly more than one-third (38.8%) of the female respondents held academic rank comparable to 54.3 percent of the males.

2. Not quite half (46%) of the women were full professor; while 65.4 percent of the male administrators had attained this distinction.

3. While the majority of male administrators were currently married (87.8%); less than half (43.7%) of the women were married.

4. The majority (69%) of the respondents' mothers were homemakers.

Functions and Roles of Academic Deans of Colleges and Universities

In 1983, Dr. J. L. Gant addressed the Annual Meeting of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education. In his speech, he mentioned "key linkage functions" performed by a dean. He mentioned that the dean performs the following key functions (Gant, 1983, p. 15):

- A. As a political lobbyist in public relations.
- B. As speech-maker and alumni director.
- C. As professional leader and active participant in professional societies and associations.
- D. As professor--researcher, instructor, writer.
- E. As institutional politician--establishing ties to the board of trustees, other deans, the faculty senate, and central administration.
- F. As leader--in reaching consensus on educational values and giving them meaning in the context of the school, college or department.

According to Prock (1981), a dean should "let go, delegate responsibilities, and not have tight control" (American Association of Colleges of Nursing, p. 35). She believes excellence in meeting the mission of the school and in recruiting qualified faculty require the participation of faculty members.

Tucker and Bryan (1988) describe the dean as the chief spokesperson for the college and the chairperson as the main communication link between

the faculty and the dean. Through the dean, the chairperson also at times communicates and interacts with vice presidents and presidents. The dean and the chairperson are responsible for improving and maintaining the department's image and reputation to upper-level administrators, funding agencies, and the general public.

A 1977 study done by Charles E. Skipper dealt with the administrative skills of effective and ineffective university leaders. Twenty university administrators of the American Council on Education Fellows in the Academic Administration Internship Program participated in the study. They were asked to identify an effective and ineffective academic administrator.

Effective administrators have a greater tendency to understand the facts required of their position, to anticipate problems, to organize, and to carefully weigh costs against expected results compared to ineffective administrators (Skipper, 1977). Skipper found that effective administrators were judged to be more inspirational, to make more correct decisions, to be more effective in dealing with others, and to perform their duties at a superior level compared to the ineffective administrators. Least effective administrators often failed to see ahead, lacked knowledge about their job, and were poor organizers. They were described as weak leaders, who made unsound decisions, who were unable to get along with others, and who produced poor quality work (Skipper, 1977, p. 278).

Dill (1980) mentioned changes occurring in the deanship.

1. The deanship was the first major subordinate position created to augment the leadership that presidents gave. The deanship is now just one of many. More and more, especially in large institutions, the deanship is a middle-level position.

2. Deans are becoming more remote from faculty and students in large systems. A position that originally was created to insure guidance and counseling to young faculty and personal attention to students has now become so complex that many of these functions have been delegated.

3. Deans are often just a little more than spectators in the campus power game. Often the dean is caught in the middle between the tight management of the president and the governing boards and the concerns of students and faculty.

4. Deans may not allow the job to change as fast as will be necessary to meet new needs. According to Dill (1980), there continues to be a need for more emphasis on academic leadership rather than academic administration.

5. Deans must begin to learn the relationship between economics and education. This will be necessary to protect universities in future times when resources will be scarce.

6. Deans must also keep their schools socially responsive and responsible. Universities, like corporations, have the right to tell society what they want to do and to remind society about what they can and cannot do. He believes that presently "events and constituencies seem to be calling for stronger leadership" when filling deans positions (Griffiths and McCarty, p. 278).

Summary

In this chapter, literature on the areas of leadership, job-related stress, and the middle-management position in higher education was reviewed. The subjects of leadership and stress have been vastly researched so an attempt was made to focus mainly on research dealing with administrators. Literature on the "middle management" position in higher education usually entails the

deans position, and occasionally the position of chairperson or department head. More studies defining the role of deans need to be conducted.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

There are numerous studies on leadership and stress but very few studies have been conducted to investigate both simultaneously. The purpose of this study was to examine the leadership behavior of chief administrators of home economics programs, and to determine if their leadership role was stress related. Specifically, home economics administrators were asked the following:

a) How they would behave in certain leadership situations? and

b) What they find stressful about their leadership position? Details concerning the research design; population; data collection including planning and development, instrumentation, and survey procedures; and data analysis are included in this chapter.

Research Design

Descriptive research was used to meet the objectives of the study. Descriptive research "is concerned with hypothesis formulation and testing, the analysis of the relationships between nonmanipulated variables, and the development of generalizations. It involves describing, recording, analyzing, and interpreting conditions that exist." (Best and Kahn, 1986, p. 24). The purpose of descriptive research is to describe things the way they are (Huck, Cormier, and Bounds, 1974, p. 18). A survey was used for this study in order to reach the total population of chief administrators of home economics programs in institutions of higher education throughout the United States.

Population

The population used in this study was all chief administrators (n = 272) of home economics programs of U.S. colleges or universities. The list of home economics administrators was obtained from the 1987 membership list of the Association of Administrators in Home Economics (AAHE) and the National Council of Administrators of Home Economics (NCAHE).

Data Collection

Planning and Development

Planning and development of the research study began in the fall of 1987 and continued through April 1988. Data collection procedures were determined, a survey instrument was formulated, research of literature was conducted, and data analysis techniques were selected at that time.

Development of the Instrument

After an extensive review of educational research literature on leadership and stress, the survey instruments for the study were selected. Three instruments were utilized for the study: a biographical questionnaire, the LEAD-self questionnaire, and the Job-Related Tension (JRT) Index questionnaire.

A pilot study was conducted in February 1988. Except for the dean, all academic and unit administrators (n = 11) in the College of Home Economics at Oklahoma State University were asked to complete the questionnaire. Seventy-five percent of the administrators responded to the pilot study. Participants examined the biographical instrument for content validity, clarity and format. From their recommendations, the biographical questionnaire was

revised. Respondents were asked to record the length of time it took to complete all three instruments.

The Instrument

Biographical Questionnaire. The biographical questionnaire was designed by the researcher to obtain information from home economics chief administrators in two major areas: personal information and institutional information. Personal questions dealt with age, gender, ethnic background, marital status, number of children, sole support of household, whether their mother worked, educational background, additional training in leadership and/or administration, position title, number of years in present position, academic rank, route to administrative position, and salary. Institutional questions dealt with number of home economics majors, number of home economics degrees offered, number of faculty in department or college, and hours worked in position per week. The questionnaire consisted of 16 items and was based, in part, on items selected in similar questionnaires designed to collect biographical information from higher education administrators. Each item could be checked or completed within a minimum of time.

Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description-Self Instrument. The LEAD-Self instrument was utilized in the study in an attempt to determine the administrators' self-perception of leadership style, style range, and style adaptability. The LEAD instrument was originally developed by Hersey and Blanchard at the Center for Leadership Studies, Ohio University, Athens, Ohio, as a training instrument. The researcher obtained permission to use the instrument from the Center for Leadership Studies, Escondido, California. The

LEAD-Self instrument was purchased from University Associates, Inc., at a cost of 95¢ per instrument.

Since the inception of LEAD, it has been used in more than 100 research studies (Hersey and Blanchard, 1988). Originally the instrument was known as the "Leader Adaptability and Style Inventory" (LASI). Initial publication of the LEAD-Self instrument appeared in the February 1974 issue of *Training and Development Journal* in an article entitled "So You Want to Know Your Leadership Style?" (Hersey and Blanchard, 1974). Since its initial publication, the instrument has been modified and refined.

The LEAD-Self instrument contains 12 leadership situations in which respondents are asked to select from four alternative actions which reflect their leadership behavior if confronted with that particular situation. A task-oriented or relationship-oriented behavior, or a combination of both, is contingent upon the readiness level of the group in each of the situations described. The questions are differentiated in the following manner: three situations involve groups of low readiness (R1), three situations involve groups of moderate readiness (R2), three situations involve groups of moderate to high readiness (R3), and three situations involve groups of high readiness (R4).

Readiness is defined as the extent to which a follower has the ability and willingness to accomplish a specific task. Ability is the knowledge, experience, and skill that an individual or group brings to a particular task or activity. Willingness is the extent to which an individual or group has the confidence, commitment, and motivation to accomplish a specific task. The situational Leadership Model provides assistance in (1) diagnosing the level of readiness, (2) adapting by selecting high probability leadership styles, and (3) communicating these styles effectively to influence behavior (Hersey and Blanchard, 1988, p. 181).

Style and style range are determined by four ipsative style scores, and style adaptability (effectiveness) is determined by one normative score. The more the respondent's choices reflect a distribution among the four combinations of leader behaviors (S1, S2, S3, and S4), the more adaptive/effective is the leader. Leadership adaptability score is determined by combining the style scores of the leader (Hersey and Blanchard, 1988).

Information on validity and reliability for LEAD-Self was obtained from the Center for Leadership Studies, Escondido, California. The LEAD-Self instrument was standardized using responses of 264 managers (Greene, 1980). The managers ranged in age from 21 to 64 years. Thirty percent were entry level managers, while 55 percent were middle managers and 14 percent were at the high level of management.

The 12 item validities for the adaptability score ranged from .11 to .52, and 10 of the 12 coefficients (83%) were .25 or higher. Eleven coefficients were significant beyond the .01 level and one was significant at the .05 level. With respect to selection frequency, each response option met the operationally defined criterion of less than 80 percent (Greene, 1980).

The stability of LEAD-Self was moderately strong. Across a six-week interval, 75 percent of the managers maintained their dominant style and 71 percent maintained their alternate style. The contingency coefficients were both .71 and each were significant ($p < 0.01$) (Greene, 1980).

According to Greene (1980), in another study a significant ($p < 0.01$) correlation of .67 was found between the adaptability scores of the managers and the independent ratings of their supervisors. Based upon these findings, LEAD-Self is deemed to be an empirically sound instrument.

In a study of 26 elementary school principals (Walter, Caldwell and Marshall, 1980), two measures of internal consistency yielded reliability

coefficients of .810 and .613. Congruent validity of the instrument was conducted by administering the LEAD instrument to 12 elementary school principals and the LBDQ-XII to four teachers from each of their schools. LBDQ-XII measures, among other dimensions, initiating structure which can be related to LEAD's task behaviors and consideration which can be related to LEAD's relationship behaviors. The comparison found that principals perceived by teachers as "always" initiating structure tended to choose high task/low relationship responses on the LEAD, and did not have high effectiveness scores. Moreover, principals who preferred low task/high relationship behavior were perceived by teachers as "seldom" or "never" initiating structure.

Job-Related Tension Index. The Job-Related Tension (JRT) Index questionnaire (Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, and Rosenthal, 1964, pp. 424-425) was utilized in the study to assess the type of stress experienced by leaders on the job. The JRT Index was designed to measure different sources of job-related stress individuals encounter on the job. The instrument contains 16 items; two statements relate to job overload, five items relate to job ambiguity, and nine items relate to job conflict.

The Job-Related Tension Index was originally published in *Organizational Stress: Studies in Role Conflict and Ambiguity* (1964). From examination of the instrument, Indik, Seashore and Slesinger (1964) reported a split-half reliability of .85. Evidence of clustering was weak, and each item correlated with the index much stronger than it correlated with any other component item (p. 28). The researcher obtained permission to use the instrument from the book publisher, John Wiley and Sons, Inc., Permission Department, New York City, New York.

Survey Procedures

Due to the wide geographical spread and the size of the population, the data were collected using a mail survey approach. A personal cover letter using the name and address of each home economics chief administrator accompanied the instrument and explained the purpose of the research and instructions for completing the questionnaire. The cover letter was printed on department letter head.

The survey instrument was constructed into a full-page booklet. The biographical instrument and stress instrument were printed on heavy-weight green bond paper with blue lettering in order to identically match the LEAD-Self instrument that was purchased from University Associates, Inc., 8517 Production Avenue, San Diego, California, 92121. A numerical coding system was used for statistical analysis purposes. The cover letter and instrument were mailed first class in a 9 X 12 inch stamped manila envelope and were labeled with the name and address of the home economics administrator. The survey booklet was self-addressed and stamped on the back with instructions to fold into thirds for ease in returning the questionnaire. The 272 questionnaires were mailed on February 13, 1988, and respondents were asked to return them by March 1, 1988.

Fifty-five percent ($n = 150$) of the survey instruments were received by March 8, 1988. Ten of the respondents did not complete the LEAD-Self instrument. A follow-up note and the LEAD-Self instrument were returned to them, in which 70 percent ($n = 7$) returned it completed.

A follow-up postcard was mailed to each nonrespondent ($n = 117$) on March 7, 1988 to encourage participation in the study. Of the nonrespondents who received a postcard, 19 percent ($n = 22$) returned the survey. One survey from the follow-up group was incomplete. The total response ($n = 173$) for the

study was 64 percent for the biographical and stress portion of the study and 60 percent (n = 163) for the entire survey, including LEAD-Self.

Data Analysis

The collected data for each subject was entered into the computer using PC-File for statistical analysis. Appropriate programs were selected to analyze the data using the Statistical Analysis System (SAS) (SAS Institute, 1987). Data obtained from the biographical questionnaire were tabulated using frequency tables and percentages. Standard statistical procedures, such as frequency, t-test, analysis of variance (ANOVA), Duncan's multiple range test, and the two-way chi square were used to analyze the leadership and job-related stress data.

Analysis of LEAD Data

The LEAD-Self instrument yields three types of information, leadership style, style range, and style adaptability. The four basic styles are: high task/low relationship (S1), "telling"; high task/ high relationship (S2), "selling"; low task/high relationship (S3), "participating"; and low task/low relationship (S4), "delegating". The primary leadership style was determined as the quadrant or quadrants (Q1-Q4) with the greatest number of responses. When ties occurred in the responses, the primary style was indicated as a combination of the two or three styles receiving equal responses.

Five primary leadership styles emerged from the data: 1) highest number of responses in Q1, Q2, or Q3, 2) equal number of highest responses in Q2, and Q3, and 3) Equal number of highest responses in Q1, Q2, and Q3. These five groups were used to statistically analyze the leaders' primary styles.

Style range refers to the extent to which the style varies. Style range and flexibility is determined by the total number of quadrants (Q1, Q2, Q3, and Q4) in which there are two or more responses. One response in a quadrant is not statistically significant. The style range comprised three main groups: a) four quadrants with two responses in each, b) 3 quadrants with two or more responses in each (Q1, Q2, Q3 or Q2, Q3, Q4), and c) 2 quadrants with two or more responses in each (Q1, Q2 or Q2, Q3). These three groups were used to statistically analyze the leaders style range. Three respondents did not have two or more responses in at least two quadrants, therefore, lacked sufficient style range to be analyzed.

Style adaptability indicates the degree to which an individual can vary the style appropriate for the readiness level of the individual or group involved in the different situations. Style adaptability is more relevant to effectiveness than style range; a wide style range will not guarantee effectiveness (Hersey and Blanchard, 1988, p. 273). Adaptability scores were determined by assigning a scoring weight to each response according to its degree of correctness. The scoring weights assigned were +3 for the correct action, +2 for the closest partially correct action, +1 for the next most correct action, and 0 for the most incorrect action. Style adaptability or effectiveness scores can range from zero to 36.

The Style/Readiness Matrix (SRM) provides a summary of the administrator's style range and adaptability (effectiveness) as a leader. It was designed to measure readiness using two dimensions: 1) ability, or job readiness, and 2) willingness, or psychological readiness. The Matrix describes the behavior used by the leader as four types: high probability, anxiety, frustration, and havoc. Each of the four types were statistically analyzed.

In this study, primary styles, style range, and adaptability (effectiveness) scores were compared to the personal and institutional variables of home economics chief administrators along with the components of the Style/Readiness Matrix. Data for the five hypotheses tested were nominal in nature and independent of each other. Based on these considerations, the tests of two-way chi square, ANOVA, and Duncan's multiple range were used to analyze the data. The alpha level for all tests of significance was set at the .05 level.

Analysis of Job-Related Tension Index

Responses to the Job-Related Tension (JRT) Index were grouped into the following categories: 1) doesn't apply, 2) never or rarely, 3) sometimes, or 4) rather often or nearly all the time. Scores for each of the 16 questions were statistically compared to the personal and institutional variables, and the leadership variables using chi square, ANOVA, and Duncan's multiple range test.

The sixteen questions in JRT were grouped into the following types of job stress: role overload (Questions 1, 5, 8, 9, 10, 13, 14, 15, 16), role ambiguity (Questions 2, 3, 6, 7, 11) and role overload (Questions 4 and 12). Scores from each of the three job stressors were statistically compared to the personal and institutional variables, and the leadership variables using chi square, ANOVA, and Duncan's multiple range test.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to assess the leadership behavior and job-related stress of chief administrators of home economics programs. Data were obtained using the research instrument described in Chapter III. The questionnaire was mailed to 272 members of the Association of Administrators of Home Economics (AAHE) and the National Council of Administrators of Home Economics (NCAHE). Total response was 64 percent (n = 173). All of the questionnaires returned were usable for statistical analysis of job related stress. The LEAD-Self portion of 10 questionnaires was incomplete or not returned, therefore only 60 percent (n = 163) of the questionnaires were usable for statistical analysis of leadership.

Characteristics of Home Economics

Chief Administrators

Age, Gender, and Race

Thirty-five percent of the respondents were in the 45 or under age group (n = 61) and 39 percent (n = 68) were in the 46 to 55 age group. This age group is comparable to Moore's (1983) study where nearly one-third of the administrators were between 45-50 years old. The remaining 25 percent (n = 44) were 56 years of age or older (Figure 1).

Eighty-eight percent (n = 152) of the respondents were females, while the remaining 12 percent (n = 21) were males. In 1983, the Leaders in Transition

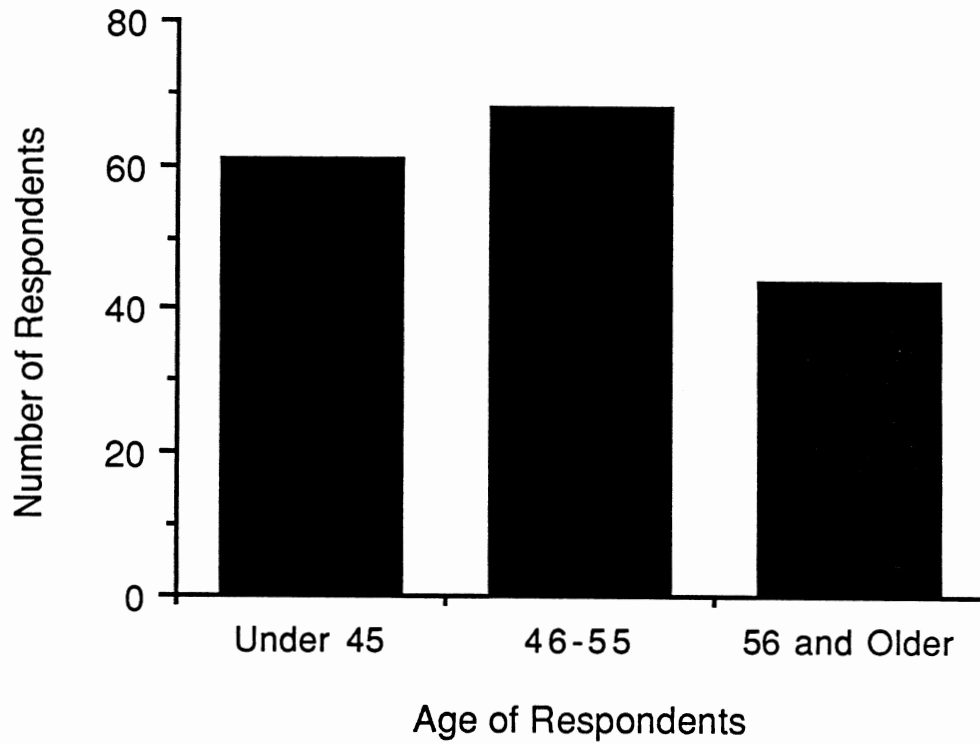


Figure 1. Age of Home Economics Chief Administrators

project listed home economics as one of only four fields in which more than half of the administrators were women.

Ninety-one percent ($n = 158$) of the respondents declared white as their race. Minorities comprised nine percent of the population; of those blacks represented six percent ($n = 10$) of the respondents. The remaining three percent represented Asians ($n = 4$) and Hispanic ($n = 1$). The findings are slightly higher than the 5.5 percent of minorities represented in Moore's (1983) study. The gender and race of home economics administrators is shown in Figure 2.

Highest-Level Degree Obtained and Major

Eighty percent ($n = 138$) of the respondents had obtained a doctoral degree, 3.5 percent ($n = 6$) were working on a doctoral degree, while 18 percent ($n = 29$) did not have a doctorate and were not pursuing the degree. This is less than the chief administrators of education studied by Cyphert and Zimpher (1976); 92 percent had a doctorate. Seventy-one percent ($n = 92$) of the respondents had a doctoral degree in home economics; of which 43 percent ($n = 56$) had specialized within home economics and 28 percent ($n = 36$) had majored in home economics education, general home economics, or vocational home economics (Figure 3).

Twenty-two percent ($n = 38$) of the home economics chief administrators responded that they had a doctoral degree outside of home economics, while 5 percent ($n = 8$) did not list the major. The major cited by respondents with a non home economics doctoral degree is listed in Table I. Six percent ($n = 10$) of the respondents had a specialist degree above the doctorate.

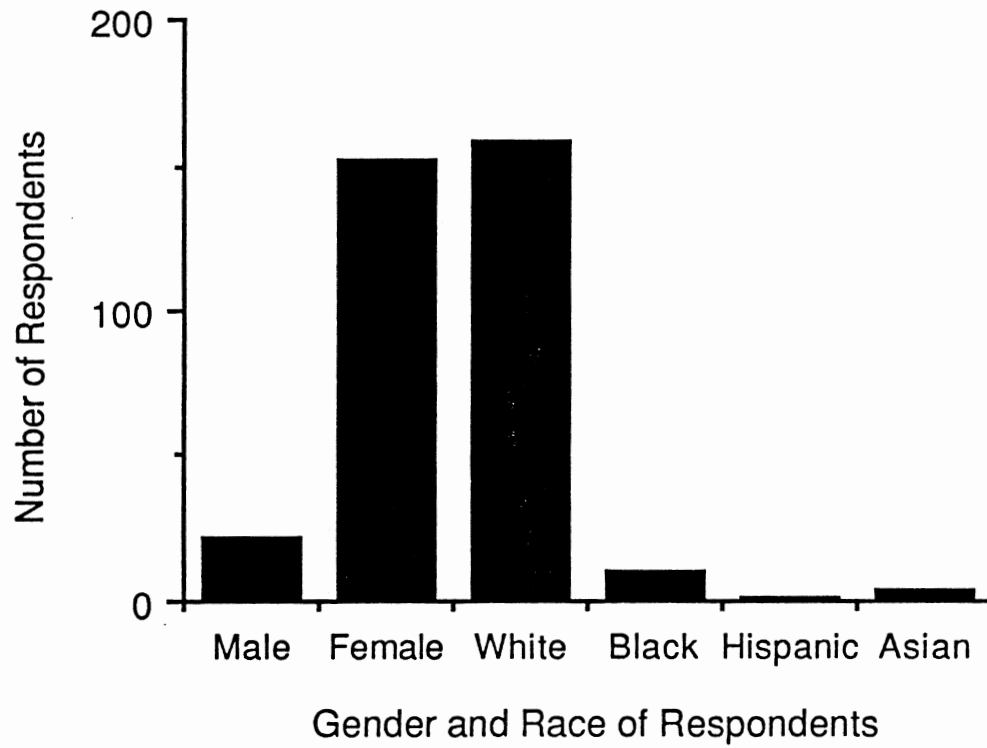
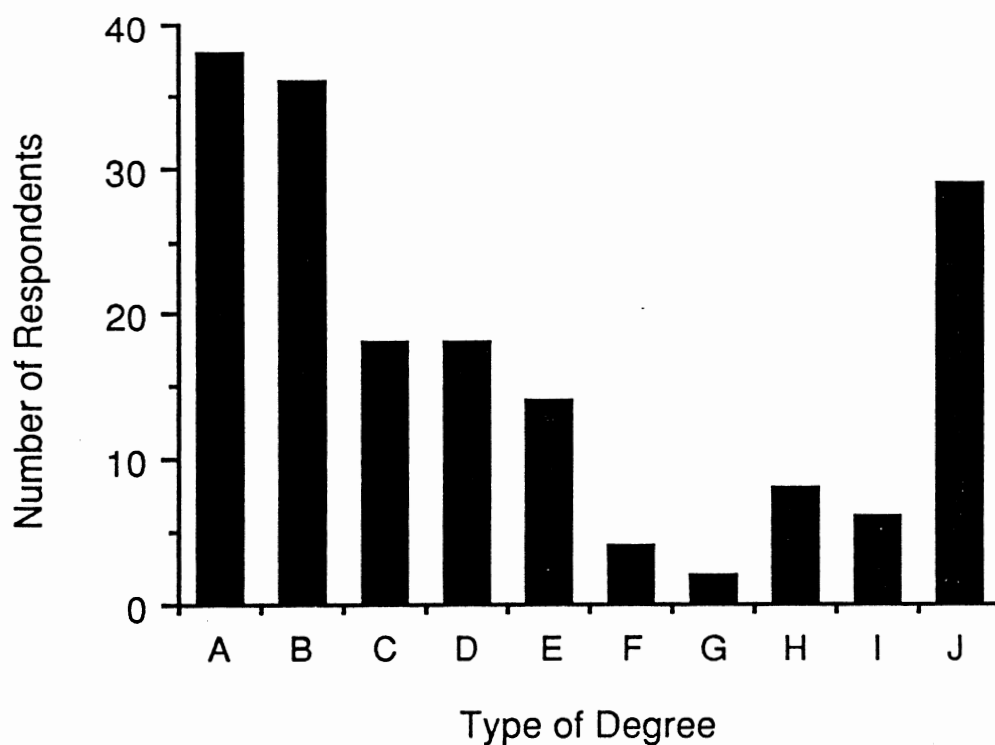


Figure 2. Gender and Race of Home Economics Chief Administrators



- A = Non Home Economics
- B = Home Economics Education, Vocational Education, General Home Economics
- C = Food and Nutrition, Dietetics, Institution Administration, Food Science
- D = Child, Family, and Human Development
- E = Clothing and Textiles, Textiles Chemistry, Fashion Merchandising
- F = Consumer, Family Economics, Home Management
- G = Housing, Interior Design
- H = No Major Given
- I = Working Toward Degree
- J = No Doctoral Degree

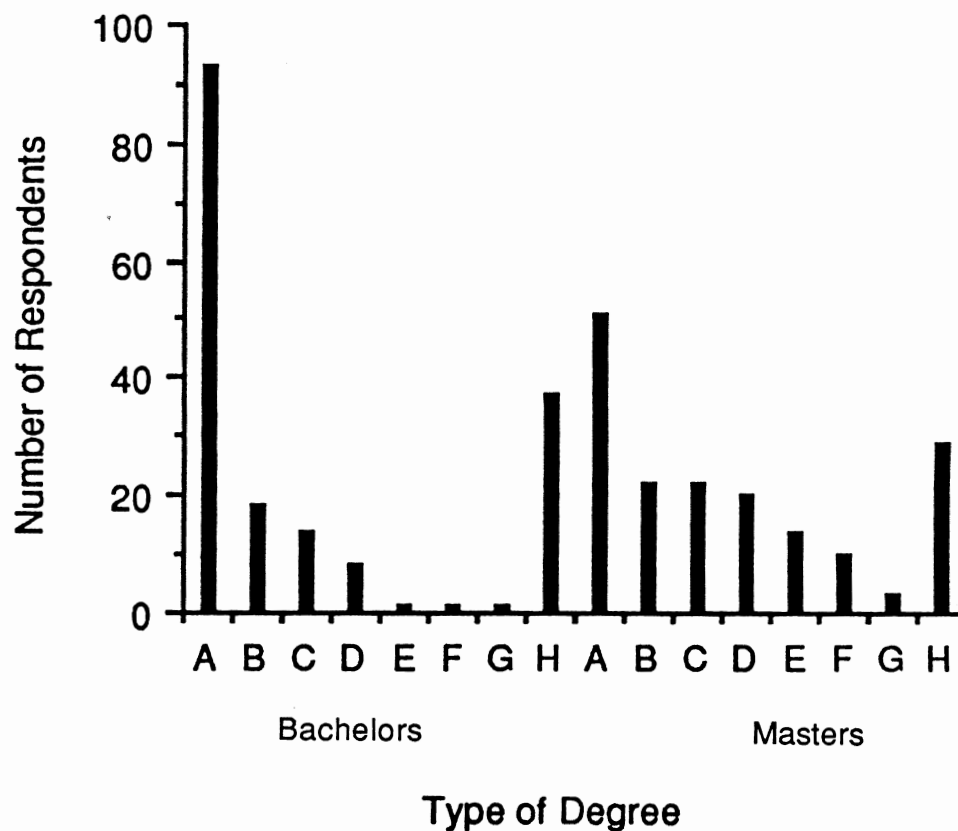
Figure 3. Doctoral Degrees and Majors Obtained by Home Economics Chief Administrators

TABLE I
TYPE AND FREQUENCY OF DOCTORAL DEGREES OBTAINED BY
HOME ECONOMICS CHIEF ADMINISTRATORS IN AN AREA
OUTSIDE OF HOME ECONOMICS

Non Home Economics Degrees	Frequency
Education	
Administration	10
Curriculum and Instruction	7
Adult Education	3
Research and Evaluation	3
Other Education	5
Agriculture	5
Psychology	3
Statistics	2
n = 38	

Bachelor and Master Degrees and Majors

Figure 4 illustrates the degrees and majors mentioned by the home economics chief administrators for master and bachelor degrees earned. Over half (54%) of the respondents had a bachelors degree in home economics education, vocational home economics, or general home economics (n = 93). Even though it had decreased somewhat at the masters level, this major was still the largest percentage with 29 percent (n = 51). At the bachelor (8%, n = 14) and master (13%, n = 22) level, the major of foods and nutrition, dietetics, institution administration or food science was the dominant specialty home economics areas (Figure 4).



- A = Home Economics Education, Vocational Education, General Home Economics
 B = Non Home Economics
 C = Foods and Nutrition, Dietetics, Institution Administration, Food Science
 D = Clothing and Textiles, Textiles Chemistry, Fashion Merchandising
 E = Child, Family, and Human Development
 F = Consumer, Family Economics, Home Management
 G = Housing, Interior Design
 H = No Major Given

Figure 4. Bachelor and Master Degrees and Majors Obtained by Home Economics Chief Administrators

Position Title

Ten different position titles were claimed by the respondents. The most common title for home economics chief administrators was that of department chairperson (n = 82, 48%) (Table II). Least common titles were associate dean, assistant dean, and division chairperson (2% each) and division head (n = 1) with one percent.

Seven percent (n = 12) of the chief administrators listed two position titles, as illustrated in Table III. The most frequent double position titles (2% each) were Dean and Assistant Director of Agricultural Experiment Station, and Department Chairperson and Assistant Dean.

TABLE II
FREQUENCY AND PERCENT OF POSITION TITLES OF
HOME ECONOMICS CHIEF ADMINISTRATORS

Position Title	Frequency	Percent*
Department Chairperson	82	47
Dean	33	19
Department Head	26	15
Director	18	10
Coordinator	9	5
Assistant Director	4	2
Associate Dean	3	2
Division Chairperson	3	2
Assistant Dean	3	2
Division Head	2	1
No Title Given	2	1

n = 185, 12 administrators listed two position titles.

*Percentage based on 173 administrators.

*Sum not equal to 100 due to round off error.

TABLE III
 FREQUENCY OF TWO POSITION TITLES BY HOME ECONOMICS
 CHIEF ADMINISTRATORS

Two Position Titles	Frequency
Dean and Assistant Director, Agricultural Experiment Station	3
Department Chairperson and Assistant Dean	3
Department Chairperson and Division Chairperson	1
Department Chairperson and Director	1
Department Chairperson and Coordinator	1
Director of School and Director of College	1
Department Head and Associate Dean	1
Department Head and Division Chairperson	1

n = 12

Number of Years in Present Position
 and Faculty Rank

Thirty-eight percent (n = 65) of those who responded to the survey had worked in their present position two years or less. Of those, eight percent (n = 14) of the respondents reported that they were the acting chief administrator for the home economics unit. Forty-seven percent (n = 82) of the respondents had worked in their present position for three to 10 years, 11 percent (n = 19) from 11 to 20 years, and the remaining four percent (n = 7) for more than 20 years.

Forty percent (n = 66) of the home economics administrators had achieved the academic rank of professor. This is slightly lower than the female respondents (46%) in Moore's (1983) research who had achieved the rank of professor. Thirty-three percent (n = 54) of the respondents were associate professor rank and 16 percent (n = 27) were assistant professor rank. The

remaining 11 percent (n = 19) gave instructor as their academic rank. Seven respondents gave no academic rank.

Route

When the administrators were asked the route they took to becoming a chief administrator, the most predominant route was faculty member to chairperson/department head to current chief administrative position (n = 80, 46%), followed by faculty member to chief administrator (n = 55, 32%). Since such a high number of respondents were currently a chairperson/department heads (63%), it appears that some chief administrators did not exclude their present position when answering this question. It seems more likely that the highest number would have followed the route of faculty member to present chief administrator. Six percent (n = 11) followed the route of faculty member to department head/chairperson to associate/assistant dean to chief administrator. Six percent (n = 10) were a faculty member and an associate or assistant dean before becoming chief administrator. Nine percent (n = 15) listed "other" position routes before becoming chief administrator. This supports Green (1988) and Tucker (1988) who stress the prevalence of academic leaders rising through the academic ranks and learning administration as they go. The "other" 15 routes mentioned by the home economics chief administrators are listed in Table IV.

Salary and Time Spent Working Per Week

Forty-two percent (n = 73) of the respondents had a annual salary for their present position of \$40,000 or less. Only six percent (n = 11) made over \$80,000. Salaries of home economics chief administrators are listed in Table V.

TABLE IV
 "OTHER" ROUTES TO CURRENT HOME ECONOMICS
 CHIEF ADMINISTRATIVE POSITION

"Other" Routes to Administrative Position

1. Faculty → associate or assistant dean → CEO of association → chief administrator
2. Chief administrator only
3. Faculty → director → profession organization executive → director → chief administrator
4. State supervisor for department of education → chief administrator
5. Assistant to dean → associate dean → chief administrator
6. Faculty → department head/chairperson → director
7. Faculty → department head/chairperson → associate/assistant dean → assistant vice provost → chief administrator
8. Faculty → graduate administrator → chief administrator
9. Faculty → director → chief administrator
10. Faculty → department head → president of a college → department head → chief administrator
11. Faculty → assistant dean → government scientist → chief administrator
12. Faculty → deputy chairperson → chief administrator
13. State government → chief administrator
14. Extension agent → extension specialist → chief administrator
15. Faculty → USOE Fellow → program officer → U.S. government → associate dean → chief administrator

TABLE V
 FREQUENCY AND PERCENT OF ANNUAL SALARY EARNED
 BY HOME ECONOMICS CHIEF ADMINISTRATORS

Annual Salary in \$	Frequency	Percent
Less than 40,000	73	42
40,000 - 49,999	36	21
50,000 - 59,999	27	16
60,000 - 69,999	14	8
70,000 - 79,999	12	7
80,000 and above	11	6

n = 173

The majority of administrators, 52 percent (n = 90), spent 51 to 60 hours per week fulfilling their job responsibilities. Twenty-six percent (n = 45) spent over 60 hours per week fulfilling job responsibilities and the remaining 22 percent (n = 38) spent 40 to 50 hours per week working as a home economics administrator. According to Tucker (1984), due to the amount of work involved with the position, even effective time management will probably not significantly reduce this "middle administrator's" work load.

Leadership and Administrative Development

Information on participation in informal programs for additional training in leadership and administration was solicited. Over three-fourths (n = 131, 76%) of the respondents reported attending seminars and workshops. Twelve percent (n = 21) participated in intensive training programs at Harvard University or Bryn Mawr College; while nine percent (n = 16) had received

American Council on Education Fellows programs. Fourteen percent ($n = 24$) mentioned "other" types of training, with the highest percentage ($n = 12$) listing AAHE and NCAHE meetings (Table VI). Since less than half of the administrators had participated in some of the more renowned leadership programs, these findings appear to agree with Scott (1978) who stated that, "higher education has not yet realized its responsibility for the professional development of its mid-level staffs" (p. 35).

TABLE VI
FREQUENCY OF "OTHER" TYPES OF TRAINING BY
HOME ECONOMICS CHIEF ADMINISTRATORS

Types of Training	Frequency
AAHE and NCAHE Meetings	12
AHEA Midcareer Leadership Conference	2
Government Training Programs	2
Management Courses	1
NIH Extramural Associates Program	1
AES Training	1
Post-doctoral NIMH Fellow	1
Reading	1
Administrator's Certification	1
University Retreat	1
Center for Creative Leadership	1
<hr/>	
n = 24	

Marital Status and Sole Support

Sixty-eight percent ($n = 117$) of the home economics chief administrators who responded to the survey were married. Of the total number of females

(13.8%) in Moore's (1983) study, fewer (44%) were married. Only 19 percent (n = 32) of the respondents were single, and the remaining 13 percent (n = 23) were either divorced or widowed. One survey participant did not respond to the question.

Sixty-three percent (n = 109) of the respondents declared that they were not the sole supporter of their household. This correlated closely with the fact that 68 percent of the respondents were married. The remaining 37 percent (n = 64) of the administrators indicated that they were the sole supporter of their household.

Number of Children and Those Who Live at Home

Seventy-one percent (n = 122) of the home economics chief administrators have children. Forty-seven percent (n = 81) had two or less children, 16 percent (n = 27) had three children, and eight percent (n = 14) had four or more children.

Sixty-four percent (n = 110) of the respondents had no children living at home. Twenty-one percent (n = 36) had one child at home, 14 percent (n = 24) had two children at home, and only one percent (n = 2) had three children living at home. No one had over three children living at home. The number of respondents with no children living at home may be misleading since it also includes those respondents who are single or never had children.

Mother Worked Outside the Home

Fifty-four percent (n = 93) of the home economics chief administrators stated that their mothers did not work outside the home while they were growing up, however almost half (46%, n = 80) of the respondents reported that their mothers worked outside the home during those years. More mothers of home

economics chief administrators worked outside the home than did mothers of education administrators (31%) in Moore's (1983) study. Heller (1982) contends that nurturing skills utilized during motherhood have implications for strong leadership skills in the organizational setting.

Characteristics of the Home Economics Departments

Size of Home Economics Departments

Respondents were asked the size of the home economics unit they administered according to undergraduate and graduate enrollment. Over half of the respondents (n = 90, 53%) had under 250 home economics undergraduate and graduate majors enrolled in their unit in the Spring, 1988 (Table VII). Only one percent (n = 1) had over 2001 majors as of Spring, 1988.

TABLE VII

FREQUENCY AND PERCENT OF HOME ECONOMICS UNDERGRADUATE
AND GRADUATE MAJORS, SPRING 1988

Majors Enrolled	Frequency	Percent
Under 250	90	53
251 - 500	39	23
501 - 1000	26	15
1001 - 1500	9	5
1501 - 2000	5	3
2001 and Above	1	1

n = 170

Number of Full Time Equivalent Faculty

At 56 percent (n = 93), over half of the chief administrators who responded to the survey had 10 or less full time equivalents (FTEs) faculty in their department. Twenty-five percent (n = 41) had 11 to 25 FTEs and 13 percent (n = 21) had 26 to 50 FTEs. The remaining seven percent (n = 12) administered 51 or more full time faculty. Six administrators did not respond to the question dealing with FTEs.

Graduate and Undergraduate Programs

Fifty-six percent (n = 96) of the respondents sampled were responsible for both a graduate and undergraduate degree program. Less than half (43%, n = 74) were administrators of only an undergraduate program, while two percent (n = 3) had an associate degree program.

Land Grant and Non Land Grant Universities

Of the 63 Land Grant Universities with a home economics program, 75 percent (n = 47) responded to the survey. Data from 47 instruments returned were usable for the biographical information and job-related stress, and all but one were usable for LEAD-Self. Only one administrator from a Land Grant University commented that they could not participate in the study because they no longer had a home economics program. A 60 percent (n = 126) response was received by administrators from non Land Grant universities.

Self-Perceived Leadership Behavior

Primary Style

The LEAD-Self instrument was scored to determine the primary style of the chief administrators: high task/low relationship (S1), high task/high relationship (S2), low task/high relationship (S3), and low task/low relationship (S4). The primary leadership style was determined by the quadrant (Q1, Q2, Q3, or Q4) with the greatest number of responses. When ties occurred, the primary style was indicated as a combination of two or three styles receiving equal responses.

Forty-nine percent (n = 81) of the home economics chief administrators chose a primary leadership style of high task/high relationship (S2). This "selling" style is most effective when follower(s) are of low to moderate maturity. Thirty-three percent (n = 54) of the administrators chose a primary style of low task/high relationship (S3). This "participating" style is most effective when follower(s) are of moderate to high maturity. An additional 14 percent of the administrators chose a primary leadership style that was equally S2 and S3.

These findings show that 96 percent (n = 158) of home economics chief administrators chose leadership styles that are primarily high task/high relationship and/or low task/high relationship. Primary leadership styles can be found in Table VIII. Administrators who are perceived as predominantly using styles S2 and S3 work best with groups of average level of readiness (maturity). "This style tends to be the most frequently identified management style in the United States and other countries that have a high level of education and extensive industrial experience" (Hersey and Blanchard, 1988, p. 290).

Since most people in the work setting are of a readiness level R2 (willing to do a task but unable) or readiness level R3 (able to do a task but unwilling or

TABLE VIII
 FREQUENCY AND PERCENT OF PRIMARY LEADERSHIP STYLE
 OF HOME ECONOMICS CHIEF ADMINISTRATORS

Primary Style by Quadrant (Q)	Frequency	Percent
Q2, (S2)	81	49
Q3, (S3)	54	33
Q2/Q3, (S2/S3)	23	14
Q1, (S1)	3	2
Q1/Q2/Q3, (S1/S2/S3)	3	2
n = 164		

insecure about doing it), the S2 or S3 style of leadership tends to be effective (Hersey and Blanchard, 1988, pp. 289-291). Individuals with a S2/S3 style may find it difficult to handle discipline problems and immature work groups which are often associated with the R1 level, as well as to "delegate" when appropriate for R4 level followers (Hersey and Blanchard, 1988, pp. 289-291).

Leaders using a S2/S3 style may need to learn to make S1 interventions at times when making disciplinary interventions or when working with low maturity level groups. Using a S4 style may be necessary if the S2/S3 leader is going to allow individuals to satisfy their need for achievement and desire to maximize their potential (Hersey and Blanchard, 1988, pp. 289-291).

Style Range

Administrators' style range was determined in order to assess their degree of flexibility as a leader in dealing with situations in which the specific task and readiness level of the group varies. Style range was determined by

the total number of quadrants in which there were two or more responses. Three or more responses in a quadrant indicated a high degree of flexibility in the use of behaviors in that quadrant. Two responses in a quadrant indicated moderate flexibility. One response in a quadrant was not statistically significant (Hersey, 1983). An administrator's style range can vary from two quadrants to a very wide range of four quadrants.

Fifty-four percent (n = 87) of the home economics chief administrators chose a leadership range of only two quadrants, indicating moderate flexibility. Of the two quadrant style range leaders, 95 percent were a combination of Q2/Q3 quadrants. Thirty-nine percent (n = 63) had a leadership style range of three quadrants, indicating moderate to high flexibility, with the majority being a combination of Q1/Q2/Q3 quadrants. Only six percent (n = 10) of the administrators had a style range of four quadrants, which is an indication of maximum flexible. The style range of home economics chief administrators is listed in Table IX.

TABLE IX
FREQUENCY AND PERCENT OF STYLE RANGE OF
HOME ECONOMICS CHIEF ADMINISTRATORS

Range by Quadrants	Frequency	Percent
Two quadrants: Q2/Q3	82	51
Two quadrants: Q1/Q2	5	3
Three quadrants: Q1/Q2/Q3	56	35
Three quadrants: Q2/Q3/Q4	7	5
Four quadrants: Q1/Q2/Q3/Q4	10	6

n = 160

Sum not equal to 100 due to round-off error.

The data on the style range of home economics chief administrators show a low amount of Q4, or "delegating". Bennett and Ehrle (1988) caution against the over use of directive styles of leadership since they are likely to be ineffective. "A team leader approach emphasizing and yielding shared influence is far more likely to facilitate creativity and innovation" (p. 196).

Style Adaptability

Style adaptability or effectiveness indicates the degree to which an administrator may vary the style appropriate for the maturity of the group involved in the situation. Style adaptability scores range from zero to 36. Adaptability scores in the 30 to 36 range indicate a leader with a high degree of adaptability, while scores in the 24 to 29 range reflect a moderate degree of adaptability. Adaptability scores below 24 indicate a need for self-development to improve the ability to diagnose the maturity of the group for the task and the use of more appropriate leadership behaviors.

Only five percent ($n = 8$) of the home economics chief administrators' scores reflected a high degree of style adaptability (Table X), while 68 percent ($n = 117$) of the scores reflected a moderate degree of adaptability. Twenty-seven percent ($n = 44$) of the administrators' scores showed a need for improving the ability to adapt the leadership style according to the appropriate level of maturity of the people involved in the situation. These findings may indicate a need for professional development dealing with leadership style adaptability.

Style/Readiness Matrix

The Style/Readiness Matrix (SRM) provides a summary of an administrator's style range and adaptability and indicates the degree of

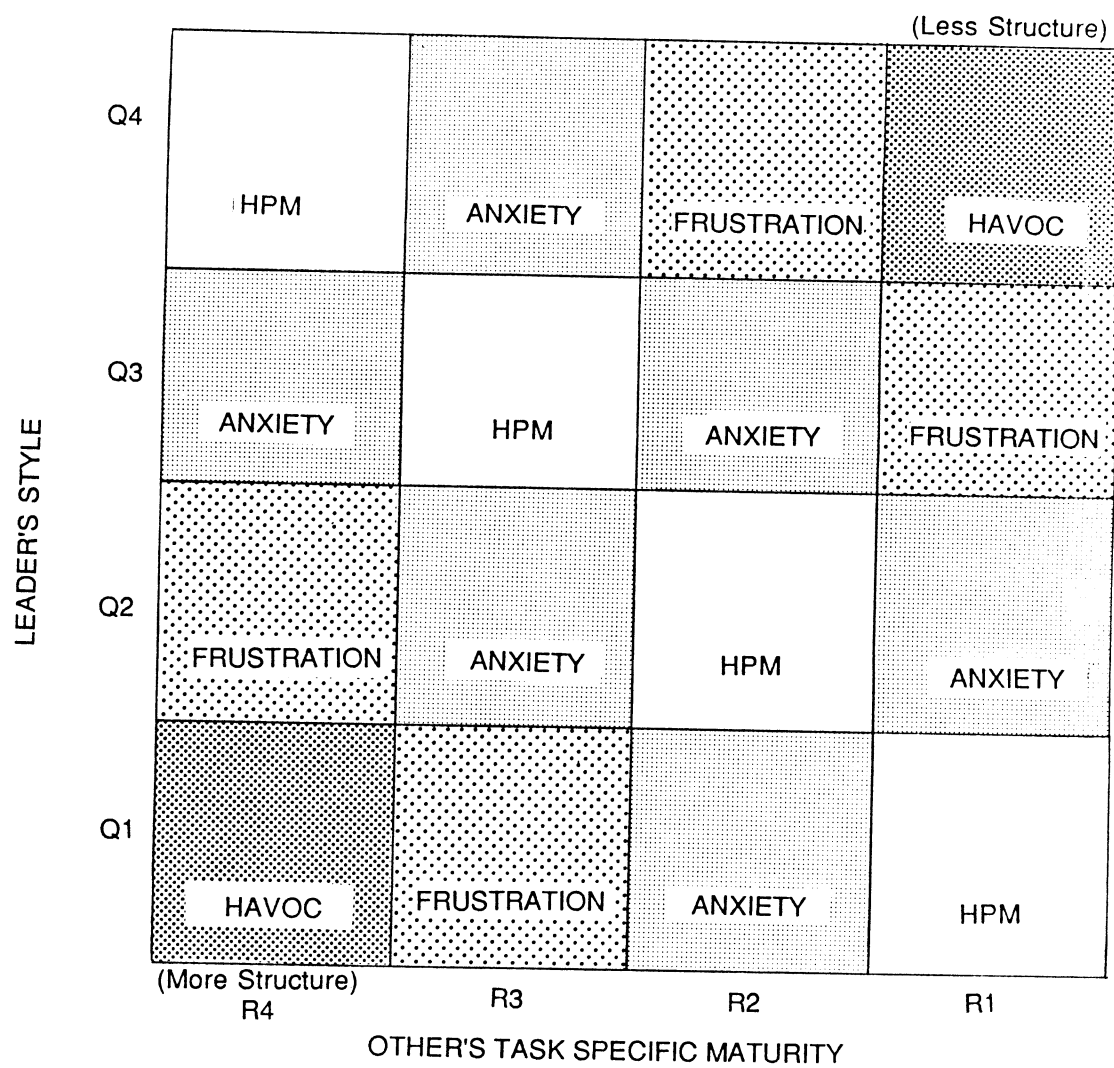
TABLE X
 FREQUENCY AND PERCENT OF STYLE ADAPTABILITY SCORES
 OF HOME ECONOMICS CHIEF ADMINISTRATORS

Adaptability Scores	Frequency	Percent
High Adaptability (30-36):		
31	3	2
30	5	3
Moderate Adaptability (24-29):		
29	17	10
28	16	9
27	21	12
26	22	13
25	24	14
24	17	10
Need Improvement (0-23):		
23	17	10
22	10	6
21	6	4
20	4	2
19	6	4
17	1	1

n = 169

effectiveness of the leader. The leader's style/readiness is measured using decision-making opportunities at all four levels of readiness (task specific maturity). SRM describes the behavior used by the leader as four types: high probability, anxiety, frustration, and havoc (Figure 5).

High Probability Match. High Probability Match (HPM) indicated responses to a situation that had the highest probability of being effective with each given level of readiness. Over 50 percent of the home economics chief



HPM = High Probability Match
 R1 - R4 = Readiness Level, R1 = Low - R4 = High
 Q1 - Q4 = Quadrant 1 - 4
 Q1 (S1) = High Task, Low Relationship Behavior
 Q2 (S2) = High Task, High Relationship Behavior
 Q3 (S3) = Low Task, High Relationship Behavior
 Q4 (S4) = Low Task, Low Relationship Behavior

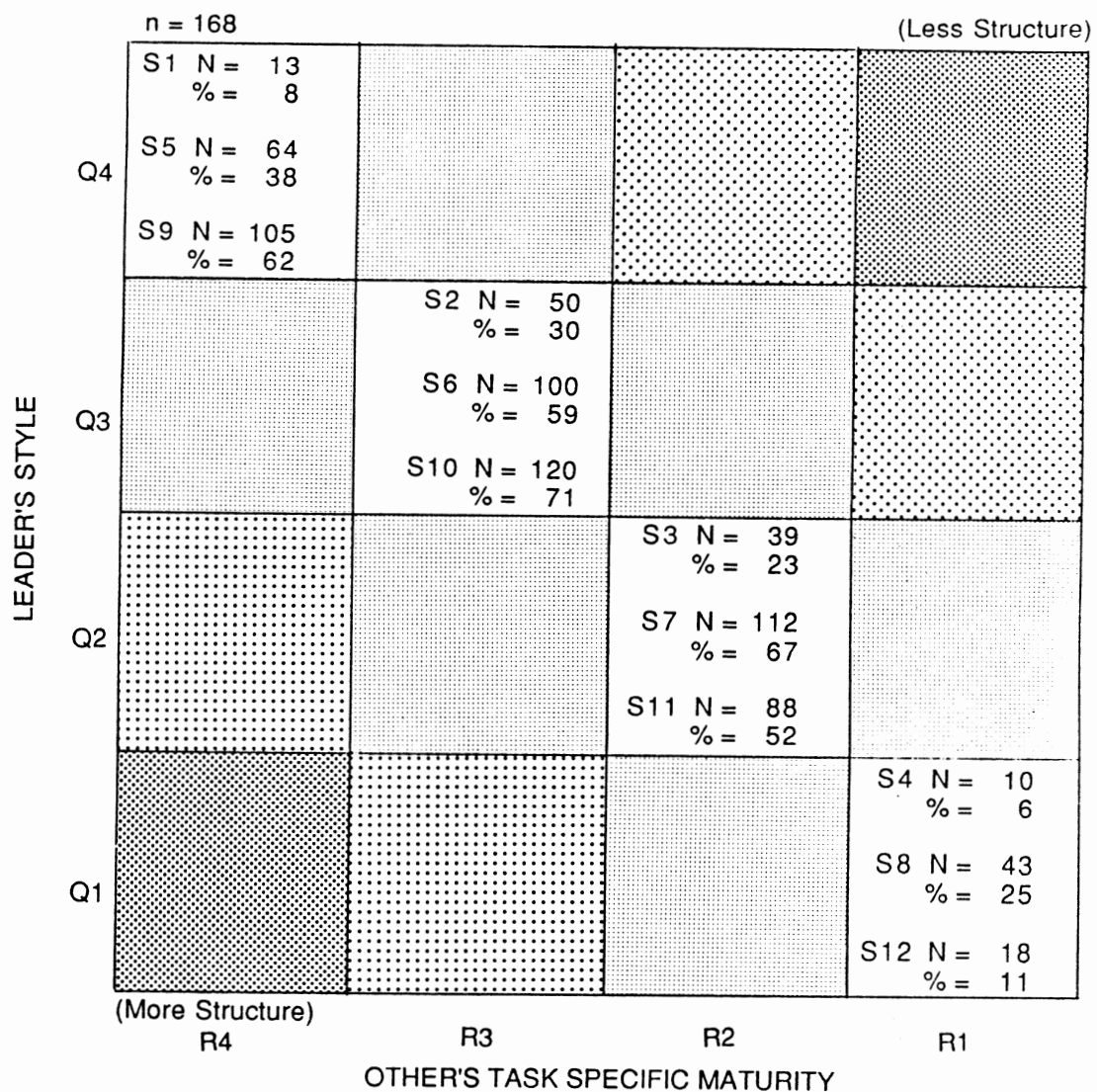
Figure 5. Style/Readiness Matrix

administrators chose the most effective behavior for five (Situations 6, 7, 9, 10, 11) of the 12 situations (Figure 6). Twenty-five to 50 percent of the administrators chose the most appropriate response for four (Situation 2, 3, 5, 8) of 12 questions. In three (Situation 1, 4, 12) of 12 questions, however, only 11 percent or less of the administrators chose the most effective behavior for that situation.

Anxiety Responses. When scoring LEAD-Self, responses immediately to the right or the left of the HPM diagonal represented behaviors that were one quadrant away from the most appropriate style (Figure 5). These styles tend to produce anxiety on the part of one or both parties in the situation (Hersey, 1983). In each situation, anxiety resulted when the leader used behavior more appropriate for an individual or group one level (quadrant) higher or lower in readiness.

In situation 1, 5, 9 in which the most appropriate style was low relationship and low task, (S4), chief administrators used behavior appropriate for moderate to high readiness (R3) level in 69 percent, 48 percent and 36 percent of the time (Figure 7). In situations 2, 6, 10 in which the most appropriate style was high relationship and low task, (S3), 66 percent, 39 percent, and 24 percent of the administrators used behavior appropriate for moderate readiness (R2). In situations 3, 7, 11, however, in which the most appropriate style was high relationship and high task, (S2), only one percent, zero percent, and five percent chose behavior appropriate for low readiness (R1) groups.

In situations 2, 6, 10 when the most appropriate style was high relationship and low task, (S3), only two percent, one percent, and four percent of home economics chief administrators used behavior appropriate for high readiness (R4) groups (Figure 7). In situations 3, 7, 11 in which the most



- S1 - S12 = Situation 1 - 12 in LEAD-Self Instrument
 R1 - R4 = Maturity or Readiness Level, R1 = Low, R4 = High
 Q1 - Q4 = Quadrant 1 - 4
 Q1 (S1) = High Task, Low Relationship Behavior
 Q2 (S2) = High Task, High Relationship Behavior
 Q3 (S3) = Low Task, High Relationship Behavior
 Q4 (S4) = Low Task, Low Relationship Behavior

Figure 6. Frequency and Percent of Most Effective Responses (High Probability Match) Chosen by Home Economics Chief Administrators

n = 168 (Less Structure)

LEADER'S STYLE	Q4	S1 N = 116 % = 69		
		S5 N = 80 % = 48		
		S9 N = 69 % = 36		
	Q3	S2 N = 3 % = 2	S2 N = 111 % = 66	
	S6 N = 1 % = 1	S6 N = 66 % = 39		
	S10 N = 7 % = 4	S10 N = 41 % = 24		
			S3 N = 1 % = 1	
Q2	S3 N = 125 % = 74		S7 N = 0 % = 0	
	S7 N = 52 % = 31		S11 N = 8 % = 5	
	S11 N = 68 % = 40			
Q1		S4 N = 74 % = 44		
		S8 N = 48 % = 28		
		S12 N = 132 % = 79		
	(More Structure)			
	R4	R3	R2	R1
	OTHER'S TASK SPECIFIC MATURITY			

- S1 - S12 = Situation 1 - 12 in LEAD-Self Instrument
 R1 - R4 = Maturity or Readiness Level, R1 = Low, R4 = High
 Q1 - Q4 = Quadrant 1 - 4
 Q1 (S1) = High Task, Low Relationship Behavior
 Q2 (S2) = High Task, High Relationship Behavior
 Q3 (S3) = Low Task, High Relationship Behavior
 Q4 (S4) = Low Task, Low Relationship Behavior

Figure 7. Frequency and Percent of Anxiety Responses Chosen by Home Economics Chief Administrators

appropriate style was high relationship and high task, (S2), 74 percent, 31 percent and 40 percent of the administrators used behavior appropriate for higher readiness (R3) groups. In situations 4, 8, 12 when the most appropriate style was low relationship and high task, (S1), 44 percent, 28 percent, and 79 percent of the administrators used behavior appropriate for a moderate to low readiness group (R2).

Frustration Responses. Using LEAD-Self, responses that fell two quadrants to the right or the left of the HPM diagonal represented behaviors that were two quadrants away from the most appropriate behaviors (Figure 5). This tends to produce frustration on the part of one or both parties in the situation (Hersey, 1983).

In situations 1, 5, 9 when the most appropriate style was low relationship and low task, (S4), 23 percent, 14 percent, and two percent of home economics chief administrators chose behavior appropriate for moderate to low readiness (R2) groups (Figure 8). In situations 2, 6, 10 in which the most appropriate style was high relationship and low task, (S3), two percent, one percent and <1 percent of the administrators chose behavior appropriate for readiness groups two quadrants lower (R1). In situations 3, 7, 11 when the most appropriate behavior was high relationship and high task, (S2), only one percent, two percent, and two percent of the administrators chose behavior appropriate for high readiness groups (R4). Those situations in which the most appropriate style was low relationship and high task, (S1), however, 50 percent, 28 percent and five percent of the administrators chose behavior appropriate for a group with a readiness level two quadrants higher (R3).

n = 168 (Less Structure)

LEADER'S STYLE	Q4		S1 N = 39 % = 23	S1 N = 0 % = 0
			S5 N = 23 % = 14	S5 N = 1 % = <1
			S9 N = 3 % = 2	S9 N = 0 % = 0
	Q3			S2 N = 4 % = 2
				S6 N = 2 % = 1
	Q2	S3 N = 2 % = 1		
		S7 N = 4 % = 2		
		S11 N = 3 % = 2		
Q1		S4 N = 0 % = 0	S4 N = 84 % = 50	
		S8 N = 29 % = 17	S8 N = 48 % = 28	
		S12 N = 9 % = 5	S12 N = 9 % = 5	
		(More Structure)		
		R4	R3	R2
				R1
		OTHER'S TASK SPECIFIC MATURITY		

S1 - S12 = Situation 1 - 12 in LEAD-Self Instrument
R1 - R4 = Maturity or Readiness Level, R1 = Low, R4 = High
Q1 - Q4 = Quadrant 1 - 4
Q1 (S1) = High Task, Low Relationship Behavior
Q2 (S2) = High Task, High Relationship Behavior
Q3 (S3) = Low Task, High Relationship Behavior
Q4 (S4) = Low Task, Low Relationship Behavior

Figure 8. Frequency and Percent of Frustration and Havoc Responses Chosen by Home Economics Chief Administrators

Havoc Responses. Havoc occurs when the leader provides little or no direction (S4) to an individual or group that is at the lowest level of readiness (R1) (Figure 5). Followers who lack the ability to perform the task, tend to feel that the leader has little interest in them or their work. Havoc may also result in situations where the leader is using a high task and low relationship behavior, (S1), with an individual or group that is at the highest level of readiness (R4) for that task. This extreme over control by the leader can result in stress and conflict for both the leader and the follower(s) (Hersey, 1983).

Very few chief administrators chose a style that would lead to havoc for the leader and the follower(s). In only one situation (#5) in which the most appropriate style was low task and low relationship, (S4), did an administrator choose a response appropriate for a low readiness (R1) group (Figure 8). In situations 4, 8, 12 in which the most appropriate style was low relationship and high task, (S1), zero percent, 17 percent, and five percent of the administrators chose a style appropriate for high readiness groups (R4).

LEAD-Self: Personal Variables

Sixteen personal variables were examined using primary style, style range, style adaptability, and style/readiness (anxiety, frustration, and havoc) as dependent variables. Only the personal variable children living at home had an affect on the leadership behavior variables (Table XI). Home economics chief administrators with no children living at home had more havoc responses ($n = 105$, $\bar{X} = 0.30$) than those administrators with children living at home ($n = 59$, $\bar{X} = 0.14$). Respondents with children living at home seem less likely to use a leadership behavior that provides little or no direction (S4) with groups that have a low readiness (R1) level or that provides too much direction (S1) to

groups that have a high readiness (R4) level. Perhaps leaders, as parents, receive training in using a S1 style when appropriate.

TABLE XI
t-TEST PROCEDURE FOR LEADERSHIP STYLE/READINESS
(HAVOC) AND CHILDREN LIVING AT HOME

Children Living at Home	Frequency	Mean	Standard Error	t	p*
No Children	105	0.30	0.05	2.27	0.0244
Children	59	0.14	0.04		

*Significant (t-test) at the $p < 0.05$ level.

Data Analysis of LEAD-Self

From the data, five primary styles of leaders emerged: S1, S2, S3, and a combination S2/S3 and S1/S2/S3 (Table VIII). Two primary styles significantly ($p < 0.05$) affected the dependent variables style adaptability and style readiness (havoc). The dependent variables of havoc ($p = 0.0001$) and style adaptability ($p = 0.0001$) had significant scores in relation to the independent variable primary leadership style. Tables XII and XIII show this relationship.

Home economics chief administrators with a primary leadership style of S1, "telling", ($n = 3$, $\bar{X} = 1.67$) had significantly more havoc responses than those administrators with a primary leadership style of S2/S3, "selling/participating", ($n = 23$, $\bar{X} = 0.09$). Those with a primary style S1/S2/S3 ($n = 3$,

TABLE XII

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE (ANOVA) RESULTS FOR LEADERSHIP STYLE/
READINESS (HAVOC) BY PRIMARY LEADERSHIP STYLE

Source	df	Mean Squares	F	p
Primary	4	1.840	9.03	0.0001
Error	159	.204		
Total	163			

TABLE XIII

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE (ANOVA) RESULTS FOR LEADERSHIP STYLE
ADAPTABILITY BY PRIMARY LEADERSHIP STYLE

Source	df	Mean Squares	F	p
Primary	4	43.125	6.33	0.0001
Error	159	6.818		
Total	163			

$\bar{X} = 0.67$) also had significantly more havoc responses than the S2/S3 leaders, but less than the S1 leaders. Administrators with a primary style of S2 or S3 were not significantly different from the S2/S3 leaders or the S1/S2/S3 leaders (Table XIV). There were no S4, "delegating" leaders, hence no datum was analyzed.

TABLE XIV
DUNCAN MULTIPLE RANGE TEST FOR LEADERSHIP STYLE/READINESS
(HAVOC) AND PRIMARY LEADERSHIP STYLE

Variables	Frequency	Mean	Grouping*
<i>Primary Style</i>			
S1 Style	3	1.667	A
S1/S2/S3 Style	3	0.667	B
S2 Style	81	0.247	B C
S3 Style	54	0.185	B C
S2/S3 Style	23	0.087	C

*Means with the same letter are not significantly different at the $p < 0.05$ level.

Home economics chief administrators with a primary leadership style of S1 ($n = 3$, $\bar{X} = 20.67$) or a primary style of S1/S2/S3 ($n = 3$, $\bar{X} = 20.33$) had significantly lower adaptability scores than the other three groups of styles (Table XV). Home economics chief administrators with a primary leadership style of S2/S3 ($n = 23$, $\bar{X} = 26.30$), S3 ($n = 54$, $\bar{X} = 25.82$), and S2 ($n = 81$, $\bar{X} = 25.32$) had significantly higher adaptability scores.

When the style range of home economics chief administrators was examined as an independent variable, a significant ($p < 0.05$) association was found for the dependent variables style adaptability and style readiness (HPM, anxiety, frustration, and havoc). The components of style readiness, HPM ($p = 0.0001$), anxiety ($p = 0.0001$), frustration ($p = 0.0452$), and havoc ($p = 0.0023$) had significant scores in relation to the independent variable style range (Table XVI). Style adaptability ($p = 0.0369$) also had a significant association with style range (Table XVII).

TABLE XV
DUNCAN MULTIPLE RANGE TEST FOR LEADERSHIP STYLE
ADAPTABILITY AND PRIMARY LEADERSHIP STYLE

Variables	Frequency	Mean	Grouping*
<i>Primary Style</i>			
S2/S3 Style	23	26.304	A
S3 Style	54	25.815	A
S2 Style	81	25.321	A
S1 Style	3	20.667	B
S1/S2/S3 Style	3	20.333	B

*Means with the same letter are not significantly different at the $p < 0.05$ level.

TABLE XVI
ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE (ANOVA) RESULTS FOR LEADERSHIP
STYLE/READINESS BY STYLE RANGE

Source	df	Mean Squares	F	p
<i>Appropriateness (HPM)</i>				
Range	4	14.850	8.34	0.0001
Error	159	1.780		
Total	163			
<i>Anxiety</i>				
Range	4	17.610	7.85	0.0001
Error	159	2.243		
Total	163			
<i>Frustration</i>				
Range	4	2.044	2.49	0.0452
Error	159	0.820		
Total	163			

TABLE XVI (Continued)

Source	df	Mean Squares	F	p
<i>Havoc</i>				
Range	4	0.981	4.36	0.0023
Error	159	0.225		
Total	163			

TABLE XVII

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE (ANOVA) RESULTS FOR LEADERSHIP
STYLE ADAPTABILITY BY STYLE RANGE

Source	df	Mean Squares	F	p
Range	4	19.432	2.62	0.0369
Error	159	7.414		
Total	163			

Home economics chief administrators with a style range of three quadrants (Q2/Q3/Q4) ($n = 7$, $\bar{X} = 27.14$) and four quadrants (Q1-Q4) ($n = 11$, $\bar{X} = 27.09$) had significantly higher adaptability scores than those administrators with a style range of only two quadrants (Q1/Q2) ($n = 5$, $\bar{X} = 23.20$). Those administrators with a two quadrant range of Q2/Q3 ($n = 82$, $\bar{X} = 25.33$) and a three quadrant range of (Q1/Q2/Q3) ($n = 59$, $\bar{X} = 25.29$) were not significantly different from the respondents in the other two groups (Table XVIII).

TABLE XVIII
DUNCAN MULTIPLE RANGE TEST FOR LEADERSHIP
STYLE ADAPTABILITY AND STYLE RANGE

Variables	Frequency	Mean	Grouping*
<i>Style Range</i>			
3 Quadrants (Q2/Q3/Q4)	7	27.143	A
4 Quadrants (Q1/Q2/Q3/Q4)	11	27.091	A
2 Quadrants (Q2/Q3)	82	25.329	A B
3 Quadrants (Q1/Q2/Q3)	59	25.288	A B
2 Quadrants (Q1/Q2)	5	23.200	B

*Means with the same letter are not significantly different at the $p < 0.05$ level.

Home economics chief administrators with a style range of four quadrants (Q1-Q4) ($n = 11$, $\bar{X} = 6.00$) had significantly more high probability match (HPM) responses than those administrators with a style range of only two quadrants, Q2/Q3 ($n = 82$, $\bar{X} = 4.02$) and Q1/Q2 ($n = 5$, $\bar{X} = 4.40$). Those administrators with a three quadrant style range, Q2/Q3/Q4 ($n = 7$, $\bar{X} = 5.14$) and Q1/Q2/Q3 ($n = 59$, $\bar{X} = 4.98$) were not significantly different from the leaders with a four quadrant style range or a two quadrant style range (Table XIX).

Respondents with a style range two quadrant (Q2/Q3) ($n = 82$, $\bar{X} = 6.49$) had significantly more anxiety responses than those administrators with a range of all four quadrants (Q1-Q4) ($n = 11$, $\bar{X} = 4.91$). The respondents with a range of two quadrants (Q1/Q2) ($n = 5$, $\bar{X} = 5.20$) and a range of three quadrants, ranging from Q2-Q4 ($n = 7$, $\bar{X} = 6.14$) and from Q1-Q3 ($n = 59$, $\bar{X} = 5.20$) were not significantly different from the other two groups. These significant findings are shown in Table XX.

TABLE XIX
DUNCAN MULTIPLE RANGE TEST FOR LEADERSHIP
STYLE/READINESS (HPM) AND STYLE RANGE

Variables	Frequency	Mean	Grouping*
<i>Style Range</i>			
4 Quadrants (Q1/Q2/Q3/Q4)	11	6.000	A
3 Quadrants (Q2/Q3/Q4)	7	5.143	A B
3 Quadrants (Q1/Q2/Q3)	59	4.983	A B
2 Quadrants (Q1/Q2)	5	4.400	B
2 Quadrants (Q2/Q3)	82	4.024	B

*Means with the same letter are not significantly different at the $p < 0.05$ level.

TABLE XX
DUNCAN MULTIPLE RANGE TEST FOR LEADERSHIP
STYLE/READINESS (ANXIETY) AND STYLE RANGE

Variables	Frequency	Mean	Grouping*
<i>Style Range</i>			
2 Quadrants (Q2/Q3)	82	6.488	A
3 Quadrants (Q2/Q3/Q4)	7	6.143	A B
3 Quadrants (Q1/Q2/Q3)	59	5.203	A B
2 Quadrants (Q1/Q2)	5	5.200	A B
4 Quadrants (Q1/Q2/Q3/Q4)	11	4.909	B

*Means with the same letter are not significantly different at the $p < 0.05$ level.

Chief administrators with a style range of two quadrants (Q1/Q2) ($n = 5$, $\bar{X} = 2.00$) had significantly more frustration responses than those administrators

with a range of all four quadrants (Q1-Q4) ($n = 11$, $\bar{X} = 0.82$) and three quadrants (Q2/Q3/Q4) ($n = 7$, $\bar{X} = 0.71$). The respondents with a range of two quadrants (Q2/Q3) ($n = 82$, $\bar{X} = 1.38$) and a range of three quadrants (Q1/Q2/Q3) ($n = 59$, $\bar{X} = 1.39$) were not significantly different from the other two groups (Table XXI).

TABLE XXI
DUNCAN MULTIPLE RANGE TEST FOR LEADERSHIP STYLE/READINESS
(FRUSTRATION) AND STYLE RANGE

Variables	Frequency	Mean	Grouping*
<i>Style Range</i>			
2 Quadrants (Q1/Q2)	5	2.000	A
3 Quadrants (Q1/Q2/Q3)	59	1.390	A B
2 Quadrants (Q2/Q3)	82	1.378	A B
4 Quadrants (Q1/Q2/Q3/Q4)	11	0.818	B
3 Quadrants (Q2/Q3/Q4)	7	0.714	B

*Means with the same letter are not significantly different at the $p < 0.05$ level.

Duncan's multiple range test using Kramer's approximation showed that those chief administrator's with a range of three quadrants (Q1/Q2/Q3) ($n = 59$, $\bar{X} = 0.42$) had significantly more havoc responses than those administrators with a three quadrant range (Q2/Q3/Q4) ($n = 7$, $\bar{X} = 0.00$) or a two quadrant range (Q2/Q3) ($n = 82$, $\bar{X} = 0.11$). The respondents with a range of two quadrants (Q1/Q2) ($n = 5$, $\bar{X} = 0.40$) and four quadrants (Q1/Q2/Q3/Q4) ($n = 11$, $\bar{X} = 0.27$) were not significantly different from the other two groups (Table XXII).

TABLE XXII
DUNCAN MULTIPLE RANGE TEST FOR LEADERSHIP
STYLE/READINESS (HAVOC) AND STYLE RANGE

Variables	Frequency	Mean	Grouping*
Style Range			
3 Quadrants (Q1/Q2/Q3)	59	0.424	A
2 Quadrants (Q1/Q2)	5	0.400	A B
4 Quadrants (Q1/Q2/Q3/Q4)	11	0.273	A B
2 Quadrants (Q2/Q3)	82	0.110	B
3 Quadrants (Q2/Q3/Q4)	7	0.000	B

*Means with the same letter are not significantly different at the $p < 0.05$ level. Kramer's Approximation.

Job-Related Stress and Personal Variables

Of the 15 personal variables examined, seven significantly ($p < 0.05$) affected job related stress scores. The variables of age ($p = 0.008$), position title ($p = 0.0013$), academic rank ($p = 0.011$), salary ($p = 0.0194$), children living at home were living at home ($p = 0.0027$), and gender ($p = 0.047$) had significant scores in relation to the job-related stressor, role conflict. The variables of position title ($p = 0.0004$), academic rank ($p = 0.0044$), salary ($p = 0.0008$), and age ($p = 0.001$) significantly affected the job-related stressor, role ambiguity. The variables of position title ($p = 0.0005$), academic rank ($p = 0.0029$), salary ($p = 0.0014$), hours per week worked ($p = 0.0081$), and gender ($p = 0.028$) significantly affected the job-related stressor, role overload.

Role Conflict: Personal Variables

The independent variable age significantly affected the dependent variable role conflict ($p = 0.0080$) (Table XXIII). Home economics chief administrators 45 years of age and under ($n = 61$, $\bar{X} = 29.08$) had significantly more role conflict than those who were 46 to 55 years of age ($n = 68$, $\bar{X} = 27.00$) and those who were over 56 years of age ($n = 44$, $\bar{X} = 26.98$) (Table XXIV). Younger administrators appear to experience more role conflict.

TABLE XXIII
ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE (ANOVA) RESULTS FOR
ROLE CONFLICT BY PERSONAL VARIABLES

Source	df	Mean Squares	F	p
Age	2	86.33	4.97	0.0080
Error	170	17.39		
Total	172			
Position Title	2	120.06	6.90	0.0013
Error	159	17.41		
Total	161			
Academic Rank	3	67.88	3.83	0.0110
Error	162	17.71		
Total	165			
Salary	3	59.16	3.39	0.0194
Error	169	17.46		
Total	172			

TABLE XXIV
DUNCAN MULTIPLE RANGE TEST FOR ROLE CONFLICT
AND PERSONAL VARIABLES

Variables	Frequency	Mean	Grouping*
<i>Age</i>			
45 and under	61	29.08	A
46-55 years	68	27.00	B
over 55	44	26.98	B
<i>Position Title</i>			
Director, Assistant Director, Division Head/Chair	22	30.00	A
Chair, Head, Coordinator	106	27.90	B
Dean, Associate Dean, Assistant Dean	34	25.82	C
<i>Academic Rank</i>			
Associate Professor	54	28.70	A
Instructor	19	28.63	A
Assistant Professor	27	28.44	A
Professor	66	26.36	B
<i>Salary</i>			
Under \$40,000	73	28.56	A
\$50,000-\$59,999	27	28.44	A
\$40,000-\$49,999	36	27.22	A B
\$60,000 and above	37	26.05	B

*Means with the same letter are not significantly different at the ($p < 0.05$) level.

Position title had a significant affect on role conflict ($p = 0.0013$) (Table XXIII). Chief administrators whose position title was dean, associate or assistant dean ($n = 34$, $\bar{X} = 25.82$) had significantly lower role conflict (Table XXIV) than those whose title was director, assistant director, or division

head/division chairperson ($n = 22$, $\bar{X} = 30.00$). Those administrators whose position title was chairperson, department head, or coordinator ($n = 106$, $\bar{X} = 27.91$) were significantly different from the dean, associate or assistant dean group and the director, assistant director and division head/chairperson group (Table XXIV). Generally, the positions of director, assistant director, or division head/division chairperson involve administering of several departments or units, perhaps leading to greater role conflict.

Respondents who had obtained the academic rank of professor ($n = 66$, $\bar{X} = 26.36$) had significantly less role conflict (Table XXIV) than those who had obtained the rank of associate professor ($n = 54$, $\bar{X} = 28.70$). Instructors ($n = 19$, $\bar{X} = 28.63$) and assistant professor ($n = 27$, $\bar{X} = 28.44$) were not significantly different from the associate professor group. These result indicate that the professor, who no longer has to be concerned with achieving rank, has significantly less role conflict than his/her lower ranked colleagues ($p = 0.0110$) (Table XXIII).

Chief administrators with an annual salary of \$60,000 or more ($n = 37$, $\bar{X} = 26.05$) had significantly less role conflict (Table XXIV) than those administrators who made less than \$40,000 ($n = 73$, $\bar{X} = 28.56$) or made \$50,000 to \$59,999 ($n = 27$, $\bar{X} = 28.44$). Those with an annual position salary of \$40,000 to \$49,999 ($n = 36$, $\bar{X} = 27.22$) were not significantly different from either of the other two groups (Table XXIV).

Home economics chief administrators who had children living at home ($n = 62$, $\bar{X} = 29.03$) had significantly more role conflict than those administrators with no children living at home ($n = 110$, $\bar{X} = 27.02$) with a significant level of 0.0027 (Table XXV). These results indicate that respondents without children at home appear to have less job stress, maybe as a result of less family stress.

TABLE XXV
t-TEST PROCEDURE FOR ROLE CONFLICT
AND CHILDREN LIVING AT HOME

Children Living at Home	Frequency	Mean	Standard Error	t	p*
No Children	110	27.02	0.38	-3.04	0.0027
Children	62	29.03	0.58		

*Significant (t-test) at the $p < 0.05$ level.

For two of the nine Job Related Tension (JRT) questions dealing with role conflict, a significant association ($p < 0.05$) with the personal variable gender was shown (Table XXVI). Female administrators significantly reported more role conflict from "feeling that my job tends to interfere with my family life" than male chief administrators ($\chi^2 = 6.103$, $df = 2$, $p = 0.047$). This finding is supported by previous studies showing the existence of conflict between the traditional roles for women and their role as a leader (Heller, 1982).

Chief administrators who were 45 years of age or younger reported the highest role conflict from "feeling that I have too much responsibility and authority delegated to me by my superiors" than older age groups ($\chi^2 = 9.65$, $df = 4$, $p = 0.047$). Those administrators who were 56 years of age or older were associated with higher role conflict for this same statement than those 46 to 55 years of age (Table XXVII). The home economics administrators 46-55 years of age appear to be least stressed from responsibility and authority delegated to them by upper administration.

TABLE XXVI

CHI SQUARE ASSOCIATION BETWEEN ROLE CONFLICT AND
GENDER OF HOME ECONOMICS CHIEF ADMINISTRATORS

		Never/ Rarely	Sometimes	Rather Often/ Nearly all the time
<i>Gender: JRT14</i>				
Male	Frequency	10.0	4.0	5.0
	Expected	5.9	8.6	4.6
Female	Frequency	40.0	69.0	34.0
	Expected	44.1	64.4	34.4
Total		50.0	73.0	39.0
Frequency Missing = 2 Chi Square Value = 6.103 Probability = 0.047				

TABLE XXVII

CHI SQUARE ASSOCIATION BETWEEN ROLE CONFLICT AND
AGE OF HOME ECONOMICS CHIEF ADMINISTRATORS

		Never/ Rarely	Sometimes	Rather Often/ Nearly all the time
<i>Age: JRT16</i>				
Under 46	Frequency	42.0	11.0	5.0
	Expected	45.1	10.0	2.9
46-55	Frequency	58.0	6.0	2.0
	Expected	51.3	11.4	3.3
Over 56	Frequency	26.0	11.0	1.0
	Expected	29.6	6.6	1.9
Total		126.0	28.0	8.0
Frequency Missing = 2 Chi Square Value = 9.646 Probability = 0.047				

Role Ambiguity: Personal Variables

The independent variable position title had a significant effect on the dependent variable role ambiguity ($p = 0.0004$) (Table XXVIII). The home economics chief administrators with title dean, associate or assistant dean ($n = 34$, $\bar{X} = 17.38$) had significantly less role ambiguity (Table XXIX) than those with the title director, assistant director, or division head/ division chairperson ($n = 22$, $\bar{X} = 20.36$). Those administrators with the title chairperson, department head, or coordinator ($n = 106$, $\bar{X} = 19.46$) were not significantly different from the director, division head/chairperson group.

TABLE XXVIII
ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE (ANOVA) RESULTS FOR
ROLE AMBIGUITY BY PERSONAL VARIABLES

Source	df	Mean Squares	F	p
Position Title	2	74.49	8.14	0.0004
Error	159	9.15		
Total	161			
Academic Rank	3	43.02	4.55	0.0044
Error	162	9.46		
Total	165			
Salary	3	53.79	5.82	0.0008
Error	169	9.24		
Total	172			

TABLE XXIX
DUNCAN MULTIPLE RANGE TEST FOR ROLE AMBIGUITY
AND PERSONAL VARIABLES

Variables	Frequency	Mean	Grouping*
<i>Position Title</i>			
Director, Assistant Director, Division Head/Chair	22	20.36	A
Chair, Head, Coordinator	106	19.46	A
Dean, Associate or Assistant Dean	34	17.38	B
<i>Academic Rank</i>			
Associate Professor	54	20.04	A
Assistant Professor	27	19.70	A
Instructor	19	19.26	A B
Professor	66	18.06	B
<i>Salary</i>			
Under \$40,000	73	19.75	A
\$50,000 - \$59,999	27	19.70	A
\$40,000 - \$49,999	36	19.00	A
\$60,000 and above	37	17.30	B

*Means with the same letter are not significantly different at the $p < 0.05$ level.

Chief administrators who had obtained the academic rank of professor ($n = 66$, $\bar{X} = 18.06$) had significantly less role ambiguity (Table XXIX) than those who had obtained the associate professor rank ($n = 54$, $\bar{X} = 20.04$) and the assistant professor rank ($n = 27$, $\bar{X} = 19.70$). Respondents with an instructor rank ($n = 19$, $\bar{X} = 19.26$) were not significantly different from the other two groups (Table XXIX). It appears that the lowest ranked administrator, the instructor, is

not affected by uncertainties on the the job, which is similar to the results for full professor.

Respondents with an annual position salary of \$60,000 or more ($n = 37$, $\bar{X} = 17.30$) had significantly less role ambiguity (Table XXIX) than those respondents who made less than \$60,000. The mean scores for the other groups were: under \$40,000 ($n = 73$, $\bar{X} = 19.75$), \$50,000 to \$59,999 ($n = 27$, $\bar{X} = 19.70$), and \$40,000 to \$49,999 ($n = 36$, $\bar{X} = 19.00$).

A significant association ($\chi^2 = 22.07$, $df = 6$, $p = 0.001$) was found between the personal variable age and one of the five Job Related Tension (JRT) questions dealing with role ambiguity. The oldest group of chief administrators (over 55 years old) significantly reported less role ambiguity in "not knowing what opportunities for advancement or promotion exist for me" than the younger administrators. The oldest age group of administrators appear to be comfortable with their present position and are not striving for further advancement and promotion. Data in Table XXX shows the chi square association between age and JRT question 3 dealing with role ambiguity.

Role Overload: Personal Variables

Position title had a significant effect on role conflict ($p = 0.0005$) (Table XXXI). Chief administrators with the position title dean, associate or assistant dean ($n = 34$, $\bar{X} = 7.74$) had significantly lower role overload (Table XXXII) than those administrators with the title director, assistant director, or division head/division chairperson ($n = 22$, $\bar{X} 9.41$). Those administrators with the title chairperson, department head, or coordinator ($n = 106$, $\bar{X} = 8.97$) were not significantly different from the director, assistant director, division head/chairperson group.

TABLE XXX
CHI SQUARE ASSOCIATION BETWEEN ROLE AMBIGUITY AND
AGE OF HOME ECONOMICS CHIEF ADMINISTRATORS

		N/A	Never/ Rarely	Sometime	Rather Often/ Nearly all the time
<i>Age: JRT3</i>					
Under 46	Frequency	4.0	10.0	4.0	5.0
	Expected	5.8	5.9	8.6	4.6
46-55	Frequency	3.0	48.0	10.0	5.0
	Expected	6.4	43.9	11.3	4.4
Over 55	Frequency	9.0	28.0	1.0	1.0
	Expected	3.8	25.9	6.7	2.6
Total		16.0	109.0	28.0	11.0
Chi Square Value = 22.069 Probability = 0.001					

Home economics chief administrators who had obtained the academic rank of professor ($n = 66$, $\bar{X} = 8.23$) had significantly less role overload (Table XXXII) than those who had obtained the associate professor rank ($n = 54$, $\bar{X} = 9.43$). Respondents with an assistant professor rank ($n = 27$, $\bar{X} = 9.07$) and an instructor rank ($n = 19$, $\bar{X} = 8.84$) were not significantly different from the other two groups (Table XXXII). These results suggest that administrators working to obtain professor rank are stressed from the work load while working to obtain their rank and tenure.

TABLE XXXI
ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE (ANOVA) RESULTS FOR
ROLE OVERLOAD BY PERSONAL VARIABLES

Source	df	Mean Squares	F	p
Position Title	2	24.85	7.95	0.0005
Error	159	3.12		
Total	161			
Academic Rank	3	14.92	4.86	0.0029
Error	162	3.07		
Total	165			
Salary	3	16.44	5.43	0.0014
Error	169	3.03		
Total	172			
Hrs/Week Worked	2	15.44	4.95	0.0081
Error	170	3.12		
Total	172			

Administrators with an annual position salary of \$60,000 or more ($n = 37$, $\bar{X} = 7.86$) had significantly less role overload (Table XXXII) than those administrators who made less than \$40,000 ($n = 73$, $\bar{X} = 9.23$) and those administrators who made \$50,000 to \$59,999 ($n = 27$, $\bar{X} = 9.07$). Administrators with an annual salary of \$40,000 to \$49,999 ($n = 36$, $\bar{X} = 8.61$) were not significantly different from the other two groups (Table XXXII). These findings imply that home economics administrators earning under \$40,000 and \$50,000 to \$59,999 possibly feel under paid for the amount of work involved with the position.

TABLE XXXII
DUNCAN MULTIPLE RANGE TEST FOR ROLE OVERLOAD
AND PERSONAL VARIABLES

Variables	Frequency	Mean	Grouping*
<i>Position Title</i>			
Director, Assistant Director			
Division Head/Chair	22	9.41	A
Head, Chair, Coordinator	106	8.97	A
Dean, Associate or Assistant Dean	34	7.74	B
<i>Academic Rank</i>			
Associate Professor	54	9.43	A
Assistant Professor	27	9.07	A B
Instructor	19	8.84	A B
Professor	66	8.23	B
<i>Salary</i>			
Under \$40,000	73	9.23	A
\$50,000-\$59,999	27	9.07	A
\$40,000-\$49,999	36	8.61	A B
\$60,000 and above	37	7.86	B
<i>Hours Per Week Worked</i>			
Over 60 hours/week	45	9.36	A
51-60 hours/week	90	8.78	A B
Under 51 hours/ week	38	8.13	B

*Means with the same letter are not significantly different at the $p < 0.05$ level.

Respondents who worked less than 51 hours per week had significantly less role overload ($n = 38$, $\bar{X} = 8.13$) than those who worked over 60 hours per week ($n = 45$, $\bar{X} = 9.36$). Respondents who worked 51 to 60 hours per week ($n = 90$, $\bar{X} = 8.78$) were not significantly different from the other two groups (Table

XXXII). As anticipated, this suggests that the administrator who works the most hours per week does experience the greatest stress from role overload.

A significant association ($\chi^2 = 7.13$, $df = 2$, $p = 0.03$) was found between the personal variable sex and role overload. Female chief administrators ($n = 145$) experienced a greater amount of "thinking that the amount of work I have to do may interfere with how well it gets done" than male chief administrators ($n = 19$), as shown in Table XXXIII. These findings suggest that the female administrator experiences greater stress from the amount of work load, possibly due to feelings of role conflict previously cited from trying to balance home and work lives.

Job-Related Stress and Institutional Variables

Five institutional variables were examined; the size of the institution by number of majors, the types of degrees offered, the number of faculty, the type of university (Land Grant or non Land Grant), and AAHE membership. Of the institutional variables statistically examined, three significantly ($p < 0.05$) affected job-related stress scores. The variable dealing with the number of full time equivalent faculty ($p = 0.016$) and the type of university ($p = 0.022$) were significantly associated with the job-related stressor, role conflict. The variable type of university ($p = 0.002$) was found to be significantly associated with the job-related stressor, role ambiguity. The variables dealing with the number of majors ($p = 0.018$), number of full time equivalent faculty ($p = 0.008$), and type of university ($p = 0.01$) significantly affected the job-related stressor, role overload.

TABLE XXXIII
 CHI SQUARE ASSOCIATION BETWEEN ROLE OVERLOAD AND
 PERSONAL VARIABLE OF HOME ECONOMICS
 CHIEF ADMINISTRATORS

		Never/ Rarely	Sometimes	Rather Often/ Nearly all the time
<i>Gender: JRT12</i>				
Male	Frequency	9.0	6.0	4.0
	Expected	4.4	8.1	6.5
Female	Frequency	29.0	64.0	52.0
	Expected	33.6	61.9	49.5
Total		38.0	70.0	56.0
Chi Square Value = 7.130 Probability = 0.028				

Role Conflict: Institutional Variables

The independent variable FTEs had a significant effect on the dependent variable role conflict ($p = 0.0157$) (Table XXXIV). Home economics chief administrators who administer 51 or more faculty FTEs ($n = 12$, $\bar{X} = 24.42$) had less role conflict (Table XXXV). It was significantly lower than those who administer 11 to 25 faculty ($n = 41$, $\bar{X} = 28.73$), 10 or less faculty ($n = 93$, $\bar{X} = 28.00$), or 26 to 50 faculty ($n = 21$, $\bar{X} = 27.10$).

TABLE XXXIV
ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE (ANOVA) RESULTS FOR
ROLE CONFLICT BY INSTITUTIONAL VARIABLE

Source	df	Mean Squares	F	p
Number of FTEs	3	62.36	3.56	0.0157
Error	163	17.54		
Total	166			

TABLE XXXV
DUNCAN MULTIPLE RANGE TEST FOR ROLE CONFLICT
AND INSTITUTIONAL VARIABLE

Variable	Frequency	Mean	Grouping*
<i>Faculty</i>			
11 - 25 FTEs	41	28.73	A
1 - 10 FTEs	93	28.00	A
26 - 50 FTEs	21	27.10	A
Over 51 FTEs	12	24.42	B

*Means with the same letter are not significantly different at the $p < 0.05$ level.

Chief administrators from non Land Grant universities ($n = 127$, $\bar{X} = 28.17$) had significantly more role conflict than administrators from Land Grant universities ($n = 46$, $\bar{X} = 26.50$) with a significance level of $p = 0.022$ (Table

XXXVI). These findings imply that administrators feel greater job-related stress in the less structured environment of the non Land Grant institutions.

TABLE XXXVI

t-TEST PROCEDURE FOR ROLE CONFLICT AND TYPE OF UNIVERSITY
(LAND GRANT OR NON LAND GRANT)

Type of University	Frequency	Mean	Standard Error	t	p*
Land Grant	46	26.50	0.54	-2.31	0.0222
Non Land Grant	127	28.17	0.39		

*Significant (t-test) at the $p < 0.05$ level.

For JRT question 15, an association between the institutional variable land grant university and role conflict was statistically significant ($\chi^2 = 12.471$, $df = 2$, $p = 0.002$). A higher number of subjects at non land grant universities reported "feeling that my progress on the job is not what it should be or could be" than those subjects at land grant universities (Table XXXVII).

Role Ambiguity: Institutional Variables

The association between the institutional variable Land Grant university and role ambiguity was statistically significant ($\chi^2 = 7.270$, $df = 2$, $p = 0.026$). A higher number of subjects at Land Grant universities reported "not knowing what the boss thinks of me, how he/she evaluates my performance" than those

TABLE XXXVII
 CHI SQUARE ASSOCIATION BETWEEN ROLE CONFLICT AND
 INSTITUTIONAL VARIABLE OF HOME ECONOMICS
 CHIEF ADMINISTRATORS

		Never/ Rarely	Sometimes	Rather Often/ Nearly all the time
<i>Land Grant or Non Land Grant University: JRT15</i>				
Land Grant	Frequency	27.0	7.0	4.0
	Expected	17.6	14.3	6.2
Non Land Grant	Frequency	47.0	53.0	22.0
	Expected	56.4	45.8	19.8
Total		74.0	60.0	26.0
Frequency Missing = 4 Chi Square Value = 12.471 Probability = 0.002				

subjects at non land grant universities (Table XXXVIII). These results indicate that Land Grant universities, known for their formal structure, may lack informal feedback about job performance.

Role Overload: Institutional Variables

Number of full time equivalent (FTE) faculty significantly affected role overload ($p = 0.0080$) (Table XXXIX). Home economics chief administrators who administer 51 or more full time equivalent faculty ($n = 12$, $\bar{X} = 7.50$) had significantly less role overload (Table XL) than those who administer 11 to 25 faculty ($n = 41$, $\bar{X} = 9.34$) and those who administer 10 or less faculty ($n = 93$, \bar{X}

TABLE XXXVIII
 CHI SQUARE ASSOCIATION BETWEEN ROLE AMBIGUITY
 AND INSTITUTIONAL VARIABLE OF HOME ECONOMICS
 CHIEF ADMINISTRATORS

		Never/ Rarely	Sometimes	Rather Often/ Nearly all the time
<i>Land Grant or Non Land Grant University: JRT6</i>				
Land Grant	Frequency	24.0	5.0	9.0
	Expected	25.6	7.9	4.5
Non Land Grant	Frequency	83.0	28.0	10.0
	Expected	81.4	25.1	14.5
Total		107.0	33.0	19.0
Frequency Missing = 2 Chi Square Value = 7.270 Probability = 0.026				

TABLE XXXIX
 ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE (ANOVA) RESULTS FOR ROLE
 OVERLOAD BY INSTITUTIONAL VARIABLES

Source	df	Mean Squares	F	p
Number of FTEs	3	12.80	4.07	0.0080
Error	163	3.14		
Total	166			
Number of Majors	2	12.90	4.12	0.0179
Error	167	3.13		
Total	169			

TABLE XL
DUNCAN MULTIPLE RANGE TEST FOR ROLE OVERLOAD
AND INSTITUTIONAL VARIABLES

Variables	Frequency	Mean	Grouping*
<i>Faculty</i>			
11-25 FTEs	41	9.34	A
1-10 FTEs	93	8.88	A
26-50 FTEs	21	8.29	A B
over 51 FTEs	12	7.50	B
<i>Number of Undergraduate and Graduate Majors</i>			
251-500 majors	39	9.15	A
Under 250 majors	90	8.90	A
More than 500 majors	41	8.10	B

*Means with the same letter are not significantly different at the $p < 0.05$ level.

= 8.88). Respondents who were chief administrators for a unit with 26 to 50 faculty ($n = 21$, $\bar{X} = 8.29$) were not significantly different from the respondents with 51 or more faculty or respondents with zero to 25 faculty (Table XL). These findings imply that the administrator with the largest number of faculty experiences the lowest level of work overload. Possibly when taking a position with a high number of faculty, he/she anticipated the workload that would go with the position. These administrators also appear to have more people below them to delegate work.

The number of undergraduate and graduate majors had a significant effect on role overload ($p = 0.0179$) (Table XXXIX). Respondents with more than 500 undergraduate or graduate majors ($n = 41$, $\bar{X} = 8.10$) enrolled in their unit had significantly less role overload than those respondents with less majors

(Table XL). The administrators with 251 to 500 majors ($n = 39$, $\bar{X} = 9.15$) and with less than 250 majors ($n = 90$, $\bar{X} = 8.90$) had significantly higher stress. The administrators with the largest number of majors had the lowest level of stress from work overload. As previously suggested, he/she may have accepted the amount of work load when accepting the position or may have an associate or assistant whom he/she can delegate certain functions.

The association between the institutional variable, land grant university and role overload was statistically significant ($\chi^2 = 9.172$, $df = 2$, $p = 0.010$). A higher number of subjects at non land grant universities reported "thinking that the amount of work I have to do may interfere with how well it gets done" than those subjects at land grant universities. Data in Table XLI show the chi square association between type of university and JRT question 12. These findings imply that the non Land Grant universities possibly have heavier teaching loads in addition to being chief administrator for the unit compared with those in land grant institutions. Comments on having to teach a heavy load and administer for the unit were made by administrators responding to the survey.

Leadership Behavior with Job-Related Stress Variables

Data were examined to determine if there was a significant relationship between leadership, as a dependent variable, and job-related stress, as an independent variable. In examining the primary style of leaders, a significant association ($p < 0.05$) was found between Job-Related Tension (JRT) questions 2 and 9 and primary style.

An association was found between JRT question 2, "unclear on just what opportunities for advancement or promotion exist for me", and primary style ($\chi^2 = 19.39$, $df = 8$, $p = 0.013$), as shown in Table XLII. Administrators with a

TABLE XLI
 CHI SQUARE ASSOCIATION BETWEEN ROLE OVERLOAD
 AND INSTITUTIONAL VARIABLE OF HOME ECONOMICS
 CHIEF ADMINISTRATORS

		Never/ Rarely	Sometimes	Rather Often/ Nearly all the time
<i>Land Grant or Non Land Grant University: JRT12</i>				
Land Grant	Frequency	16.0	13.0	10.0
	Expected	9.0	16.6	13.3
Non Land Grant	Frequency	22.0	57.0	46.0
	Expected	29.0	53.4	42.7
Total		38.0	70.0	56.0
Chi Square Value = 9.172 Probability = 0.010				

primary style of S1 and S3 were associated with greater job stress in relation to this question on advancement and promotion.

"Feeling that I may not be liked and accepted by the people I work with" (question 9) was associated with the leaders' primary style ($\chi^2 = 17.13$, $df = 8$, $p = 0.029$), as shown in Table XLIII. Administrators with a primary style of S3 and S2/S3 were associated with greater job stress in relation to this question on being liked and accepted by coworkers. These findings suggest that the administrator who chose a "participative" style did so possibly to overcome conflicting feelings he has toward his colleagues about being accepted.

TABLE XLII
CHI SQUARE ASSOCIATION BETWEEN PRIMARY STYLE
AND JOB-RELATED STRESS OF HOME ECONOMICS
CHIEF ADMINISTRATORS

		Never/ Rarely	Sometimes	Rather Often/ Nearly all the time
<i>Primary Style: JRT2</i>				
S1 Style	Frequency	1.0	1.0	1.00
	Expected	2.2	.7	.07
S2 Style	Frequency	65.0	15.0	1.00
	Expected	60.3	18.8	2.00
S3 Style	Frequency	37.0	16.0	1.00
	Expected	40.2	12.5	1.30
S2/S3 Style	Frequency	18.0	4.0	1.00
	Expected	17.1	5.3	.60
S1/S2/S3 Style	Frequency	1.0	2.0	0
	Expected	2.3	.7	.07
Total		122.0	38.0	4.00
Chi Square Value = 19.388 Probability = 0.013				

Hypotheses Testing

In this study, leadership behavior and job-related stress were assessed using frequency distributions, percentages, ANOVA, chi square, and Duncan's multiple range test.

H1: There will be no significant difference between leadership behavior of home economics chief administrators based on selected personal variables.

TABLE XLIII
CHI SQUARE ASSOCIATION BETWEEN PRIMARY STYLE
AND JOB RELATED STRESS OF HOME ECONOMICS
CHIEF ADMINISTRATORS

		Never/ Rarely	Sometimes	Rather Often/ Nearly all the time	Total
<i>Primary Style: JRT9</i>					
S1 Style	Frequency	2.0	1.0	0	3
	Expected	2.0	.8	.2	
S2 Style	Frequency	56.0	23.0	2.0	81
	Expected	53.3	22.7	4.9	
S3 Style	Frequency	36.0	11.0	7.0	54
	Expected	35.6	15.1	3.3	
S2/S3 Style	Frequency	14.0	9.0	0	23
	Expected	15.1	6.5	1.4	
S1/S2/S3 Style	Frequency	0	2.0	1.0	3
	Expected	2.0	.8	.2	
Total		108.0	46.0	10.0	164
Chi Square Value = 17.129 Probability = 0.029					

Only one personal variable, children living at home, was found to be significantly associated with style/readiness (havoc). Based on these results, H1 was not rejected.

H2: There will be no significant differences between leadership behavior of home economics chief administrators based on selected institutional variables.

None of the institutional variables tested were found to significantly affect leadership behavior. Based on these results, H2 was not rejected.

H3: There will be no significant difference between job-related stressors (role conflict, role ambiguity, and role overload) of home economics chief administrators based on selected personal variables.

Of the fifteen personal variables examined, age, gender, position title, academic rank, salary, hours worked per week, and children living at home were found to significantly affect job-related stressors (role conflict, role ambiguity, and role overload). Based on these results, H3 was rejected.

H4: There will be no significant difference between job-related stressors (role conflict, role ambiguity, and role overload) of home economics chief administrators based on selected institutional variables.

Of the five institutional variables examined, size of institution by number of majors, types of degrees offered, number of full-time faculty, and type of university (Land Grant and non Land Grant) significantly affected job-related stressors (role conflict, role ambiguity, and role overload). Based on these results, H4 was rejected.

H5: There will be no significant relationship between the leadership behavior and job stress of home economics chief administrators.

Two of the 16 Job-Related Tension (JRT) index questions were found to be significantly associated to the leadership variable primary style. No other significant associations were found; therefore, H5 was not rejected.

CHAPTER V
SUMMARY, RECOMMENDATIONS, AND
IMPLICATIONS

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to assess the leadership behavior of chief administrators of home economics programs. Another purpose of this study was to determine the level of job-related stress occurring in this middle-management position in institutions of higher education.

The specific objectives of the study were:

1. To determine if selected personal variables, as stated in Chapter I, affect the leadership behavior of home economics chief administrators.
2. To determine if selected institutional variables, as stated in Chapter I, affect the leadership behavior of home economics chief administrators.
3. To determine if selected personal variables, as stated in Chapter I, affect the type of job-related stress of home economics chief administrators.
4. To determine if selected institutional variables, as stated in Chapter I, affect the type of job-related stress of home economics chief administrators.
5. To determine the relationship between leadership behavior of home economics chief administrators and job-related stress.

Five hypotheses were postulated to determine if selected variables affected either leadership behavior or job-related stress.

The population used in the study included all chief administrators (n = 272) of Home Economics programs and was obtained from the membership list of the Association of Administrators in Home Economics (AAHE) and the National Council of Administrators in Home Economics (NCAHE).

A closed-question survey instrument was used to accomplish the objectives of the study. The instrument contained three parts: a biographical questionnaire, the LEAD-Self questionnaire (Hersey and Blanchard, 1987) and the Job-Related Tension (JRT) Index (Kahn, et al., 1964).

Questionnaires were mailed to the total population of home economics administrators. Responses from 173 (64%) administrators were usable for the biographical information and job-related stress; whereas 163 (60%) were usable for analysis of LEAD-Self. Data were analyzed using frequencies, percentages, t-test, ANOVA, Duncan's multiple range test, and chi squares.

Summary

Characteristics of Home Economics

Chief Administrators

Personal Profile. Eighty-eight percent of home economics chief administrators were female. Over two-thirds were 45 or under (35%) or 46-55 (39%) years of age. Ninety-one percent were white. Sixty-eight percent were married, 19 percent were single, and the remaining 13 percent were divorced or widowed. Thirty-seven percent of the respondents were the sole supporter of their household. Seventy-one percent had children, while 47 percent had two children or less. Thirty-six percent had one to three children living at home.

Almost half (46%) reported that their mother worked outside the home while they were growing up.

Eighty percent of the administrators had obtained a doctorate, while 3.4 percent were working on the degree. Seventy-one percent had a doctoral degree in home economics, while 22 percent had a doctoral degree outside of home economics.

The most predominant title for home economics chief administrator was department chairperson (46%). Nineteen percent were deans, 15 percent department heads, 10 percent directors, and 15 percent listed other titles. Forty-seven percent had worked in their present position three to 10 years, 38 percent two years or less, while eight percent were an acting chief administrator. Only 15 percent had been the chief administrator over 10 years. The most predominant route to their present administrative position was faculty member to chairperson/department head to current position (46%), followed by faculty member to present position (32%). Nine percent mentioned "other", nontraditional routes to present administrative position.

Nearly half (42%) of the respondents had an annual position salary of \$40,000 or less. Only six percent made \$80,000 or more. Fifty-two percent spent 51-60 hours per week fulfilling their job responsibilities, 26 percent over 60 hours, and 22 percent spent 40-50 hours per week. Over three-fourths (76%) reported attending seminars and workshops on administration and leadership, while only 21 percent had participated in a formal, extensive leadership training program.

Institutional Profile. Over half of the respondents (53%) had under 250 home economics graduate and undergraduate majors enrolled in their unit in the Spring, 1988. Twenty-three percent had 251-500 majors, while less than one percent had over 2,000 majors. Over half (56%) had 10 or less full time

equivalent (FTE) faculty in their unit. Twenty-five percent had 11 to 25 FTEs, while 20 percent had 26 or more FTEs.

Less than half (43%) were administrators of an undergraduate program and 56 percent had both an undergraduate and graduate program. Seventy-three percent of the respondents were from a non Land Grant university, while 23 percent were from a Land Grant institution.

Self Perceived Leadership Behavior

Ninety-six percent of the home economics chief administrators chose a primary leadership style that was high task/high relationship (S2) and/or low task/high relationship (S3). Of those, 49 percent preferred a S2, "selling" style, which is most effective when follower(s) are of low to moderate readiness (maturity). Thirty-three percent preferred a S3, "participating" style, used primarily for follower(s) of moderate to high readiness. An additional 14 percent chose a primary style that was equally S2 and S3. Only two percent chose a S1, "telling" style, and none of the administrators chose a primary style that was S4, "delegating".

Fifty-four percent of the respondents chose a leadership range of two quadrants, indicating only moderate flexibility. Of those with a two quadrant range, 51 percent were Q2/Q3. A very small number (6%) chose a style range of four quadrants (Q1-Q4), indicating maximum flexibility.

Only five percent of the home economics administrators' scores reflected a high degree of style adaptability (effectiveness). Seventy percent showed a moderate degree of adaptability, while slightly over one-fourth (26%) showed a need for improving their ability to adapt their leadership style to the level of readiness of the follower(s). These results are further indications of the lack of

style range and use of high task/low relationship (S1) style or low task/low relationship (S4) style.

The style/readiness match scores indicated that the administrators, when given the opportunity to use a S4, "delegating" style, preferred to use the S3, "participating" style. When given the opportunity to use the S3 style, over half would use it or would use the S2, "selling" style. When the administrators were given the opportunity to use the S2 style, the majority would use it or use the S3, "participating" style. Lastly, when given the opportunity to use the S1, "telling" style, the majority would use the S2, "selling" style instead.

Most individuals in higher education are of above average level of education and experience, a readiness level of R3 to R4, but the findings show a lack of the primary style S4, "delegating". Most authors agree that a "delegating", "team approach" style would be most effective with this type of group (Tucker, 1984; Hersey and Blanchard, 1988; Ehrle and Bennett, 1988). Hersey and Blanchard (1988) comment that when working with experienced and highly educated faculty, the low relationship/low task (S4), "delegating" style may be most appropriate (p. 193).

These findings indicate that home economics chief administrators did not choose a situational type of leadership but instead used one or two styles in almost all situations. This conclusion is supported by fact that the "selling" and/or "participating" primary styles were chosen by 96 percent of those surveyed.

Job-Related Stress

Chief administrators who were 45 years of age or younger and had the title of director, assistant director, or division head/division chair had significantly more role conflict than other administrators. Those with the rank of

associate professor, instructor, or assistant professor and an annual salary of under \$40,000 or \$50,000-\$59,999, also showed the highest role conflict. Those over 46 years of age, with the title dean, associate dean, or assistant dean had significantly less role conflict than other administrators; along with those who had a professor rank and made over \$60,000 annually.

Administrators who had children living at home had significantly more role conflict. Female administrators were associated with more role conflict from "feeling that the job interfered with family life". Respondents under 46 years of age reported more conflict from "feeling like they had too much responsibility and authority delegated to them."

Home economics chief administrators with the title director, assistant director, or division head/division chairperson or with the title chairperson, department head, or coordinator had significantly more role ambiguity than other titled administrators. The associate and assistant ranked professor reported a significant amount of role ambiguity, as did those administrators making under \$40,000, \$40,000-\$49,999, or \$50,000-\$59,999. The lowest amount of role ambiguity was found with deans, associate or assistant deans, along with administrators with professor rank. Less role ambiguity was found for administrators making \$60,000 or more. The oldest group, over 55 years of age, of administrators were associated with low role ambiguity for "not knowing what opportunities for advancement or promotion exist."

Role overload significantly affected those administrators with the title director, assistant director, or division head/division chairperson or with the title chairperson, department head, or coordinator, along with those with the academic rank of associate professor. Respondents making under \$40,000 or \$50,000 to \$59,999 and working over 60 hours per week had significantly more role overload than other administrators. Female administrators were associated

with role overload from the statement "thinking that the amount of work I have to do may interfere with how well it gets done."

Chief administrators with 11 to 25 FTEs, one to 10 FTEs, and 26 to 50 FTEs had significantly more role conflict than administrators with higher number of FTEs. Respondents at non Land Grant universities were also associated with more role conflict than those at Land Grant institutions. Non Land Grant university administrators reported more conflict from "feeling that my progress on the job is not what it should or could be", while Land Grant university administrators were associated with higher role ambiguity from "not knowing what the boss thinks of me, how he/she evaluates my performance."

Respondents with 11 to 25 FTEs or one to 10 FTEs had significantly more role overload than did those with higher FTEs. Administrators reporting under 250 majors or 251 to 500 undergraduate and graduate majors were found to have more role overload than those with a larger number of majors. Non Land Grant university administrators were associated with higher role overload in terms of "thinking that the amount of work I have to do may interfere with how well it gets done."

Leadership Behavior and Job-Related Stress

Few significant associations were found between leadership, as a dependent variable, and job-related stress as an independent variable. Administrators with a primary style of S1, "telling" and S3, "participating" were associated with greater job stress in relation to the statement "unclear on just what opportunities for advancement or promotion exist for me." Respondents with a primary style of S3, "participating" and S2/S3, "selling/participating" were associated with greater stress in relation to "feeling that I may not be liked and accepted by the people I work with."

Recommendations

Data Collection

Although a post card follow-up mailing was done to remind administrators of the survey, a second copy of the questionnaire could have been sent to elicit greater response. A second copy of the questionnaire would require considerably more financial resources due to the cost of printing the questionnaire, first class mailing, and cost of purchasing the copyrighted LEAD-Self instrument. A follow-up post card received by the administrator on the day the return is due could lessen the chance of the survey instrument being disposed of already and increase the response.

The biographical section of the questionnaire lacked a question on mentoring, which may have implications for leadership. The question could inquire whether the administrator had been mentored and, if so, by whom. A question asking the occupation of mother and father would have been more beneficial and appropriate than only asking if the respondent's mother worked outside the home.

Recommendation Based on the Results of the Study

1. Home economics administrators should periodically evaluate their leadership behavior in terms of style, style range, and style adaptability. It is recommended that these leaders explore the use of style 1 and 4 and consider adding these styles to their present style range. These styles are effective in situations with people of low and high readiness behaviors.

2. This study could be replicated using the LEAD-Other instrument. A survey could be conducted using a subordinate and superior for each administrator and correlated with the present data of LEAD-Self.

3. This same population could be surveyed on mentoring and leadership.

4. Research could be conducted using an instrument more sensitive to leadership behavior in actual situations. Some respondents commented that the situations were too contrived and ambiguous and that the choices were inadequate or inappropriate.

5. A similar study could be conducted on job-related stress and coping behaviors of administrators.

6. The job-related stress survey could be replicated on a nation wide sample of home economics faculty or department heads and chairpersons.

Implications

One of the major objectives of this study was to assess the leadership behavior and job-related stress of home economics chief administrators in order to derive some understanding that would be helpful in choosing stronger administrative leaders and improving present administrators' quality of work life.

1. There appears to be a strong need for professional development in the area of leadership and administration, especially focusing on situational leadership behaviors.

2. There appears to be a strong need for professional development in the area of job-related stress. Since the role of a home economics chief administrator appears to be fraught with role conflict, role ambiguity, and role overload, assistance in the area of coping with these stressors could be beneficial.

3. A response of 64 percent indicates that home economics chief administrators appear to be interested in improving their leadership effectiveness and in knowing more about job-related stress.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A
LEADERSHIP AND JOB-RELATED STRESS
QUESTIONNAIRE



Oklahoma State University

DEPARTMENT OF FOOD, NUTRITION AND INSTITUTION ADMINISTRATION
COLLEGE OF HOME ECONOMICS

STILLWATER, OKLAHOMA 74078-0337
HOME ECONOMICS WEST 425
405-624-5039

February 12, 1988

We would like to ask your participation in a research study concerned with assessing the leadership behavior of the chief administrators of home economics units. This study will also deal with the types of job-related stress that administrators experience in the performance of their job responsibilities.

We believe there is a need for studies on leadership in the home economics profession. Effective leadership is necessary in helping individuals (students, faculty, staff workers, and administrators) reach their full potential and for building a stronger profession. Along with leadership, it is important for administrators to recognize the types of job-related stress that may manifest in the leadership role. Hopefully, when there is a better understanding of job-related stress, individuals will be able to maximize their performance in light of certain constraints.

The survey contains three parts: biographical section, leadership style survey, and stress survey. A pilot study revealed that it takes approximately 20 minutes to complete the questionnaire. The survey is coded in order to follow-up on nonresponses and will be removed immediately upon return of the questionnaire. All information conveyed to us will be held in strict confidence and at no time will you or your institution be identified in the research report. After completing the questionnaire, please staple it and return it to us by March 1, 1988. Postage is furnished for your convenience.

We appreciate your participation in this research study. A copy of the research abstract will be mailed to all chief administrators at the completion of the study. Thank you for your time and professional assistance!

Sincerely,

Lea L. Ebro

Lea L. Ebro, Ph.D., R.D.
Professor, Interim Head, and
Thesis Advisor
Department of Food, Nutrition
and Institution Administration

Mary Roseman

Mary Roseman, M.B.A., R.D.
Teaching Associate and
Doctoral Candidate



Celebrating the Past . . . Preparing for the Future

LEADERSHIP AND JOB-RELATED STRESS OF HOME ECONOMICS CHIEF ADMINISTRATORS

BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

Completing the following section will allow the researcher to have a more accurate description of the sample used in the study.

Directions:

Please check (✓) or fill in the appropriate response. It is important to answer all the questions.

1. Gender:
 - (1) Male
 - (2) Female

2. Age group at last birthday:
 - (1) 35 or under
 - (2) 36-45
 - (3) 46-55
 - (4) 56-65
 - (5) over 65

3. Ethnic or racial background:
 - (1) White
 - (2) Native American (Indian)
 - (3) Black
 - (4) Hispanic
 - (5) Asian
 - (6) Other (specify) _____

4. Degrees earned (specify the major for each degree):
 - (1) Bachelor _____
 - (2) Master _____
 - (3) Doctorate _____
 - (4) Other (specify) _____

5. In which of the following have you participated for additional training in administration and leadership?
 - (1) ACE Fellowships
 - (2) Intensive training (i.e., Harvard University, Bryn Mawr College, University of Tennessee)
 - (3) Workshops and seminars
 - (4) Other (specify) _____
 - (5) No additional training

6. Position Title(s): _____
 Length of time in present position: _____
 Academic rank (if applicable): _____
7. Annual salary received from the higher education institution that employs you:
 _____ (1) Under \$40,000 _____ (6) 60,000-69,999
 _____ (2) 40,000-49,999 _____ (7) 70,000-79,999
 _____ (3) 50,000-59,999 _____ (8) 80,000 & above
8. Which of the following was the route to your current position (excluding present position)?
 _____ (1) Faculty
 _____ (2) Faculty -- department head or chairperson
 _____ (3) Faculty -- department head or chairperson -- associate or assistant dean
 _____ (4) Faculty -- associate or assistant dean
 _____ (5) Other (specify) _____
9. Total number of home economics undergraduate and graduate majors enrolled in your unit (i.e., department, school, or college) as of Spring, 1988:
 _____ (1) under 250 _____ (3) 501-1000 _____ (5) 1501-2000
 _____ (2) 251-500 _____ (4) 1001-1500 _____ (6) 2001 & above
10. What degrees in home economics does your unit offer (check all that apply)?
 _____ (1) Associate
 _____ (2) Bachelor
 _____ (3) Master
 _____ (4) Doctorate
11. Total number of full time equivalent faculty in your unit: _____
12. Average hours spent per week fulfilling your job responsibilities:
 _____ (1) 40-50 hr/wk _____ (3) 61-70 hr/wk
 _____ (2) 51-60 hr/wk _____ (4) over 70 hr/wk
13. Current marital status:
 _____ (1) Single _____ (3) Divorced _____ (5) Widowed
 _____ (2) Married _____ (4) Separated
14. Number of children: _____
 Number of children living with you: _____
15. Are you the sole support of your household?
 _____ (1) Yes _____ (2) No
16. Did your mother work outside the home while you were growing up?
 _____ (1) Yes _____ (2) No

PLEASE NOTE:

Copyrighted materials in this document have not been filmed at the request of the author. They are available for consultation, however, in the author's university library.

These consist of pages:

125, "Job-Related Stress"

126-128, "Leader Effectiveness & Adaptability Description"

U·M·I

JOB-RELATED STRESS

Complete the following section on job-related stress relating each statement to your experiences as the home economics chief administrator of your institution.

Directions:

Please READ each of the following 16 items carefully. Decide how frequently you are troubled as an administrator by each statement. Respond to each statement using: (6) NEARLY ALL THE TIME, (5) RATHER OFTEN, (4) SOMETIMES, (3) RARELY, (2) NEVER, or (1) DOESN'T APPLY to best describe your feelings toward each item. CIRCLE only one choice for each item.

	NEARLY ALL THE TIME	RATHER OFTEN	SOMETIMES	RARELY	NEVER	DOESN'T APPLY
1. Feeling that I have too little authority to carry out the responsibilities assigned to me	6	5	4	3	2	1
2. Unclear on just what the scope and responsibilities of my job are	6	5	4	3	2	1
3. Not knowing what opportunities for advancement or promotion exist for me	6	5	4	3	2	1
4. Feeling that I have too heavy a work load, one that I can not possibly finish during an ordinary day	6	5	4	3	2	1
5. Thinking that I will not be able to satisfy the conflicting demands of various people over me	6	5	4	3	2	1
6. Not knowing what my boss thinks of me, how he/she evaluates my performance	6	5	4	3	2	1
7. The fact that I can not get information needed to carry out my job	6	5	4	3	2	1
8. Having to decide things that affect the lives of individuals, people that I know	6	5	4	3	2	1
9. Feeling that I may not be liked and accepted by the people I work with	6	5	4	3	2	1
10. Feeling unable to influence my immediate boss's decisions and actions that affect me	6	5	4	3	2	1
11. Not knowing just what the people I work with expect of me	6	5	4	3	2	1
12. Thinking that the amount of work I have to do may interfere with how well it gets done	6	5	4	3	2	1
13. Feeling that I have to do things on the job that are against my better judgment	6	5	4	3	2	1
14. Feeling that my job tends to interfere with my family life	6	5	4	3	2	1
15. Feeling that my progress on the job is not what it should be or could be	6	5	4	3	2	1
16. Feeling that I have too much responsibility and authority delegated to me by my superiors	6	5	4	3	2	1

Job-Related Tension Index by Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, and Rosenthal, 1964

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR HELP WITH THIS SURVEY!

Please fold the questionnaire, staple and return promptly. It is stamped and pre-addressed for your convenience.

LEAD Self

Developed by Paul Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard

Directions:

Assume YOU are involved in each of the following twelve situations. Each situation has four alternative actions you might initiate. READ each item carefully. THINK about what YOU would do in each circumstance. Then, CIRCLE the letter of the alternative action choice which you think would most closely describe YOUR behavior in the situation presented. Circle only *one choice*.



Leader Effectiveness & Adaptability Description

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

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

Oklahoma State University
Department of Food, Nutrition and Institution Administration
College of Home Economics
Home Economics West 425
Stillwater, Oklahoma 74078-0337

APPENDIX B

PILOT STUDY QUESTIONNAIRE



Oklahoma State University

DEPARTMENT OF FOOD, NUTRITION AND INSTITUTION ADMINISTRATION
COLLEGE OF HOME ECONOMICS

STILLWATER, OKLAHOMA 74078-0337
HOME ECONOMICS WEST 425
405-624-5039

January 31, 1988

Dear Home Economics Chief Administrator:

We are conducting a research project concerned with assessing the leadership style and job-related stress of home economics deans and department heads throughout the United States. We would appreciate your assistance in refining the instrument for that project.

Enclosed you will find the survey instrument that is being developed for this project. Please answer all the questions in the three parts of the survey, keeping track of the time involved. When answering the biographical section (I), reflect on the following questions. We would appreciate it if you could return this questionnaire to us by Monday, February 8, 1988. You do not need to return the research instrument.

1. List any statement(s) that are unclear. (Give statement number). _____

2. List any terms that require further definition.

3. List any statement(s) that should be deleted. (Give statement number). _____

4. Do you feel that the biographical information is adequately covered? If not, what should be included?



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5. List any suggestions for revision (i.e., format, length).

6. How long did it take you to complete the survey?

Thank you for your time and professional assistance.

Sincerely,

Mary G. Roseman


Mary G. Roseman, M.B.A.
Doctoral Student and Teaching
Associate, FNIA Department

Lea L. Ebro

Dr. Lea L. Ebro, Ph.D.
Interim Head, Professor, and
Major Advisor
FNIA Department

APPENDIX C

FOLLOW-UP CORRESPONDENCE



We hope
you haven't
forgotten us

We would like your response to the

**LEADERSHIP AND JOB-RELATED STRESS
SURVEY
(THINK GREEN!)**

Please take a few minutes to complete the questionnaire you received in February. Your participation in the study is very important to us. Thank you for your cooperation.

* If you need another survey, call us at
OKLAHOMA STATE UNIVERSITY
(405) 624-5039
We would be happy to send you one.

Mary Roseman
Mary Roseman, M.B.A., R.D
Doctoral Candidate



Oklahoma State University

DEPARTMENT OF FOOD, NUTRITION AND INSTITUTION ADMINISTRATION
COLLEGE OF HOME ECONOMICS

STILLWATER, OKLAHOMA 74078-0337
HOME ECONOMICS WEST 425
405-624-5039

March 12, 1988

Dear

Thank you for responding to our follow-up postcard in regard to participating in a research study concerned with assessing the leadership behavior of the chief administrators of home economics units. This study also deals with the types of job-related stress that administrators experience in the performance of their job responsibilities.

We believe there is a need for studies on leadership in the home economics profession. Effective leadership is necessary in helping individuals (students, faculty, staff workers, and administrators) reach their full potential and for building a stronger profession. Along with leadership, it is important for administrators to recognize the types of job-related stress that may manifest in the leadership role. Hopefully, when there is a better understanding of job-related stress, individuals will be able to maximize their performance in light of certain constraints.

The survey contains three parts: biographical section, leadership style survey, and stress survey. It is important that the entire survey is completed. A pilot study revealed that it takes approximately 20 minutes to complete the questionnaire. All information conveyed to us will be held in strict confidence and at no time will you or your institution be identified in the research report. After completing the questionnaire, please staple it and return it to us as soon as possible. Postage is furnished for your convenience.

We appreciate your participation in this research study. A copy of the research abstract will be mailed to all chief administrators at the completion of the study. Thank you for your time and professional assistance!

Sincerely,

Lea L. Ebro

Lea Ebro, Ph.D., R.D.
Professor, Interim Head, and
Thesis Advisor
Department of Food, Nutrition
and Institution Administration


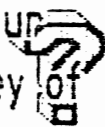
Mary Roseman

Mary Roseman, M.B.A., R.D.
Teaching Associate and Doctoral Candidate


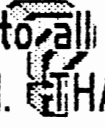




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 We have received your
response to the survey of 
Home Economics
Chief Administrators.

Unfortunately, we did not
receive the LEADERSHIP
part of the survey.

Please take five minutes to
complete LEAD-SELF and
return it to us. A complete
 response to all questions 
is needed.  THANK YOU 

Mary Roseman

APPENDIX D
CORRESPONDENCE



Oklahoma State University

DEPARTMENT OF FOOD, NUTRITION AND INSTITUTION ADMINISTRATION
COLLEGE OF HOME ECONOMICS

STILLWATER, OKLAHOMA 74078-0337
HOME ECONOMICS WEST 425
405-624-5039

January 25, 1988

Mr. Ron Campbell
Center for Leadership Studies
230 W. 3rd Street
Escondido, CA 92025

Dear Mr. Campbell:

As we discussed this afternoon, I am in urgent need of permission to use the LEAD-Self questionnaire by Hersey and Blanchard, copyright 1973. I would like to use the questionnaire for my dissertation at Oklahoma State University. I am doing a national study of Deans and Department Heads of Home Economics programs on leadership and stress.

I would like to send out the survey instrument around February 13, 1988. I strongly prefer to take one LEAD-Self instrument and reduce its size to fit into the survey instrument booklet I am having printed so that all parts of the questionnaire will look the same (biographical, stress, and leadership). If allowed, I will make sure that it is in complete form, including the instructions and copyright. My second preference is to order the exact number of questionnaires needed from the Center of Leadership Studies and insert them with my other questionnaires. Regardless of which way you allow me to use LEAD-Self, I do realize that I must pay the educational rate of \$.95 per subject surveyed. At this time, that number appears to be around 250.

Since the date proposed for sending the survey is so soon, I would be grateful if you would call me as soon as you know if permission has been granted, and follow-up with written authorization. Hopefully, a quick response to my request will not cause you any undue hardship. I am most appreciative and grateful of your assistance.

Sincerely,

Mary G. Roseman

Mary G. Roseman
Doctoral Student, OSU
Phone Number: 405-478-3858

Thesis Advisor:
Dr. Lea Ebro, Department Head
Food, Nutrition and Institution Administration
Oklahoma State University
Stillwater, OK
405-624-5039

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Oklahoma State University

DEPARTMENT OF FOOD, NUTRITION AND INSTITUTION ADMINISTRATION
COLLEGE OF HOME ECONOMICS

STILLWATER, OKLAHOMA 74078-0337
HOME ECONOMICS WEST 425
405-624-5039

January 25, 1988

Mr. Roger Pavelle
Permission Department
John Wiley & Sons
605 3rd Avenue
New York City, NY 10158

Dear Mr. Pavelle:

As we discussed this afternoon, I am in urgent need of permission to use a questionnaire found in the following book: Organizational Stress: Studies in Role Conflict and Ambiguity, Robert L. Kahn, Donald M. Wolfe, Robert P. Quinn, J. Diedrick Snoek, and Robert A. Rosenthal, 1964. This questionnaire (titled Job-Related Tension Index) is found in Appendix I, page 424-425.

I would like to use this questionnaire for my dissertation at Oklahoma State University. It will be a national study of Deans and Department Heads of Home Economics on leadership and stress. I hope to send out the questionnaire in the next few weeks. I would really appreciate it if you could let me know immediately if I have permission for its use. I would be grateful if you could call me collect as soon as you know if permission has been granted, and follow-up with a written authorization.

Hopefully, a quick response to my request will not cause you any undue hardship. I am most appreciative and grateful of your assistance.

Sincerely,

Mary G. Roseman

Mary G. Roseman
Doctoral Student
Phone Number: 405-478-3858

Thesis Advisor:
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DEPARTMENT OF FOOD, NUTRITION AND INSTITUTION ADMINISTRATION
COLLEGE OF HOME ECONOMICS

STILLWATER, OKLAHOMA 74078-0337
HOME ECONOMICS WEST 425
405-624-5039

January 31, 1988

Mr. Craig Covington
University Associates, Inc.
8517 Production Avenue
San Diego, California 92121

Dear Mr. Covington:

As we discussed today, I would like to purchase 300 LEAD Self instruments (green colored questionnaire). I will be using the questionnaire for my dissertation at Oklahoma State University. I am doing a national study of the leadership behavior of chief administrators (deans, department heads, etc.) of Home Economics programs in institutions of higher education. I have written permission to use the instrument from the Center for Leadership Studies.

I am enclosing a check for the 300 LEAD Self instruments at the educational rate of \$.95 per survey. I have also included \$28.50 for mailing the instruments by UPS blue label. Hopefully the surveys will arrive by February 11, 1988; since I am in urgent need of them. Thank you for your assistance!

Sincerely,

Mary G. Roseman

Mary G. Roseman, M.B.A.
Doctoral Student, OSU
Home phone number: 405-478-3858

Thesis Advisor:
Dr. Lea Ebro, Interim Head
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Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, OK
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APPENDIX E

AAHE AND NCAHE MEMBERSHIP LIST

CONSOLIDATED MEMBERSHIP LIST

AAHE AND NCAHE
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